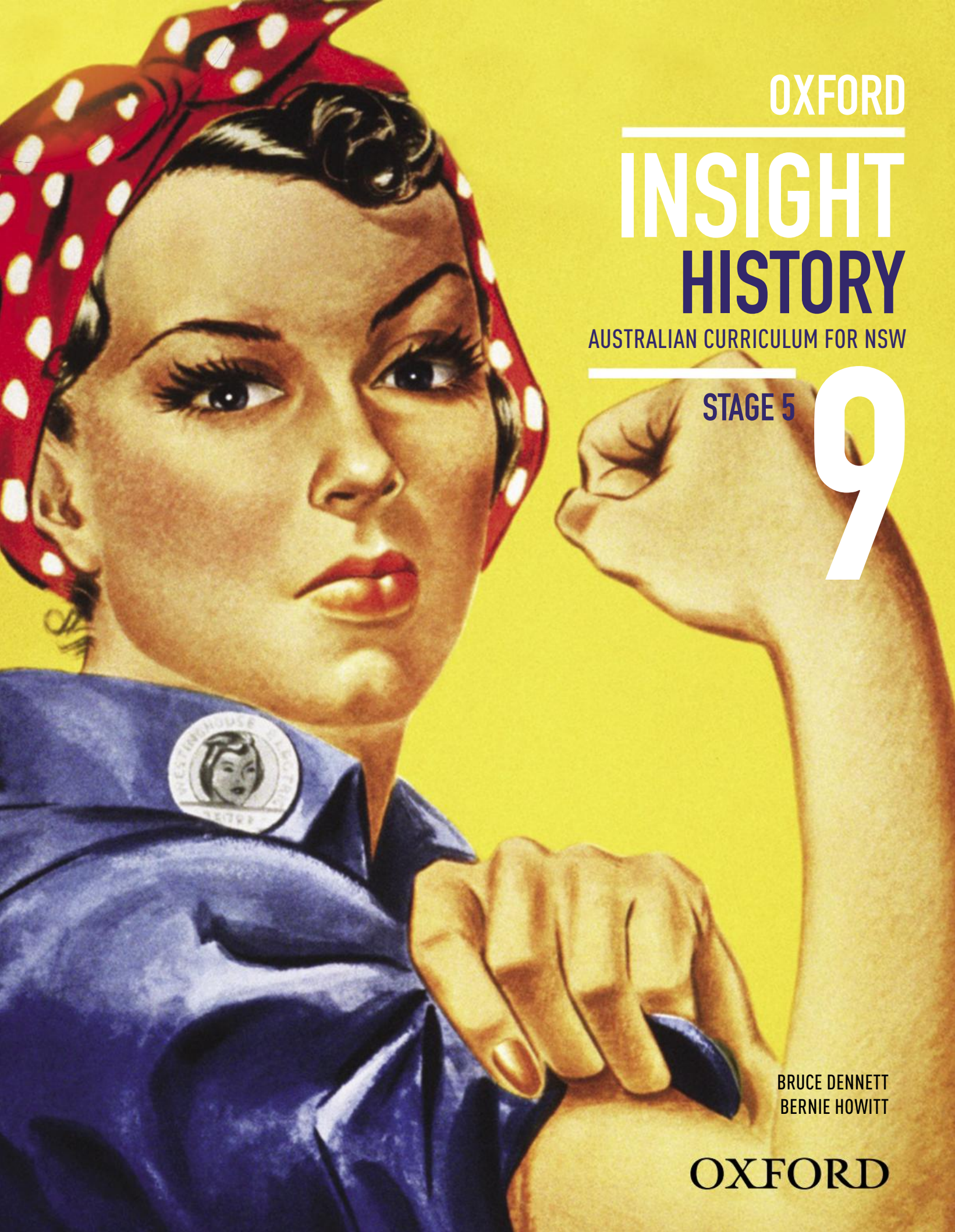




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INSIGHT HISTORY

AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM FOR NSW

STAGE 5

9

BRUCE DENNETT
BERNIE HOWITT

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AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM FOR NSW

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CONTRIBUTIONS BY ANGELA WONG

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CONTENTS

Using <i>Oxford Insight History</i>	vi
NSW Syllabus for the Australian Curriculum: History Stage 5 – Scope and sequence	x

THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD

PART 1 MAKING A BETTER WORLD?: AN OVERVIEW	2
---	----------

DEPTH STUDY 1: MAKING A BETTER WORLD?

CHAPTER 1 THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION	16
--	-----------

The Industrial Revolution – A timeline	18
1.1 What conditions and new technologies influenced the industrialisation of Britain and Australia?	20
1.2 What were the experiences of men, women and children during the Industrial Revolution?	42
1.3 What were the short- and long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution?	50

CHAPTER 2 MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES	58
--------------------------------------	-----------

Movement of peoples – A timeline	60
2.1 How did the Industrial Revolution influence the movement of peoples?	62
2.2 What were the experiences of slaves, convicts and free settlers on their journeys?	74
2.3 How did life change for people who moved to Australia?	86
2.4 What were the short- and long-term impacts of the movement of peoples?	98

CHAPTER 3 PROGRESSIVE IDEAS AND MOVEMENTS: CAPITALISM	106
--	------------

Progressive ideas and movements – A timeline	108
3.1 What progressive ideas and movements developed between 1750 and 1918?	110
3.2 What is capitalism and how did it develop?	124
3.3 What were the short- and long-term impacts of capitalism on Australia and the world?	136

PART 2 AUSTRALIA AND ASIA: AN OVERVIEW 142

DEPTH STUDY 2: AUSTRALIA AND ASIA

CHAPTER 4 MAKING A NATION 156

Making a nation – A timeline	158
4.1 Where did Europeans settle in Australia and what were the effects of contact with Indigenous peoples?	160
4.2 What were the experiences and contributions of non-Europeans in Australia before 1900?	182
4.3 What were living and working conditions like in Australia around 1900?	188
4.4 What key events and ideas led to the development of Australian self-government and democracy?	202

CHAPTER 5 ASIA AND THE WORLD: CHINA 216

Asia and the world: China – A timeline	218
5.1 What were the key features of Chinese society around 1750?	220
5.2 To what extent did Chinese society change as a result of contact with Europeans?	238

PART 3 AUSTRALIANS AT WAR (WORLD WARS I AND II): AN OVERVIEW 254

DEPTH STUDY 3: AUSTRALIANS AT WAR (WORLD WARS I AND II)

CHAPTER 6 AUSTRALIANS AT WAR (WORLD WARS I AND II) 266

Australians at war (World War I) – A timeline	268
Australians at war (World War II) – A timeline	270
6.1 What were the causes, scope and nature of World War I?	272
6.2 What were the impacts of World War I on Australia?	292
6.3 What were the causes, scope and nature of World War II?	298
6.4 Detailed study: What were the origins, nature and impact of the Holocaust?	328
6.5 What were the impacts of World War II on Australia?	338
6.6 What was the significance of the wars to Australia?	344
6.7 How are the wars commemorated?	352

THE HISTORIAN'S TOOLKIT: CONCEPTS AND SKILLS 356

HT.1 Historical concepts	356
HT.2 Historical skills	362
Glossary	372
Index	376
Acknowledgements	380

THE MODERN WORLD AND AUSTRALIA

PART 4 RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 4: RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

CHAPTER 7 RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

PART 5 THE GLOBALISING WORLD: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 5: THE GLOBALISING WORLD

CHAPTER 8 POPULAR CULTURE

CHAPTER 9 THE ENVIRONMENT MOVEMENT

CHAPTER 10 MIGRATION EXPERIENCES

PART 6 SCHOOL-DEVELOPED TOPIC: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 6: SCHOOL-DEVELOPED TOPIC

CHAPTER 11 AUSTRALIA IN THE VIETNAM WAR ERA

THE HISTORIAN'S TOOLKIT: CONCEPTS AND SKILLS

USING *OXFORD INSIGHT HISTORY*

Oxford Insight History has been developed and written by a team of experienced NSW teachers and educators to meet the requirements of the NSW syllabus for the Australian Curriculum: History. *Insight History* comprehensively covers all syllabus content in order to help students successfully meet all of the required outcomes. The features, structure and design of the Student Book, *obook* and Teacher *obook* will help you:

- » optimise student understanding
- » personalise teaching and learning
- » deliver better results.

OPTIMISE STUDENT UNDERSTANDING

Each chapter of *Oxford Insight History* is sequenced according to the NSW History syllabus and structured around a number of key inquiry questions. Content dot points clearly map the learning sequence for students.

The learning sequence for each chapter is structured around inquiry questions and content dot points taken directly from the syllabus.

WHAT CONDITIONS AND NEW TECHNOLOGIES INFLUENCED THE INDUSTRIALISATION OF BRITAIN AND AUSTRALIA?

- » outline and explain population movement
- » discuss the role of the new world
- » describe key features of the agricultural revolution
- » locate the growth and extent of the British Empire
- » describe the raw materials Britain obtained
- » outline the main reasons why the Industrial Revolution began
- » explain how industrialisation contributed to the development of Britain
- » identify key inventors and their inventions and discuss how they affected the world

WHAT WERE THE EXPERIENCES OF MEN, WOMEN AND CHILDREN DURING THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION?

- » describe the changing way of life of men and women who moved from rural to urban areas
- » investigate working conditions in factories, mines and other occupations

WHAT WERE THE SHORT- AND LONG-TERM IMPACTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION?

- » discuss positive and negative consequences of the Industrial Revolution
- » assess the short and long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution

1

Source 1.1 The simple cog is a key feature of machinery and a symbol of the interconnectedness of workers and their role in the Industrial Revolution.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The period from 1750 until the outbreak of World War I in 1914 saw a range of fundamental changes in technology across industries such as agriculture, manufacturing, metal production, transportation and communications. These advances made such an impact on the way people lived and worked that the period became known as the Industrial Revolution. The industries at the forefront of the Industrial Revolution were located in Britain. New inventions and machinery powered by coal and oil transformed the speed and scale of manufacturing. Mass-produced goods made from iron, steel, cotton and wool flooded onto the market. People moved into cities from impoverished rural towns to feed the demand for factory workers. Over the period, these rapid changes fed into each other to produce new materials, new products, and new ideas. They also introduced new problems and new challenges. For better or worse, the Industrial Revolution changed the world forever.

Each topic covered in the student book is supported by a range of primary and secondary source materials designed to engage and challenge a range of students. A combination of primary and secondary sources – from artefacts, historical illustrations, photographs, timelines, and maps to songs, videos and digital interactives – provide rich learning opportunities and encourage students to develop deep understandings and transferable skills.

KEY INVENTION AND INNOVATIONS – THE TEXTILES INDUSTRY

The first factories of the Industrial Revolution were cotton mills. Inventions such as the Spinning Jenny (see Source 1.23), the water frame (Source 1.24) and Crompton's mule (Source 1.25) in Britain and the cotton gin in the Americas (see the timeline at the start of the chapter) paved the way for the mass production of cotton and wool. 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 much closer to the supply of workers and potential customers.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

During the five years it took for Samuel Crompton to invent the spinning machine known as Crompton's mule, he supported himself by working as a violinist for a few pennies a show, and spent all his wages on developing his spinning mule (see Source 1.31).

As a result of these developments, over time the skills of traditional weavers (see Sources 1.20 and 1.21) 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 poor 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 (see Section 1.2), children were well cared for and educated.

SOURCE STUDY

Technological innovations in the cotton industry

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



Source 1.20 Before the Industrial Revolution, raw cotton was first spun on a spinning wheel to create cotton yarn, a single thread at a time.



could produce cloth much more quickly, increasing the demand for spun yarn. 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.

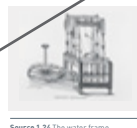
The water frame, invented by Richard Arkwright in 1768, was a spinning machine that improved on James Hargreaves' invention, as it could be powered by a waterwheel and produce yarns of any type. Crompton's mule was invented in 1779 by Samuel Crompton by combining the Spinning Jenny's carriage and the 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 added to the spinning mules for use in cotton-spinning factories.



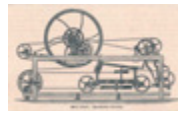
Source 1.22 The flying shuttle



Source 1.23 The Spinning Jenny



Source 1.24 The water frame



Source 1.25 Crompton's mule

INTERPRET 1.3

Study the sources above and read the earlier text about the factory system, then complete the following activities.

- 1 Create a concept map to demonstrate how these new inventions and technologies transformed the cotton industry in Britain during the Industrial Revolution. Show how the development of each machine changed the production of cotton and inspired the invention of later machines.
- 2 Outline how these innovations in the cotton industry changed broader society.

REVIEW 1.5

- 1 Look at the flow chart below. Explain what each development contributed to the processing of cotton and wool.
- 2 Why was the development of steam power significant for the development of the cotton industry?
- 3 Explain how the desire of mill owners to increase profits had a negative impact on workers.



KEY INVENTIONS AND INNOVATIONS – THE FACTORY SYSTEM

The most important 'invention' of the Industrial Revolution was not a single item of equipment or technology. 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**. 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, millers and weavers used their skills, muscle power or water brought together large numbers of workers in a single site or factory. Few of these workers were skilled because most of the performed tasks that were repetitive and required little skill. The steam and then by electricity. The factory system itself was made possible by a combination of the technological innovations and knowledge that emerged during this period.

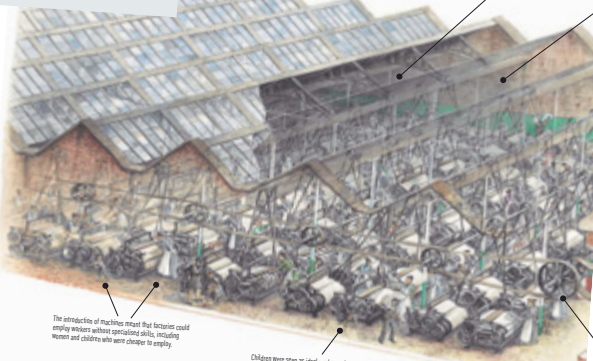
STRANGE BUT TRUE

In 1813 there were 2400 power looms (mechanical looms used to weave cloth) in Great Britain. By 1823 there were 116801.

EXTEND 1.4

- 1 On a blank world map, use shading and detailed labels (including country names and dates) to show the spread of the Industrial Revolution across the world.

Source 1.19 An artist's impression of a cotton-powered cotton mill



The introduction of machines meant that factories could employ workers without specialised skills, including women and children who were cheaper to employ.

Children were often as ideal workers, able to operate between machines to repair spindles and repair broken threads. Accidents and injuries were common.

Machines are expensive, encouraging factory owners to keep them working continuously, leading to long working hours of 12 or more hours a day, six days a week.

Workers had to endure cramped, dirty and wet working conditions, alongside hundreds of machines generating heat and noise.

Constant chimney smoke from chimneys became a major environmental problem.

Short rest periods meant that workers had to keep the engine and machines running.



Before the introduction of electrical power, machines were powered by coal-powered steam engines. One engine could power hundreds of looms.

1. WHAT CONDITIONS AND NEW TECHNOLOGIES INFLUENCED THE INDUSTRIALISATION OF BRITAIN AND AUSTRALIA? 29

Source study activities expose students to a range of primary and secondary sources designed to bring the past to life. All sources are accompanied by activities that challenge students to engage with the past and develop a range of historical skills.

Review, Interpret, Apply and Extend tasks appear throughout each chapter providing a range of activities suited to different abilities and learning styles.

Chapter content is organised into two- or four-page units to support teaching and learning.

Checkpoint activities at the end of each section are clearly identified.

Strange but true boxes present a range of weird and wonderful historical facts designed to entertain and provoke discussion.

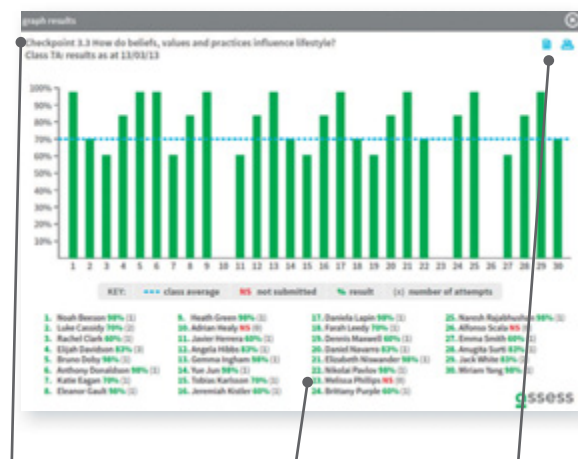
PERSONALISE TEACHING AND LEARNING

The new syllabus demands contemporary online learning for all students in NSW. *Oxford Insight History* delivers new opportunities for teachers and students to personalise teaching and learning through **obook** and **assess**:

» **obook** provides an electronic version of the student book with note-taking, highlighting and bookmarking. It includes videos, interactive learning modules and weblinks, and can be accessed both online and offline.



» assess provides 24/7 online assessment designed to support individual student progression and understanding.



Select from hundreds of auto-marking assessment tasks at various difficulty levels – foundation, standard and advanced

Monitor student participation and track performance by graphing and comparing individual and group results

Communicate with students through email and notes shared via the obook



Create your own tests tailored directly to the needs of your students or assign ready-made tests complete with marking guidelines and suggested solutions

Teachers can set students homework, tests, and tasks mapped directly to NSW syllabus outcomes

DELIVER BETTER RESULTS

Checkpoint questions appear at the end of every chapter section. They are linked directly to a content dot point in the NSW History syllabus and are designed to help you identify areas of weakness in student understanding. They can be used flexibly – completed verbally in class (to support formative assessment) or set as written tests (to support summative assessment).

Oxford Insight History helps you to deliver better results for you and your students by ensuring that student progress on all syllabus outcomes and content can be carefully monitored throughout every depth study. Features contained at the end of every section of every chapter allow you to easily identify gaps in student understanding and target further development in these areas. Student progress can be measured directly against syllabus outcomes – either formally or informally – with regular diagnostic tests and more open-ended tasks that focus on engagement and skill development.

Rich Tasks appear at the end of every chapter section. They are more open-ended, inquiry-based tasks that often involve an element of fun. They are designed to engage students and focus them on developing specific historical skills.

1.1 CHECKPOINT

Explain how industrialisation contributed to the development of Britain and Australia.

The factory system introduced great changes in both Britain and Australia.

Outline the impact the development of the factory system had in both countries.

What evidence suggests that Australia was industrialising in the 19th century?

Identify key investors and their inventions and discuss how they affected transport and manufacturing.

Between 1750 and 1900, there were massive changes in transport, manufacturing and communications. From the list below, select a specific branch from each of these areas and create a table to:

list the main inventions that led to the changes (5 marks)

identify the significant investors of this time (5 marks)

explain how the inventions contributed to developments in that area (5 marks)

Transport: land, sea, air

Manufacturing: cotton mills, iron production, steam engine, electricity

Communications: canals, railroads, shipping, telegraph, telephone

RICH TASKS

Cotton - from plant to product

Cotton became a crucial product of the Industrial Revolution. Produce an illustrated presentation that follows the path of cotton around the year 1800, from its starting point as a raw material in the United States through to its end as a product of the British cotton mills. You should undertake this task in steps:

- Locate a cotton plantation in the USA. Research the conditions there and prepare a presentation that shows how the cotton was planted and harvested. Who owned the plantation? What labour was used? What conditions did that labour exist under? What happened to the cotton once it was harvested?
- Explain how the cotton reached Britain. Use your research skills to follow the journey of a specific ship company.
- Outline the journey from British port to cotton mill.
- Describe the process the cotton goes through in the British mill. What is the finished product? What will happen to that finished product?

Investigating famous investors

A study of the life and achievements of significant individuals offers insights into both the nature of the Industrial Revolution and its legacy.

- Read the brief descriptions of the three men on the next page. Rank them in order from the one you feel has been the most significant in shaping the world you live in to the one you feel has had the least impact. Briefly explain your ranking.
- Conduct research about the achievements of each of these people, recording the specific achievements that you regard as particularly significant.
- Select another key investor or innovator that you think has also made a contribution to the modern world. Research his or her achievements, and once again record the achievements you regard as significant.
- Now rank these four individuals using the same criteria you used in Question 1, and briefly explain your ranking.

Three important investors or innovators

Isambard Kingdom Brunel has been described as one of the greatest figures in British history. He was an engineer, builder and visionary. Brunel built the first-ever tunnel under a navigable river in London, along with all its bridges and tunnels. Running from London to south-west England and Wales, it remains Britain's main rail line. Brunel also designed the world's first iron-hulled, steam-powered and propeller-driven ship, the SS Great Britain.

Thomas Edison is one of the most famous and best known investors in history. Edison was part of, and contributed to, the Industrial Revolution in the United States. Although it is common for teachers and textbooks to focus primarily on the Industrial Revolution as a British phenomenon, it was international. Edison was responsible for a long list of inventions including the electric light and the gramophone that recorded sound. He was also a pioneer of the film industry.

Steve Jobs was a pioneer of computer technology and the driver of the global success of Apple products.

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Comparison
- Analysis
- Interpretation
- Research
- Explanation and communication

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

Source 1.27 Thomas Edison (1847-1931)

Source 1.28 Isambard Kingdom Brunel (1806-1880)

Source 1.29 Steve Jobs (1955-2011)

1.1 WHAT CONDITIONS AND NEW TECHNOLOGIES INFLUENCED THE INDUSTRIALISATION OF BRITAIN AND AUSTRALIA? 41

Each **Checkpoint** is supported by a set of three separate student worksheets available electronically (as part of the Teacher obook). These worksheets are graded to support, consolidate or extend students of different abilities and personalise learning in your class. Like Checkpoint questions, student worksheets are linked directly to content dot points and skills from the syllabus with the goal of providing tailored support to ensure better results.

NSW SYLLABUS FOR THE AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM: HISTORY STAGE 5

– SCOPE AND SEQUENCE

STAGE 5: THE ANCIENT WORLD TO THE MODERN WORLD		
YEAR 9 THE MAKING OF THE MODERN WORLD [50 HOURS MINIMUM TEACHING TIME]		YEAR 10 THE MODERN WORLD AND AUSTRALIA [50 HOURS MINIMUM TEACHING TIME]
FOCUS OF STAGE 5	The Stage 5 curriculum provides a study of the history of the making of the modern world from 1750 to 1945. 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) and World War II (1939–1945). The history of the modern world and Australia from 1945 to the present, with an emphasis on Australia in its global context, follows. The twentieth century became a critical period in Australia's social, cultural, economic and political development. The transformation of the modern world during a time of political turmoil, global conflict and international cooperation provides a necessary context for understanding Australia's development, its place within the Asia-Pacific region, and its global standing.	
	Key inquiry questions for The making of the modern world depth studies are: • What were the changing features of the movement of peoples 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 Wars I and II?	Key inquiry questions for The modern world and Australia depth studies are: • How did the nature of global conflict change during the twentieth century? • What were the consequences of World War II? How did these consequences shape the modern world? • How was Australian society affected by other significant global events and changes in this period?
OVERVIEWS	YEAR 9 In Stage 5, four (4) of the six (6) depth studies are to be studied. Depth Study 3 and Depth Study 4 are Core Studies, to be studied by all students. The remaining four (4) depth studies offer internal electives. ONE elective will be studied in detail from each of the chosen depth studies. Depth study content can be integrated with the overview content and/or with other depth study electives. Students briefly outline: • 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 • the inter-war years between World War I and World War II, including the Treaty of Versailles, the Roaring Twenties and the Great Depression.	YEAR 10 The following three (3) depth studies focus on the history of the modern world and Australia from 1918 to the present, with an emphasis on Australia in its global context. Students briefly outline: • continuing efforts post-World War II to achieve lasting peace and security in the world, including Australia's involvement in UN peacekeeping • the major movements for rights and freedoms in the world and the achievement of independence by former colonies • the nature of the Cold War and Australia's involvement in Cold War and post-Cold War conflicts (Korea, Vietnam, the Gulf Wars and Afghanistan), including the rising influence of Asian nations since the end of the Cold War • developments in technology, public health, longevity and standard of living during the twentieth century, and concern for the environment and sustainability.

DEPTH STUDIES	DEPTH STUDY 1 Making a better world? ONE of the following to be studied: Topic 1a > The Industrial Revolution Topic 1b > Movement of peoples Topic 1c > Progressive ideas and movements	DEPTH STUDY 4 Rights and freedoms. Core study – mandatory for all students
	DEPTH STUDY 2 Australia and Asia. ONE of the following to be studied: Topic 2a > Making a nation Topic 2b > Asia and the world	DEPTH STUDY 5 The globalising world. ONE of the following to be studied: Topic 5a > Popular culture Topic 5b > The environment movement Topic 5c > Migration experiences
	DEPTH STUDY 3 Australians at war (World Wars I and II). Core study – mandatory for all students	DEPTH STUDY 6 School-developed topic from either of the Stage 5 Overviews. Students investigate in depth ONE school-developed topic drawn from the content presented in the Stage 5 overviews, <i>The Making of the Modern World</i> or <i>The Modern World and Australia</i> , for example: • The Roaring Twenties • The Great Depression • The Holocaust • The Cold War • Australia in the Vietnam War era • A decade study • Women's history • The history of workers' rights • The United Nations • UN peacekeeping • The Gulf Wars and the war in Afghanistan • The rising influence of China and India since the end of the Cold War • Developments in twentieth and twenty-first century technology • Other topic drawn from the two overviews.
HISTORICAL CONCEPTS	Continuity and change: some aspects of a society, event or development change over time and others remain the same, e.g. features of life during the Industrial Revolution which changed or remained the same; features of an Asian society which changed or remained the same after contact with European powers.	
	Cause and effect: events, decisions and developments in the past that produce later actions, results or effects, e.g. reasons for the outbreak of World War I and the effects of this conflict; the reasons for and impact of the struggle for rights and freedoms of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.	
	Perspectives: people from the past may have had different views and experiences, e.g. the landing at Gallipoli would be viewed differently by Australian and Turkish soldiers; nuclear testing in the Pacific would be viewed differently from an Australian and a French government point of view.	
	Empathetic understanding: the ability to understand another's point of view, way of life and decisions made in a different period of time or society, e.g. understanding the reasons why migrant groups made the decision to come to Australia and the difficulties they faced; understanding the viewpoints and actions of environmentalists in opposing developments such as the damming of Tasmania's Gordon River.	
	Significance: the importance of an event, development, group or individual and their impact on their times and/or later periods, e.g. the importance of the changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution; the importance of World War II on Australia's relations with other countries.	
	Contestability: how historians may dispute a particular interpretation of an historical source, event or issue, e.g. that the Gallipoli campaign 'gave birth to our nation'; whether Australia was justified in taking part in the Vietnam War.	
HISTORICAL SKILLS	Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts	• read and understand historical texts • use historical terms and concepts in appropriate contexts (ACHHS165, ACHHS183) • sequence historical events to demonstrate the relationship between different periods, people and places (ACHHS164, ACHHS182)
	Analysis and use of sources	• identify different types of sources • identify the origin, content, context and purpose of primary and secondary sources (ACHHS169, ACHHS187) • process and synthesise information from a range of sources as evidence in an historical argument (ACHHS170, ACHHS188) • evaluate the reliability and usefulness of primary and secondary sources for a specific historical inquiry (ACHHS171, ACHHS189)
	Perspectives and interpretations	• identify and analyse the reasons for different perspectives in a particular historical context (ACHHS172, ACHHS173, ACHHS190, ACHHS191) • recognise that historians may interpret events and developments differently (ACHHS173, ACHHS191)
	Empathetic understanding	• interpret history within the context of the actions, values, attitudes and motives of people in the context of the past (ACHHS172, ACHHS173, ACHHS190, ACHHS191)
	Research	• ask and evaluate different kinds of questions about the past to inform an historical inquiry (ACHHS166, ACHHS167, ACHHS184, ACHHS185) • plan historical research to suit the purpose of an investigation • identify, locate, select and organise information from a variety of sources, including ICT and other methods (ACHHS168, ACHHS186)
	Explanation and communication	• develop historical texts, particularly explanations and historical arguments that use evidence from a range of sources (ACHHS174, ACHHS188, ACHHS192) • select and use a range of communication forms, such as oral, graphic, written and digital, to communicate effectively about the past for different audiences and different purposes (ACHHS175, ACHHS193)

PART

1



MAKING A BETTER WORLD?: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 1: MAKING A BETTER WORLD?

STUDENTS CHOOSE FROM ONE OF
THE FOLLOWING OPTIONS:

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

1

CHAPTER

MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES

2

CHAPTER

PROGRESSIVE IDEAS AND MOVEMENTS: CAPITALISM

3

CHAPTER



The steam engine is not only one of the most important inventions of the Industrial Revolution; it is also a symbol of the types of changes that took place around the world between 1750 and 1918.

MAKING A BETTER WORLD?: AN OVERVIEW

History is often divided into the study of the ancient and the modern. It is therefore reasonable to ask when the period we refer to as ‘ancient history’ ends and ‘modern history’ begins. Historians consider that the modern world (also known as the industrial world) developed from the 1750s onwards. Many of the developments that took place from this point in time are the things that we recognise and take for granted in society today, including:



Industrial Revolution

- the growth of cities and mass production of goods in factories and textile mills
- mass migrations of people, as more and more people moved into cities and towns to work in the new industries; it was also a time when people from Europe began to move and colonise other parts of the world, including Britain’s settlement of Australia
- the birth of democratic government, trade unions and workers’ rights
- the first signs of mass, rapid transport and communications
- the introduction of organised public education and schools
- a revolution in medicine, with better surgery and drugs, led to the development of anaesthetic and antiseptic
- growing equality for women.



Movement of peoples

Stage 5 History is all about the modern world and modern history. 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 developments went on to have a direct impact on the world in which you live today. These include:

- the **Industrial Revolution**
- movement of peoples
- progressive ideas and movements.

The Industrial Revolution was a period of profound change from the 1750s to the early 1900s. New methods of farming, manufacturing, communication and transport were introduced. The impact of these changes went far beyond just altering how goods were manufactured – the way people worked and lived, and where they lived changed dramatically. Society itself was transformed.



Progressive ideas and movements

The many changes associated with the Industrial Revolution are also linked to mass movements of peoples in this period – the transatlantic slave trade, growing migration to the Americas and the transportation of convicts to Australia. Economic and social changes can also be linked to a rise in progressive ideas and political movements. These ideas and movements led to the French and American revolutions, and the development of democratic systems of government around the world.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Industrial Revolution first began in Britain, where changes in agricultural production paved the way for the country to expand its population and its production methods. These changes – now referred to as the **Agricultural Revolution** – were gradual. They began in the middle of the 17th century and continued through the 19th century. Part of the Agricultural Revolution included fencing off many small areas of land, previously shared by the community, to create larger private farms. This process, known as the **enclosures**, benefited wealthy people who were granted these lands for their private use and profit. The enclosures led to more efficient farming, but at the expense of people who had relied on the land for their daily needs. This new system, along with innovations in crop farming and animal breeding, meant that more crops could be grown and animals could be raised by far fewer people.

While these innovations certainly led to improved livestock and crop yields, they also had consequences for a previously agricultural society. 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, providing the labour force needed in the new factories and mills.

Key inventions and innovations

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 that could power hundreds of spinning and weaving machines led to what is arguably the most important ‘invention’ of the Industrial Revolution – the **factory system**. As steam engines developed, they also powered new modes of transport, including steam-powered trains and ships, and were later used to generate electricity.

APPLY 0.1

1 Working in small groups, choose one of the four industries pictured below that underwent great change during the Industrial Revolution. Conduct research to find out if and how the following inventions or innovations were involved in the development of the industry you have chosen:

- the factory system
- the internal combustion engine
- steam power
- electricity.



Textiles industry: The Spinning Jenny, invented in 1764



Manufacturing industry: The steam hammer, invented in 1840



Transport industry: The steam train, invented in 1801



Communications industry: The telephone, first patented in 1876

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:

- no child under 10 could be employed in factories
- education for children under 10 was compulsory
- the working day was limited to 10 hours
- in coal mines, women, girls and boys under 12 could no longer be employed underground.

Many workers lived in slum areas close to the factories where they were employed. 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 short life expectancy (just 29 years, in Liverpool in 1865) and a high infant mortality rate.

Later in the period, conditions improved as slums were torn down to be replaced by new urban settlements that provided heating, running water and sewerage systems. Other benefits of the Industrial Revolution also came to have positive impacts on the lives of urban workers:

- agricultural innovations made food more plentiful and cheaper
- mass-produced goods such as clothing and furniture became more affordable
- improved public transport allowed workers to live away from factories in the new developing suburbs
- street lighting transformed city life at night, encouraging people to enjoy entertainment at theatres and music halls.

Source 0.1 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.



APPLY 0.2

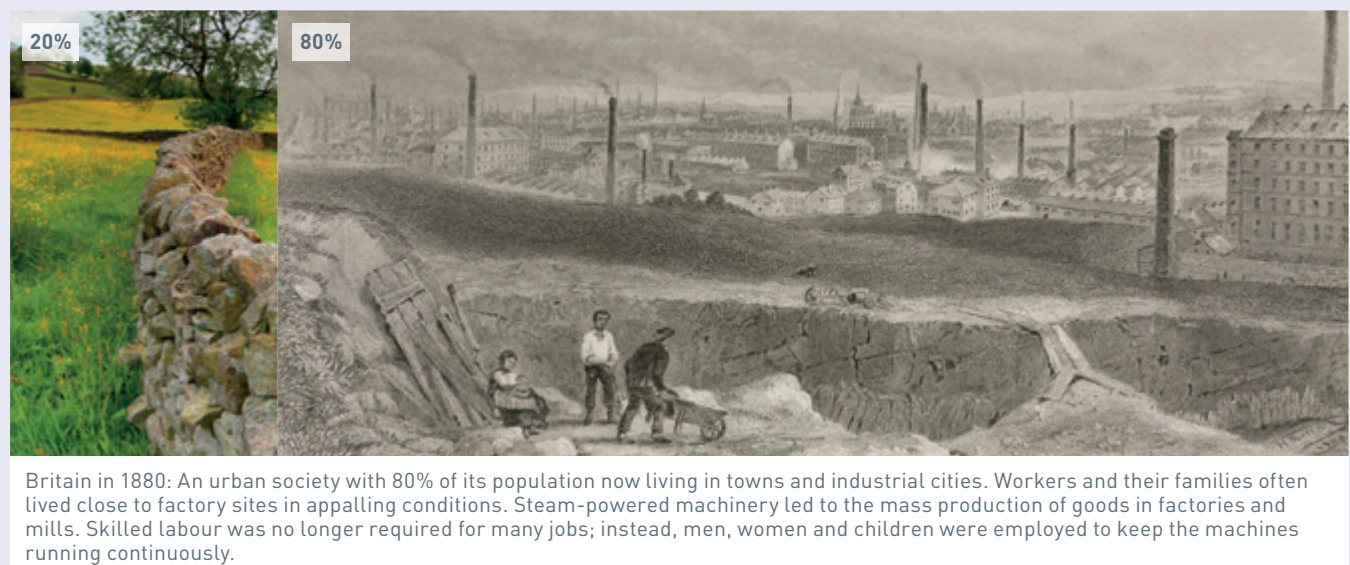
- 1 Conduct some brief research on the Internet to find out what the words 'dark satanic mills' refers to.
 - a What is the name of the person who first used this expression, and what was he referring to?
 - b Conduct some additional research about the experiences of men, women and children who worked in industries in 19th-century Britain. Do you think 'dark satanic mills' is a fair description of the conditions they faced?
- 2 In a class discussion, share your knowledge of:
 - a working conditions during the Industrial Revolution, particularly for children
 - b living conditions for workers in cities.
- 3 How do these experiences compare with living and working conditions today?

Impact of the Industrial Revolution in Britain

The Industrial Revolution had significant impacts for Britain and its people. It transformed Britain's economy, and Britain 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. In the growing towns and cities, a 'middle class' emerged: people who were neither landowners nor workers, such as bankers, shopkeepers and teachers. Suburbs surrounding the cities later developed.

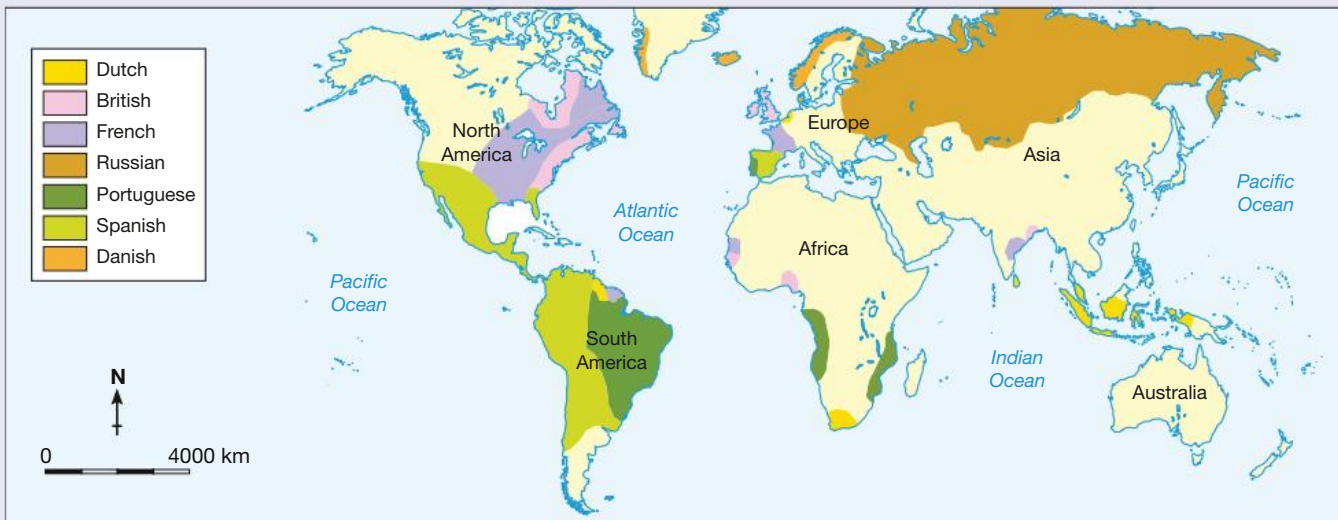
Source 0.2 Changes in Britain's society between 1750 and 1880



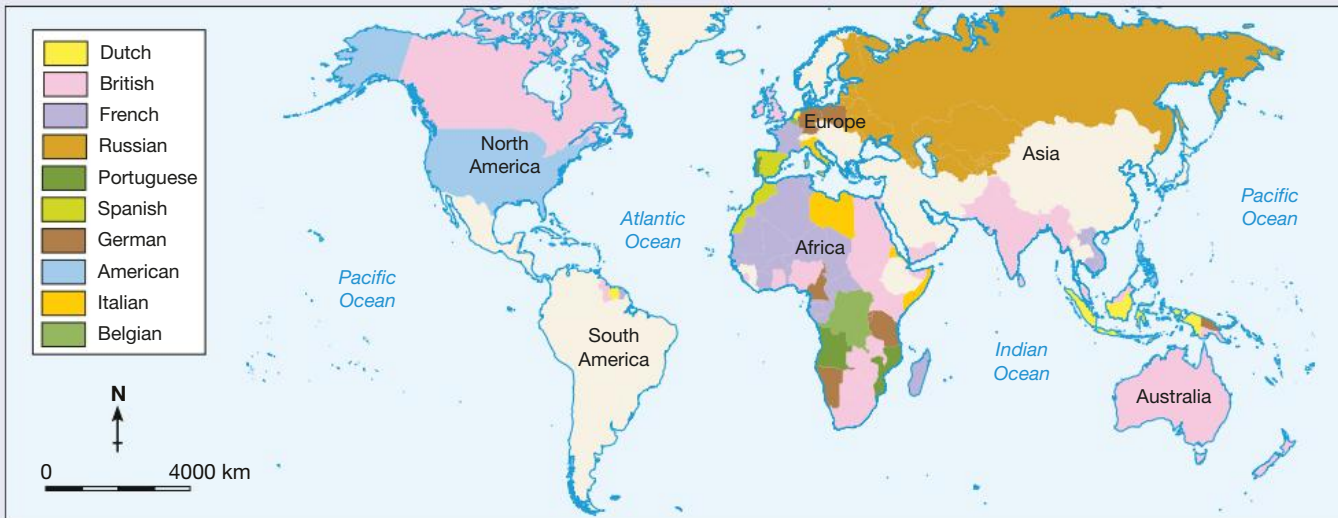
Divisions between social classes became more obvious. Many writers of the time were appalled by the plight of the working poor whose lives were cut short by poverty, disease and injury. The lifestyles of the working poor were in no way similar to those of the rich industrialists who employed them. Social thinkers such as Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels found a following among workers, and ideas such as **socialism** and **communism** started to develop. This period also saw the formation of workers' groups, such as trade unions, along with a demand for political reform from groups such as the **Chartists**.

THE EXPANSION OF EUROPEAN EMPIRES

The Industrial Revolution was closely linked to the expansion of European empires. Without the raw materials and income from overseas colonies, the Industrial Revolution in Britain may never have taken place. From the late 16th century onwards, the major European powers – Britain, France, Spain and Portugal – all pushed to increase their control of new territories across the globe. Initially, colonies were sought out for the potential wealth and power they could provide, but as the Industrial Revolution took hold, Britain's growing industries also required more raw materials, such as timber, cotton and ores. These resources could be taken from their expanding colonies in the Americas, Africa, Asia and the Pacific region. They also provided new markets for the goods being produced in Britain in ever-increasing quantities.



Source 0.3 European empires, 1750



Source 0.4 European empires, 1900

APPLY 0.3

Examine Sources 0.3 and 0.4, which show the parts of the world controlled by the European powers in 1750 and 1900.

- 1 List the European powers that controlled the most overseas territories in 1750.
- 2 Write a 200-word report explaining the most obvious changes relating to the expansion of European empires that took place between 1750 and 1900.

During the 19th century, a number of key European countries and the United States became centres of world power. According to economic historian Paul Kennedy, the European powers' control of the global land mass increased from 35 per cent in 1800 to 67 per cent in the 1870s. By 1900, they controlled over 80 per cent of the global land mass.

The development of the steam engine, the mass production of iron and steel and machine-made tools gave these countries major economic and military advantages over the inhabitants of territories who opposed them. The Battle of Omdurman in Sudan, Africa, provides an example of Western power (see Source O.5). In just a few hours on 2 September 1898, 8000 British troops crushed an opposition force of 50 000 tribesmen, killing 10 000 and wounding even more. The British were armed with rifles, artillery and machine guns, while the locals fought with muskets (a firearm used by infantry), spears and swords. The British lost fewer than 50 men.



Source 0.5 *The Battle of Omdurman*, painted in 1898 – one of the many prints commissioned by GW Bacon & Co. of Britain for sale to citizens in Britain, Australia and Canada, to give them a sense of Britain's role in the Boer War

APPLY 0.4

- 1 Examine Source 0.5 carefully and answer the following questions.
 - a What evidence does this source provide about the reaction and response in Africa to European imperial expansion?
 - b What evidence does the source provide about the success of the British in colonising so much of the globe in the 19th century?
 - c What was the purpose of paintings like this? Do you think they would be a reliable and historically accurate representation of the Boer War? Find out by conducting an Internet search about GW Bacon & Co.

THE MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES

Between 1750 and 1920, the world's population increased dramatically from 790 million to 1.86 billion. Along with this rise, the distribution of people in different parts of the world also started to change as people moved to new lands. There were three main reasons why people moved from one region to another at this time:

- forced transportation of slaves – the practice of forcibly capturing and enslaving people in Africa and transporting them to the Americas as a source of free labour
- forced transportation of convicts – the transportation of convicted prisoners to distant colonies by Britain and other European countries
- the free movement of 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.

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 in the same period as Britain's colonies in Australia and New Zealand continued to prosper.

Forced transportation of slaves

Slavery has been a part of human society since ancient times. In many societies and on many continents, including Africa, captured enemies were kept as slaves. As Source O.5 shows, the European powers had fought to take control of African territories and exploit their resources – with human beings counted among the other valuable resources to be bought and sold.

By the end of the 17th century, a

triangular trade was firmly established:

- ships loaded with cotton, timber, tobacco and furs crossed the Atlantic to Britain and Europe
- from Britain and Europe the ships, now loaded with manufactured goods, headed to Africa
- the final leg of the triangular trade route was the return to America with their holds full of slaves (see Source 2.21 in Chapter 2).

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.6 An illustration c. 1835 shows captured Africans being shackled before being put in a ship's hold for transportation to the Americas.

Forced transportation of convicts

As we have seen, two consequences of industrialisation and the Agricultural Revolution in Britain were a rapid increase in population and the movement of people from farms to cities. As people crowded into towns and cities, overcrowded and unhealthy living conditions became commonplace. Those who endured such conditions often sought refuge in alcohol and other drugs. Crime was everywhere in the slums of larger cities such as London, as people who were unemployed or on low wages struggled to survive.

APPLY O.5

- 1 Conduct some brief research on the Internet to find out about the treatment of slaves who were transported from Africa to the Americas. Use the information and sources you find to create a visual or written diary from the viewpoint of an African slave.

Faced with overcrowded gaols, British authorities starting housing convicted prisoners in rotting hulks that were kept moored in harbours and ports. (Hulks were ships no longer considered seaworthy.) As the hulks became overcrowded and unsafe, another solution was found – the transportation of convicts first to North America and then to Britain’s colonies in Australia.

The first fleet of convict ships to Australia sailed from Portsmouth in England with 751 convicts and around 250 marines and their families. The ships landed in what became known as Sydney Cove on 26 January 1788. The European settlement of Australia had begun. The British government was to establish many other penal settlements, including Van Diemen’s Land (Tasmania), Moreton Bay in Queensland and the Swan River Colony in Western Australia. Between 1788 and the last shipment of convicts in 1868, a total of 162 000 male and female convicts had been transported to Australia.

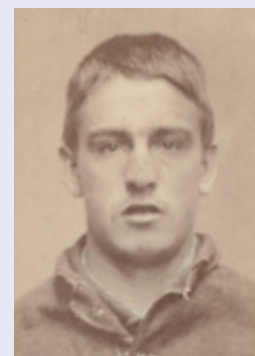
Free movement of settlers



Source 0.7 Miners in the Hill End area, New South Wales c. 1870

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 pull factor of the prospect of cheap or free grants of lands drew millions of immigrants away from overcrowded cities in Europe to the New World – North America, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. There were also push factors (reasons why people want or need to leave their homes) that played a role, such as a desire to escape poverty, famine or political upheaval.

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 from China.



Source 0.8 The faces of three of the 162 000 people sent to Australia as convicts

APPLY 0.6

- 1 What were some of the factors (both voluntary and involuntary) that caused people from Europe and Africa to move to the Americas and Australia?
- 2 Read the section ‘The experiences of convicts’ in Chapter 2.
 - a Based on the information and sources, write a paragraph that compares the experiences of convicts who travelled to Australia in the First Fleet and Second Fleet.
 - b What steps were introduced by British authorities as a result of experiences on the Second Fleet?
- 3 Read the section ‘Convict life in a new land’ in Chapter 2.
 - a Use a graphic organiser to summarise the varying experiences of convicts after their arrival in Australia.
 - b Explain the terms: emancipated convicts, expirees, Ticket of Leave.
- 4 Read the section ‘Settlers, squatters and selectors’ in Chapter 2
 - a In your own words, define the terms ‘squatter’ and ‘selector’.
 - b How did squatters help develop Australian agriculture?

The making of a modern Australia

As we have seen, Australia's settlement by Europeans was linked to changes in British society caused by the Industrial Revolution. Convict settlements in New South Wales and its other Australian colonies were seen by Britain as a solution for its overcrowded jails. This itself was a consequence of the mass movement of people from farming villages to the new factory towns, where overcrowded and harsh living conditions contributed to rising crime.

Australia's settlement was also linked to Britain's expansion of its colonies, at a time when European powers were competing for increasing control of the globe. Exports of wool, timber and sugar from its Australian colonies increased the wealth of the British Empire, and contributed to Australia's developing economy.

Australia became a place where ex-convicts and free migrants found opportunities for new lives and prosperity, particularly in the boom decades after the discovery of gold in the 1850s. Convicts and settlers provided the labour that helped build a new nation. They also brought progressive political ideas, which played a crucial role in the establishment of Australia's democratic system of government and its national identity.



Source 0.9 A view of Sydney Cove in 1794



Source 0.10 A view of the settlement of Sydney, c. 1870

APPLY 0.7

- 1 Refer to the content in this overview and Sources 0.9 and 0.10 before completing the following tasks.
 - a Describe the continuities and changes that can be seen in these two depictions of Sydney, 76 years apart.
 - b Identify the developments and events during this period that would have contributed to these changes – particularly the growth of Australia's non-Indigenous population from an estimated 3500 in 1794 to 1.6 million in 1870.
- 2 Read 'The impact of convicts and settlers on Indigenous peoples' in Chapter 2. Describe the impact of European colonisation on Indigenous peoples:
 - a in the early years of colonisation
 - b by 1900.

PROGRESSIVE IDEAS AND MOVEMENTS

From the mid-17th century, a number of events and new ideas emerged that challenged more established ways of thinking. Since medieval times, the religious principles and teachings of the Catholic Church had formed the foundation of societies across Europe. But from around 1650, new ideas and theories challenged established ways of thinking and the teachings of the Church. This period is known as the **Enlightenment** – a time when thinkers questioned existing ideas about science, religion, education and the way society should be governed. This led to the development of a number of progressive ideas and movements, such as:

- **capitalism**
- **egalitarianism**
- **imperialism**
- **Chartism**
- **socialism**
- **nationalism**
- **Darwinism**

Two great events that also helped shape the modern world were the American War of Independence (1775) and the French Revolution (1789), both of which challenged the traditions and authorities of their time, forever changing the nature of society.

APPLY 0.8

- 1 Read the section 'The Enlightenment' in Chapter 3. Identify the ideas from the Enlightenment that influenced:
 - a the American Declaration of Independence
 - b the French Revolution.
- 2 Read the section 'A time of revolution' in Chapter 3. Create a graphic organiser to summarise the background, key events and result of:
 - a the American War of Independence
 - b the French Revolution.

Capitalism

Capitalism is an economic system that relies on private ownership of industry and the means of production (such as machinery to make goods). As the Industrial Revolution changed the way goods were manufactured, private **industrialists** and **entrepreneurs**, rather than governments, took on the financial risks of new enterprises and made the profits.

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

Socialism

An alternative viewpoint to capitalism was **socialism**. This economic system allowed governments (the state) to play a crucial role in the allocation of resources and distribution of wealth. In socialism, the means of production are owned collectively, and the state manages and distributes them.

Although socialism had its origins in the 18th century, Friedrich Engels and Karl Marx developed the ideas of socialism as we know it now to counteract the capitalist tendency to overproduction and the exploitation of workers. Their socialist theories became increasingly popular as the realities of an unrestricted capitalist economy saw growing poverty among those who only had their labour to sell.

Egalitarianism

Egalitarianism is the idea of equality among people. The word comes from the French *égal*, meaning equal. Egalitarians strive for all people to be considered of equal worth regardless of social status. They also believe that all people should be offered the same opportunities in society. As a political philosophy, egalitarianism helped to justify working-class demands for political representation. Critics of egalitarianism argue that some people are not capable of performing important roles in society. In reality, resistance to egalitarianism was fuelled by a desire to keep the working class uneducated and uninvolved in politics and social life.

Nationalism

Until the 18th century, people in Europe usually identified themselves with their local village or ruler. The concept of a nation, as it is understood today, started emerging after the American and French revolutions, which led to strong and independent nations – and the concept of **nationalism**. During the 19th century, European peoples started to identify themselves as united and loyal to a particular country or state, rather than to a religion, monarch or empire. Feelings of nationalism led to calls for the creation of independent nations. For example:

- From the 1880s, Irish nationalists demanded self-government or independence from Great Britain.
- 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.
- By 1914, the drive for nationalism in the Balkans would be a key contributor to the outbreak of World War I.



Source 0.11 This engraving shows a scene from the February Revolution in France, in 1848.

Imperialism

In basic terms, **imperialism** is the control of countries or territories by foreign powers. As we have seen, from the 18th to the early 20th century European states imposed their economic, political and cultural domination over their colonies. Great Britain, Spain, France, Portugal, the Netherlands, Austria–Hungary and the Ottomans all claimed significant empires. New nations such as Italy and Germany were aggressive in acquiring empires because they felt they had been left behind in the 19th-century race for colonies.

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

Darwinism

Darwinism is the theory of evolution, which was brought to prominence with the publication of Charles Darwin's 1859 book *On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection*. Darwin's scientific theories challenged literal interpretations of the Bible. His research showed that species evolved over time, rather than being 'created' in a moment by a divine creator (a god or other supernatural entity). He argued that the fittest species survived and that those species unable to adapt perished.

When applied to societies, in a way Darwin never imagined, the 'survival of the fittest' theory was used to justify European conquest of Indigenous peoples throughout the world and the submission of lower classes of people (this was known as **social Darwinism**). Many people regarded social Darwinism as a rationale for not interfering with what was regarded as the natural 'inferiority' of some social or racial groups.

Chartism

As industrialisation came to dominate British life, workers started to organise into groups to protect themselves. This was necessary because factory and mine owners made greater profits if they paid their workers less and did not consider their basic health and safety in the workplace. Trade unions were formed in response to these conditions in order to protect the rights of workers.

In 1838, a group with connections to trade unions demanded political representation for the working class. At this time, the right to vote was given only to men over 21 who owned property of a certain value. Membership of parliament was limited to wealthy property owners.

The followers of this group were called Chartists because they proposed a Peoples' Charter. The movement itself became known as **Chartism**. Its goal was to give all men the vote and stop the wealthy from dominating political decision-making.

The Chartists and other early trade unionists were met with political repression, and several were transported to Australia as convicts, where they continued to demand equal political representation (see Source O.12).



Source O.12 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.

Source 1.1 The simple cog is a key feature of machinery and a symbol of the interconnectedness of workers and their role in the Industrial Revolution.



THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The period from 1750 until the outbreak of World War I in 1914 saw a range of fundamental changes in technology across industries such as agriculture, manufacturing, metal production, transportation and communications. These advances made such an impact on the way people lived and worked that the period became known as the Industrial Revolution. The industries at the forefront of the Industrial Revolution were located in Britain. New inventions and machinery powered by coal and oil transformed the speed and scale of manufacturing. Mass-produced goods made from iron, steel, cotton and wool flooded onto the market. People moved into cities from impoverished rural towns to meet the demand for factory workers. Over the period, these rapid changes fed into each other to produce new materials, new products and new ideas. They also introduced new problems and new challenges. For better or worse, the Industrial Revolution changed the world forever.

1.1

SECTION

- » outline and explain population movements in Britain
- » discuss the role of the new wealthy middle class
- » describe key features of the Agricultural Revolution in Britain
- » locate the growth and extent of the British Empire from 1750 to 1900
- » describe the raw materials Britain obtained from its empire
- » outline the main reasons why the Industrial Revolution began in Britain
- » explain how industrialisation contributed to the development of Britain and Australia
- » identify key inventors and their inventions and discuss how they affected transport and manufacturing.

[illegible]

1.2

SECTION

- » describe the changing way of life of men and women who moved from the country to towns and cities
- » investigate working conditions in factories, mines and other occupations, with particular emphasis on child labour.

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1.3

SECTION

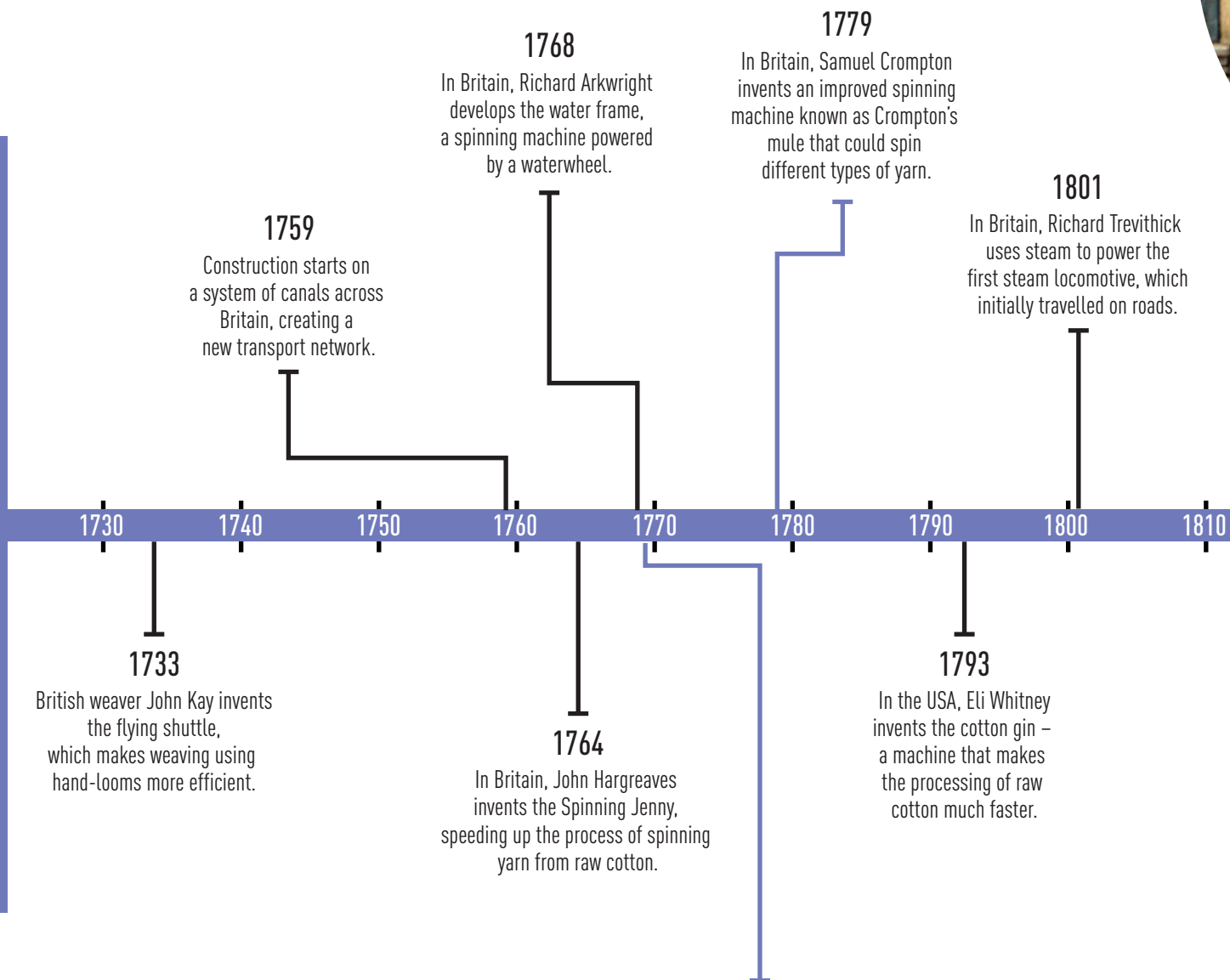
- » discuss positive and negative consequences of the Industrial Revolution
- » assess the short- and long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution.

[illegible]

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION – A TIMELINE

Source 1.3 A 19th-century artist's impression of Samuel Crompton and his spinning mule

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Source 1.2 James Watt

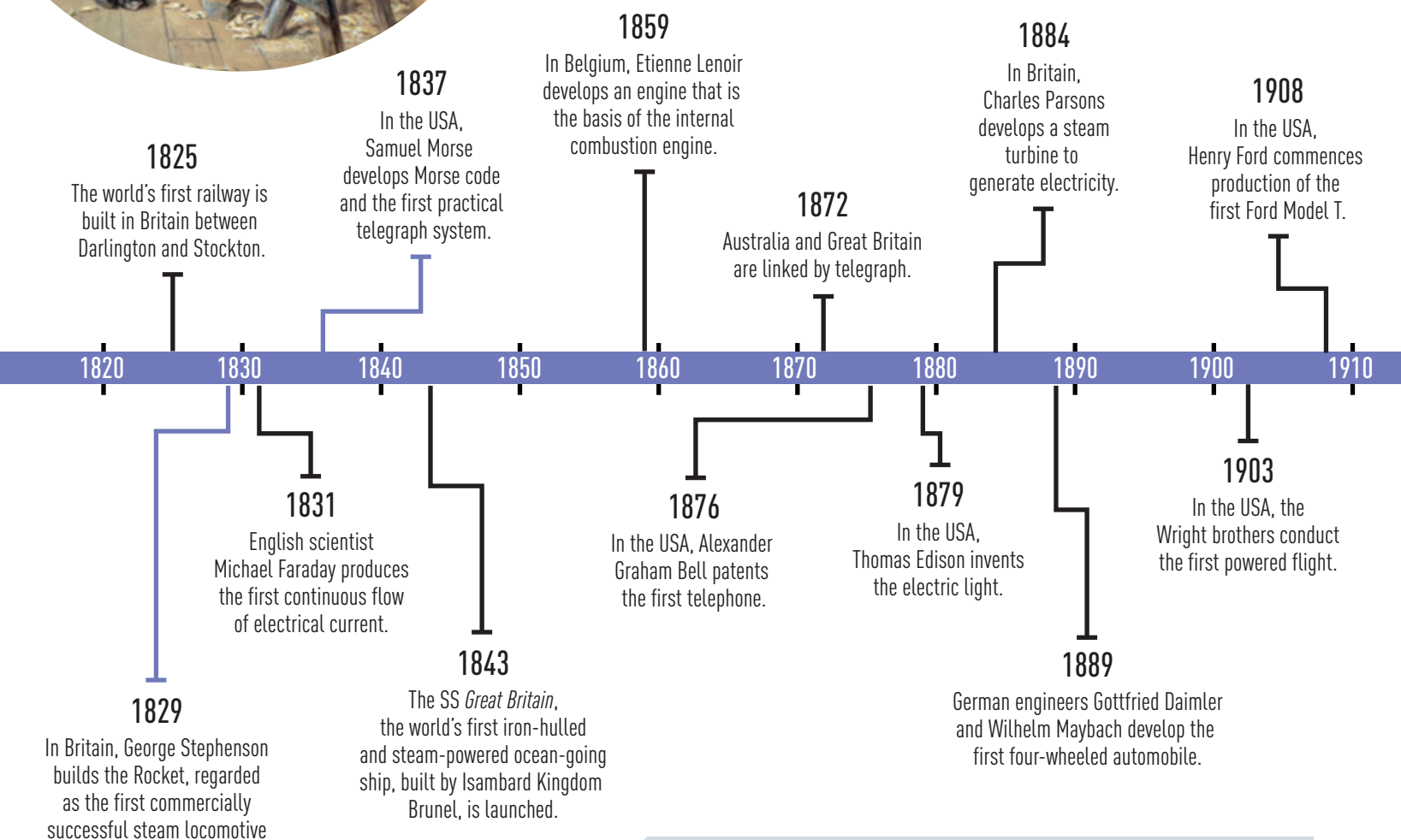
1769
In Britain, James Watt develops a practical steam engine

Source 1.4 Stephenson's Rocket locomotive, now housed at the Science Museum in London





Source 1.5 An artist's impression of Samuel Morse sending the first public commercial telegram from Baltimore to Washington in the USA in 1844



REVIEW 1.1

- When was the first practical steam engine developed?
- Put each of the following events in their correct chronological order from the oldest to the most recent:
 - the first powered flight
 - the opening of the world's first railway line
 - the invention of the first four-wheeled automobile
 - the invention of the first steam locomotive
 - Samuel Morse sends the first commercial message by telegraph.
- Using the timeline as your only source of information, decide which country produced the most inventions over the course of the Industrial Revolution.

1.1

SECTION

WHAT CONDITIONS AND NEW TECHNOLOGIES INFLUENCED THE INDUSTRIALISATION OF BRITAIN AND AUSTRALIA?

Beginning in Britain in the 1750s, a series of technological, economic and social changes took place in farming, manufacturing, transport and communications that were unlike anything that had happened before. In this section we look at these new technologies and the conditions in Britain that influenced the beginnings and spread of the Industrial Revolution.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN BRITAIN



In the early 1700s, Britain was an agricultural society in which most people lived and worked on small farms in rural areas. Most farms produced just enough food from crops and livestock (sheep and cattle) to feed the local villagers. Despite this, agriculture was still the main economic activity in Britain. By comparison, manufacturing, mining and trade employed relatively few people. Manufacturing was, for the most part, small and localised. Tools used in the manufacture of most goods (such as carts, mills and looms) were basic and were powered by people, animals or waterwheels that harnessed the power of fast-flowing rivers and streams. In most cases, the working day began at sunrise and ended at sunset. Roads were poor and most people travelled on foot or by horse. As a result, most people seldom travelled far from the places where they were born and worked.

Towns and villages were small and self-contained. Illness was common because of poor hygiene and bad (or non-existent) sewerage systems. Diet was poor and average life expectancy was low. British society was divided into strict social classes based on wealth and social position. The noble or aristocratic families made up only 1 per cent of the population but controlled about 15 per cent of the nation's wealth.

Source 1.6 A 19th-century artist's impression of rural life in Britain

The Industrial Revolution begins

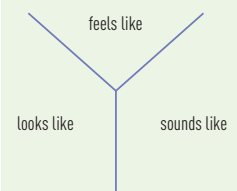
During the Industrial Revolution, Britain's population quadrupled from an estimated 6.5 million people in 1750 to more than 27.5 million in 1850 as a result of improved living standards and declining death rates. British society moved from rural to urban communities, and Britain was transformed through the development of:

- *factories and textile mills* – The introduction of the **factory system** led to thousands of new factories and mills being built across Britain. The factory system relied on large numbers of workers and machinery to manufacture vast 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 1880, 80 per cent of people in Britain were living in a major city or town.
- *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, factories, mines and towns became linked by new canals, roads and railway lines, and later by telegraph and telephone systems. As travelling conditions improved, people travelled more and lived less isolated lives.

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.

EXTEND 1.1

- 1 Examine Sources 1.6 and 1.7. Copy the Y-chart below into your notebook and use it to comment about what it would have felt like, sounded like and looked like to be a rural worker in Britain or a foundry worker in an industrial town.



Source 1.7 A 19th-century engraving of copper foundries in the city of Swansea, Wales. Swansea grew to be a world leader in copper smelting during the Industrial Revolution.



Source 1.8 Stone walls like these were built to enclose what was once common farming and grazing land.

The Agricultural Revolution in Britain

From the mid-1600s, agricultural changes in 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 a 100-year period Britain increased its farmlands by 30 per cent.

Agriculture became a business, with the aim of producing surplus food for profit rather than just feeding the local population. Landowners began investing more money in better livestock, fences and farming equipment. They moved to growing high-yield crops such as wheat and barley. Improved farming techniques and equipment also led to increases in crop production; for example, Britain's wheat crop rose 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 owners. These smaller areas of land were then joined to create large farms that were enclosed by hedges or stone walls so that local farmers could no longer graze their animals or farm the land. Other land, which until then had been known as 'waste', was also enclosed. By 1790, three-quarters of the land was owned by wealthy landlords who 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 together for generations. Many flooded into the cities and gradually became part of the new industrial working classes, while others sought new lives abroad. Between 1775 and 1850, over 25 000 Scottish farmers moved off the land for new lives in the USA or Canada.

SOURCE STUDY

Consequences of enclosures

Source 1.9

Their wretchedness was so great that, after pawning everything they possessed to the fishermen on the coast, such as had no cattle were reduced to come down from the hills in hundreds for the purpose of gathering cockles [shellfish] on the shore. Those who lived in the more remote situations [locations] ... 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.

Extract from James Loch, *The Sutherland Improvements*, 1820

INTERPRET 1.1

- 1 Was Source 1.9 written at the beginning, middle or end of the period of enclosures? Does this mean the situation was likely to improve or get worse for farmers after this source was written?
- 2 What does this source reveal about the impact that the enclosure of farmland had on small farmers?
- 3 Why do you think starving farmers who still owned cattle would bleed them rather than kill them for food?

Crop rotation

Despite the hardship it caused for many poor farmers, the new commercial approach to farming brought about by the Enclosure Acts 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, during the Agricultural Revolution 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 over), which meant that no field was left fallow but each field benefited from the new crop each season. Wheat and barley were harvested for humans, while the fallow period was now replaced by clover, which could be used as grazing food for animals, and also restored nitrogen to the soil.

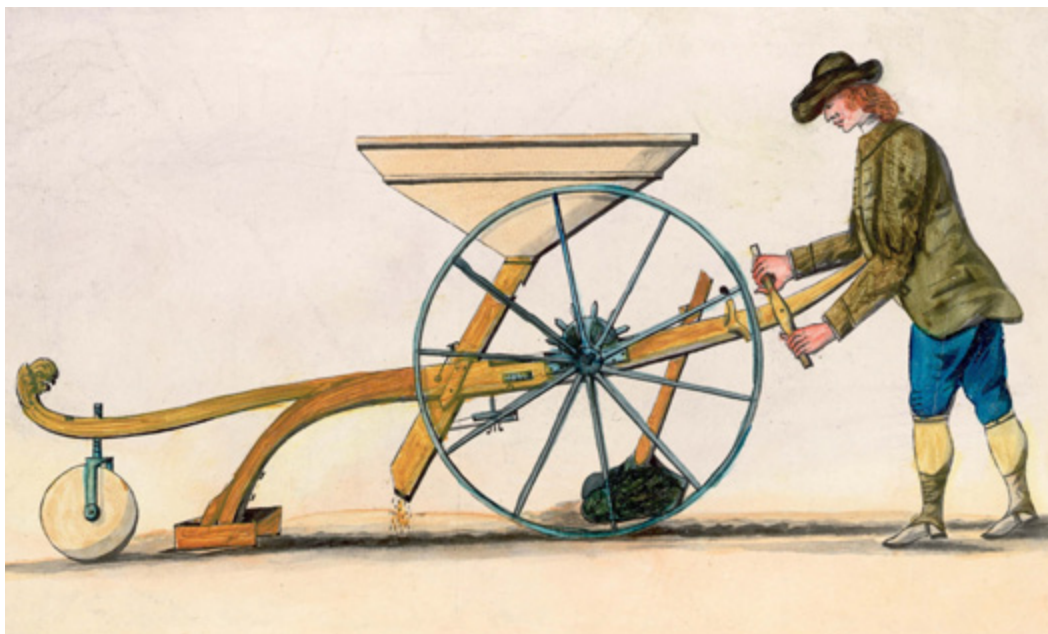
Improved farm machinery and methods

By the early to mid-1800s, new farming machinery was in use, including mechanical drills for seed sowing and reaping machines for harvesting wheat and barley machines (see Source 1.11). These made farming more efficient, increasing the return 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 also being widely used, once again raising the productivity of the land.

Along with improvements in crop production came improvements in animal breeding. 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 (see Source 1.12). He used native breeds, selecting fine-boned sheep with good wool. Bakewell also bred cattle for beef production. His ideas produced stronger animals that were noted for their larger size and better quality.



Source 1.10 Charles Townshend's four-field system of crop rotation revolutionised crop production on British farms and earned him the nickname Turnip Townshend.



Source 1.11 New farming equipment, such as the seed drill invented by Jethro Tull, made sowing crops easier. Fewer seeds were wasted and the process required fewer labourers.



Source 1.12 An artist's impression of a New Leicester ram, 1842

The British Empire

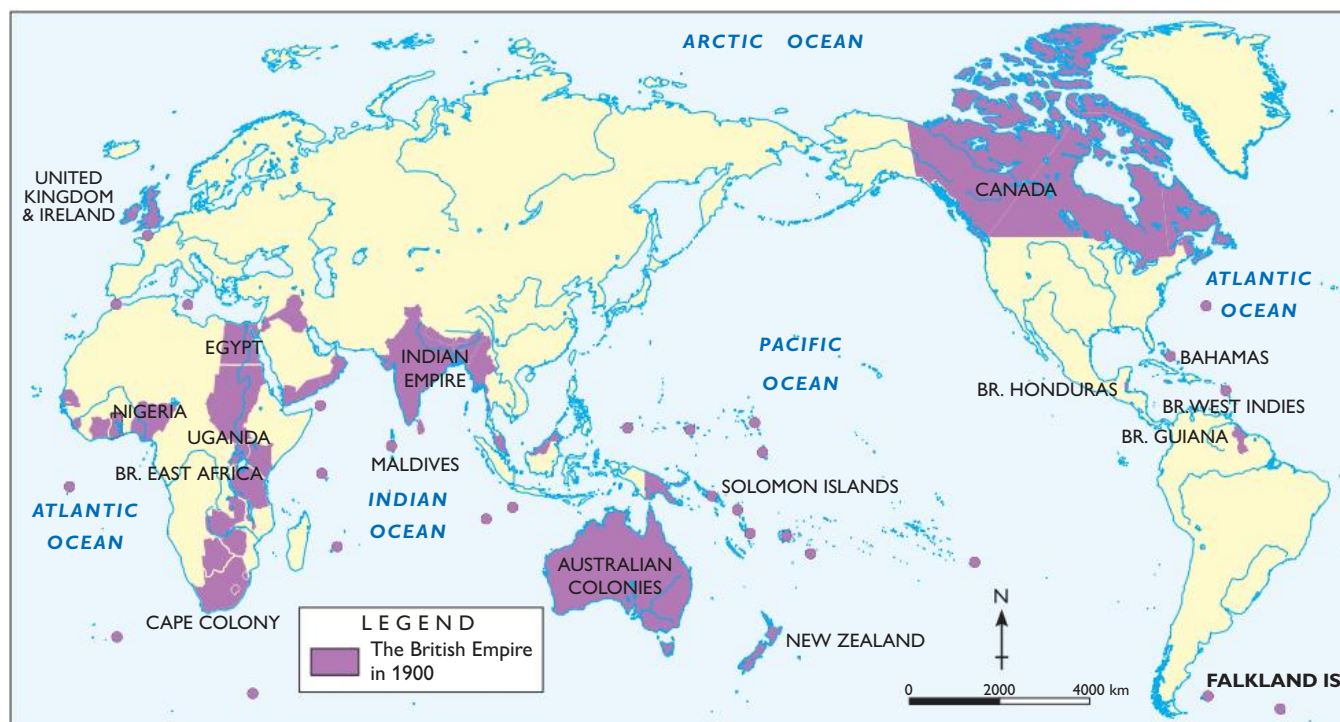
APPLY 1.1

- 1 Refer to Source 1.13 and Source 0.4 in Overview 1 to note your observations about the growth of the British Empire from 1750 to 1900.

One of the key factors that led to the start of the Industrial Revolution in Britain was its power 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 naval strength ensured that it became the dominant imperial power, despite the loss of many of its American colonies after the American War of Independence. By 1900, the British Empire covered around one-quarter of the Earth's surface and ruled over a quarter of the world's population (see Source 1.13). Two of the key inventions of the Industrial Revolution, the steamship and the telegraph, were important in helping Britain administer these colonies all around the world.

Many of Britain's colonies provided the raw materials, labour and markets needed to drive the Industrial Revolution. It also meant that financial services in England – such as banking, investment and insurance – expanded to support and protect that trade.



Source 1.13 The British Empire in 1900

SOURCE STUDY

Britain's access to raw materials

Source 1.14

The plains of North America and Russia are our corn-fields... Canada and the Baltic are our timber-forests; [Australia and New Zealand] contains our sheep-farms, and in South America are our herds of oxen; Peru sends her silver, and the gold of California and Australia flows to London; the Chinese and India grow tea for us, and our coffee, sugar, and spice plantations are in all the Indies. Spain and France are our vineyards, and the Mediterranean our fruit-garden; and our

cotton-grounds, which formerly occupied the Southern United States, are now everywhere in the warm regions of the earth.

British economist William Stanley Jevons, writing in 1865

INTERPRET 1.2

- 1 Read Source 1.14 and identify the raw materials that Britain obtained from its various colonies.
- 2 Analyse the tone of Jevons' writing. What does it tell you about British attitudes at the time?

Why the Industrial Revolution began in Britain

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. No other European power had such large quantities of accessible coal.
- *Access to raw materials from the British Empire* – 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.
- *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* – Britain's banking sector was more advanced and modern than those of other European countries. There was a ready supply of capital 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.

EXTEND 1.2

- 1 Rank the reasons – from most to least important – why the Industrial Revolution began in Britain. Be sure you can provide reasons for each of your choices.

REVIEW 1.2

- 1 List the main changes that took place across Britain between 1750 and 1850.
- 2 Explain how the Agricultural Revolution changed life for British farmers.
- 3 Identify how the enclosures in Britain changed living conditions for poor farmers.
- 4 Identify the main developments in farm machinery and methods of farming that contributed to the Agricultural Revolution.
- 5 By 1900, how much of the Earth's surface and population did the British Empire cover?
- 6 Why were large coal deposits in Britain so significant during the Industrial Revolution?
- 7 What was the name of the largest British merchant trading company?
- 8 Why was Britain's banking system an important contributor to the Industrial Revolution?

SPREAD OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Samuel Slater, an Englishman with knowledge of English cotton mills and spinning machines, is known as the 'father of the American factory system'. Despite a British government ban on the emigration of skilled engineers, Slater sailed to the United States and set up the first cotton mill in that country. In England, he was known as 'Slater the Traitor'.

Although many people in Britain attempted to stop the spread of technical and industrial knowledge beyond the nation's borders, they were not successful. Ideas, machines and designs were soon copied abroad, and manufacturing spread across Europe and into other parts of the world.

Europe

One of the first countries in Europe to be affected by industrial developments outside Great Britain was Belgium. Belgium was similar to Great Britain in many ways, with a strong textile trade and a ready supply of investors. Belgium also benefited from the availability of coal as a source of energy. France's development was slower. It largely remained an agricultural economy until much later in the 1800s, but in coastal areas such as Normandy (in the north), the textile industries modernised in reaction to competition from Britain and Belgium. Germany had large areas of coal and iron, and these were quickly exploited using the new technologies. Between 1870 and the start of World War I in 1914, Germany developed at such a rate that it outstripped British manufacturing output.

USA

After the birth of the United States following the War of Independence, American industry began to grow rapidly, especially in the north east of the USA. By 1900, the United States 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 of these raw materials became available to American manufacturers. American 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) 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 – particularly tea, silk, cotton fabrics and buttons – became highly sought after. Japan also imitated the West in its adoption of an aggressive policy of overseas expansion, seizing territory in China and Korea in the late 19th century.



Source 1.15 An artist's impression of the first mechanical cotton mill in North America, built with the help of Samuel Slater, in Pawtucket, Rhode Island, USA.

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 at that time – problems that were a consequence of the Industrial Revolution. Rising prison populations were the result of rising crime 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.



APPLY 1.2

- 1 On a blank world map, use shading and detailed labels (including country names and dates) to show the spread of the Industrial Revolution across the world.

Source 1.16 The BHP Steel Works in Newcastle NSW c. 1920. As in Britain, coal mining and iron and steel production were key parts of the industrialisation of Australia.

REVIEW 1.3

- 1 Why was Belgium one of the first countries to industrialise?
- 2 Identify the event that sparked the industrial development of the USA.
- 3 Explain why Samuel Slater is a significant figure in the history of the Industrial Revolution.
- 4 Which was the first Asian country to modernise and industrialise?
- 5 List some of the Japanese products that became popular in the West.
- 6 Identify specific examples that provide evidence that the Industrial Revolution had reached Australia by the 19th century.
- 7 What evidence is there that industrial development in Australia was largely unplanned?

EXTEND 1.3

- 1 Select one major Australian industry and briefly research its history. Can its roots be traced to this period of industrial expansion in Australia?

KEY INVENTIONS AND INNOVATIONS – THE FACTORY SYSTEM

The most important ‘invention’ of the Industrial Revolution was not a single item of equipment or technology. 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**. 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 craftspeople 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 at first powered 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.

Machines were expensive, encouraging factory owners to keep them operating continuously. As a result, people worked 12 or more hours a day, six days a week.

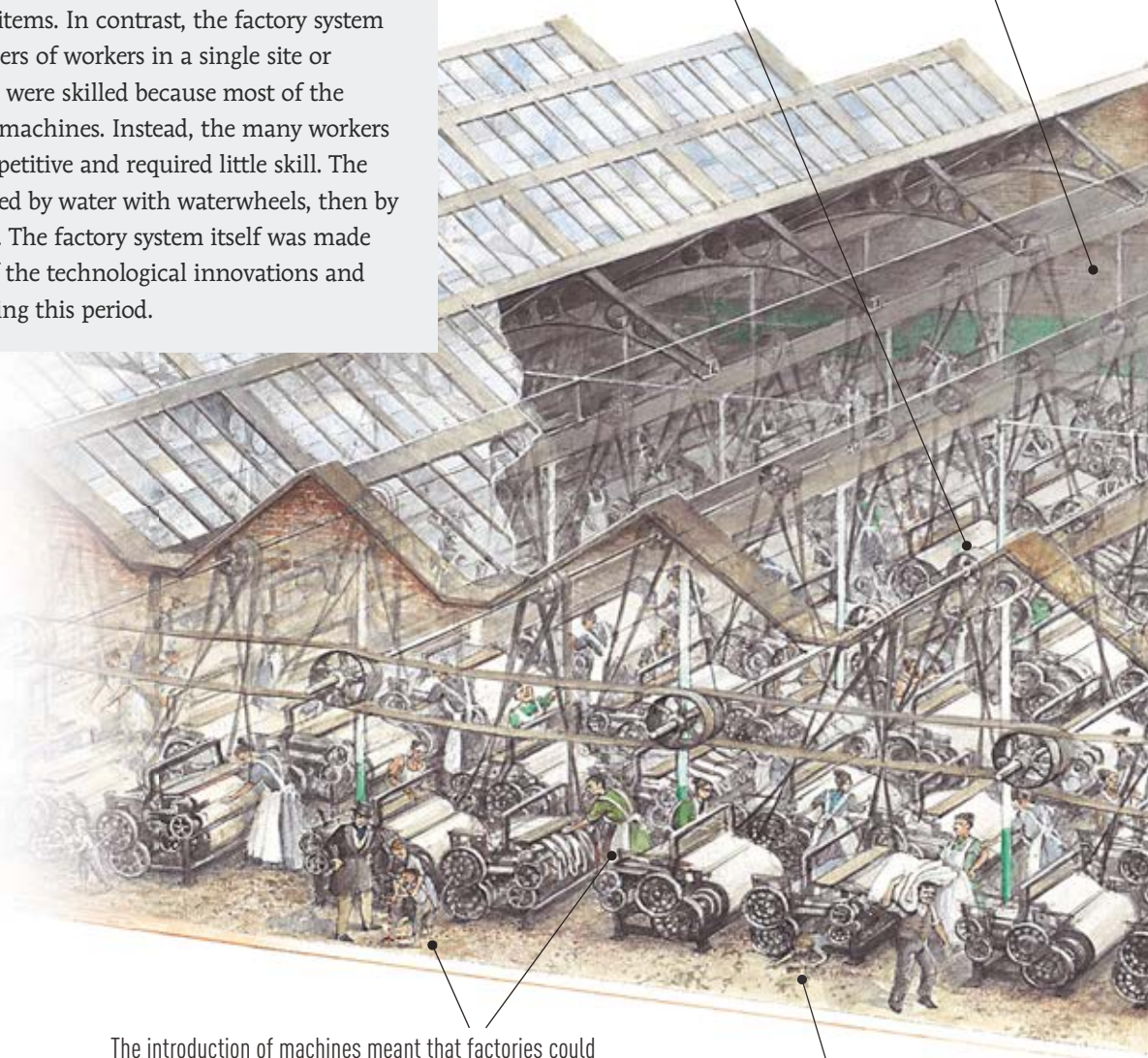
Workers had to endure cramped, dirty and noisy working conditions, alongside hundreds of machines operating non-stop.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In 1813 there were 2400 power looms (mechanical looms used to weave cloth) in Great Britain. By 1835 there were 116 801.

APPLY 1.3

- 1 Conduct research on the types of products that were made in factories in Britain at the start of the 19th century. Select one product and create a poster that shows the journey from raw material to finished product.



The introduction of machines meant that factories could employ workers without specialised skills, including women and children who were cheaper to employ.

Children were seen as ideal workers, able to squeeze between machines to reload spindles and repair broken threads. Accidents and injuries were common.

Source 1.17 An artist's impression of a steam-powered cotton mill

EXTEND 1.4

- 1 The modern school system in Britain (and therefore Australia) traces its roots back to the factory system. The first infants' school anywhere in the world was set up for the young children of workers in Robert Owen's cotton mill in New Lanark, Scotland. Schools were meant to prepare people for work; therefore, it was only natural that they should have been designed around the same patterns as factories. For both work and school, there were set tasks to perform between particular times. A siren or bell indicated when it was time to work, when to take a break, and when to go home. In a class discussion, share ideas on how the school system and factory system can be compared. Do you think there might have been a better way to organise schooling? Give reasons for your opinions.

Stokers constantly shovelled coal into the boiler to keep the engine running and the machines operating.

Constant chimney smoke from countless factories created early environmental damage.

Before the introduction of electrical power, machines were powered by coal-powered steam engines. One engine could power hundreds of looms.

REVIEW 1.4

- 1 Explain what the 'factory system' was and how it differed from methods of production that had existed before the Industrial Revolution.
- 2 How did the development of the 'factory system' change the way people lived and worked?
- 3 Explain the term 'cottage industry'. Provide some examples of the goods produced in cottage industries before the Industrial Revolution.

KEY INVENTION AND INNOVATIONS – THE TEXTILES INDUSTRY

The first factories of the Industrial Revolution were cotton mills. Inventions such as the Spinning Jenny (see Source 1.21), the water frame (Source 1.22) and Crompton's mule (Source 1.23) in Britain and the cotton gin in the USA paved the way for the mass production of cotton and wool. 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. After the development of steam power, mill owners were able to build mills much closer to the supply of workers and potential customers.

As a result of these developments, the skills of traditional spinners and weavers (see Sources 1.18 and 1.19) were no longer needed. These craftspeople 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 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 poor pay, in badly lit and uncomfortable conditions became commonplace. Although harsh working conditions for factory workers were common, there were also exceptions. For example, at the cotton mills operated by Robert Owen in New Lanark in Scotland (see Section 1.2), children were well cared for and educated.

SOURCE STUDY

Technological innovations in the cotton industry

The flying shuttle, invented by John Kay in 1733, introduced a more efficient way of weaving on hand-loom. 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.



Source 1.18 Before the Industrial Revolution, raw cotton was first spun on a spinning wheel to create cotton yarn, a single thread at a time.



Source 1.19 Spun cotton was woven on a hand-loom, owned and operated by weavers in small workshops or their own homes.

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, 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.

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.



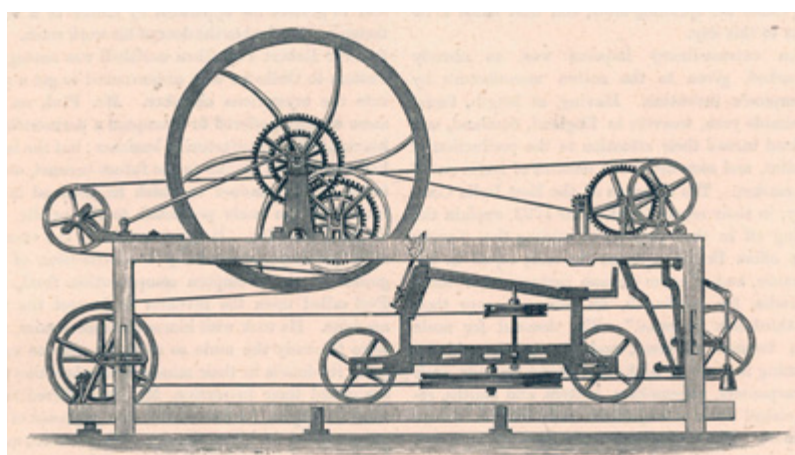
Source 1.20 The flying shuttle



Source 1.21 The Spinning Jenny



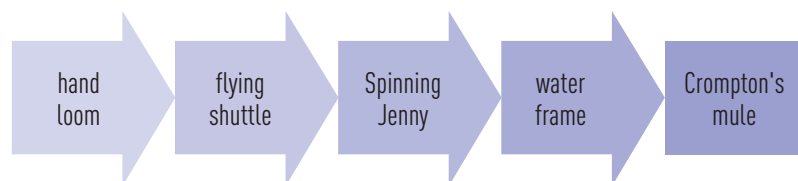
Source 1.22 The water frame



Source 1.23 Crompton's mule

INTERPRET 1.3

- 1 Study Sources 1.20 to 1.23 and copy the flow chart below into your notebook. Add labels to show how the development of each machine changed the production of textiles and inspired the invention of later machines.



REVIEW 1.5

- 1 What development allowed mill owners to choose where mills were located?
- 2 Outline how inventions and innovations changed working conditions for people working in the textiles industry.

KEY INVENTIONS AND INNOVATIONS – THE POWER OF STEAM

Steam engines

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 the lower levels. In response, 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. 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 1.24 An engraving of James Watt studying improvements to the Newcomen steam engine



Steam locomotives and the development of railways

The first steam locomotive, built by English engineer Richard Trevithick in 1801, was driven on roads rather than rails. Trevithick was also the first to drive a steam locomotive on the rails of a tramway, in 1804.

The world's first railway was built in 1825 between the coalfields in Darlington and the seaport of Stockton in north-east England. It combined two innovations: rail-mounted mining trucks (formerly pulled by horses) and the steam engine (formerly used to pump water from coal mines).

The first commercially viable locomotive, and one of the most famous, was the Stephenson's Rocket. It was invented in 1829 by George Stephenson (see Source 1.4).

From this point on, designs became more sophisticated and steam locomotives became increasingly powerful and capable of reaching greater speeds.

Railways marked the beginning of a whole new phase of 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, industrialists made rich by earlier innovations started investing heavily in railways. The building of rail tracks and strong, iron bridges for new train routes meant that iron production doubled at this time.

In Australia, railways were operating from the 1880s and steam locomotives were still in use well into the 20th century. The steam locomotive known as the *Newcastle Flyer*, in service until the 1970s, still holds the record for the fastest rail journey between Sydney and Newcastle.



Source 1.25 The *Newcastle Flyer*

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 sturdy screw-propellers were developed to replace the easily damaged paddle-wheels of the early steamships. By 1838, ships were crossing the Atlantic Ocean purely under steam power. In 1843, the great British engineer Isambard Kingdom Brunel launched the *SS Great Britain*, the first screw-propelled, iron-hulled steamship designed to cross oceans. Steamships began to overtake 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 1.26 The launch of the *SS Great Britain* in Bristol in 1843

REVIEW 1.6

- 1 Identify the first important use of steam engines.
- 2 Outline James Watt's role in the Industrial Revolution. In which sorts of factories were his products used?
- 3 Who built the first steam locomotive?
- 4 Where and when did the world's first railway line run?
- 5 Explain why steam locomotives were such a significant invention.
- 6 Describe the *Newcastle Flyer*. What record does it still hold?
- 7 Who developed the first commercial steamship? When did this happen?
- 8 Outline the advantages steam-powered shipping had over sailing ships.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

When his *Rocket* was first unveiled in 1829, Stephenson announced that it could reach a top speed on 45 kilometres per hour. Newspapers commented that people would not be able to survive hurtling along at such incredibly high speeds.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Iron ships built during the Industrial Revolution were lighter than wooden ships because their hulls now only needed to be 1 centimetre thick, whereas wooden hulls need to be at least 30 centimetres thick.

APPLY 1.4

- 1 What evidence is there in Source 1.26 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 events make them significant.

OTHER TRANSPORT INNOVATIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS

At the start of the Industrial Revolution, transport in Britain was slow and costly, whether by road, river or coastal shipping. Industrialists required quicker and cheaper transport to move coal to factories, or manufactured goods to markets. In addition to the introduction of railways, other innovations such as the building of canals, iron bridges and better roads improved transport links across Britain.

Improved roads

In early 18th-century Britain, most roads were maintained by local inhabitants who carried out repairs only when absolutely necessary. This left most roads outside London in very poor condition. A few roads were managed by turnpike trusts – agencies that collected fees from travellers in return for maintaining the roads in good condition. In the 19th century, pressure from industrialists such as Josiah Wedgwood (ceramics), John Wilkinson (iron) and Matthew Boulton (coin minting) led to a dramatic increase in turnpike trusts, which resulted in better roads and speedier road travel.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In the 1750s, the 640-kilometre journey from London to the Scottish capital, Edinburgh, took between 10 and 12 days by horse-drawn coach. By 1836, this time had dropped to just under two days, and by 1850, it was a mere 12-hour trip.

Canals

Over 100 canals were dug across Britain from 1760 to 1820, linking the major rivers and creating a transport network for food and freight. One of the longest canals was the Liverpool to Leeds canal, 204 kilometres long, begun in 1770 and finished in 1816.

Barges, initially pulled by horses walking beside the canal, carried farm produce to city markets and manufactured goods to the countryside. The canals were also used to move coal and almost all other heavy goods, replacing the slower method of coastal shipping. As much of the expense of coal was due to the cost of moving it, not mining it, the 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 1.27 Tub boats on the Shropshire Union Canal, c. 1900. Although rail and road transport competed with canal transport at this time, canals were still used for transporting coal.

REVIEW 1.7

- 1 Explain why industrialists demanded quicker and cheaper transport during the Industrial Revolution.
- 2 What transport innovations were developed in this period?
- 3 Calculate the percentage improvement in travel times between Edinburgh and London between 1750 and 1850.
- 4 What was the role of canals in the improvement of transport in Britain during the Industrial Revolution?

KEY INVENTIONS AND INNOVATIONS – IRON PRODUCTION

Before the Industrial Revolution, iron producers had to heat (smelt) the iron ore to extract the raw metal or ‘pig iron’ from the iron ore (rock). 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 ironmaster at Coalbrookdale in Derbyshire, England, found a way to bake coal to make a substance known as coke. Coke was a new, smokeless fuel that burned hotter, replacing charcoal as the fuel used to smelt iron ore. Iron foundries became established near coalfields, and the iron and coal industries became strongly linked.

Other innovations made the smelting process more efficient. In 1784, ironmaster Henry Cort was able to combine two processes, known as ‘puddling’ and ‘rolling’, which made the large-scale production of pig iron possible. The amount of pig iron smelted in Britain rose from 25 000 tonnes in 1728 to 60 000 tonnes in 1788, and 125 000 tonnes in 1796.

As production increased, new uses were found for iron, such as cheaper iron utensils, pots and pans for household kitchens. Iron was used as a building material in factories and houses, transforming the design of buildings such as London’s Crystal Palace of 1851, whose roof and walls were 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 in Gustave Eiffel’s famous tower, an iron lattice structure that remained the tallest structure in the world until 1930. Originally intended to last for only 20 years, it is 324 metres tall, as high as an 81-storey building, and was created as the centrepiece of the 1889 World’s Fair in Paris.



Source 1.28 Foundry workers using a large steam hammer to shape red-hot iron, Manchester, England 1832

REVIEW 1.8

- 1 Explain what ‘pig iron’ is, and the role it plays in the production of iron.
- 2 Describe the process that produces iron.
- 3 Outline the uses iron was put to as it became more widely available.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

John Wilkinson was a British industrialist and pioneer in the manufacture of cast iron and cast-iron products during the Industrial Revolution. He earned the nickname ‘Iron-Mad Wilkinson’ because he was obsessed with having everything possible made of iron. When he died in 1808, he was buried in an iron coffin.



Source 1.29 The Eiffel Tower under construction in 1889

APPLY 1.5

- 1 Use the information and data provided in the text to draw a line graph showing the increase in iron production in Britain in the 18th and 19th centuries.

KEY INVENTIONS AND INNOVATIONS – THE INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE

While the steam engine was useful for factories, trains and ships, it was too large to use in smaller businesses or 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, and pushed down a piston that turned a wheel. This was the basis for the internal combustion engine.

German engineers Gottlieb Daimler and Wilhelm Maybach experimented with an engine that used a new fuel, later known as gasoline or petrol. Daimler first used it to power a wooden bike in 1885. Then, in 1886, he adapted a stagecoach to hold his engine, creating the first four-wheeled automobile.

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

Private cars were at first rich men's toys, and painstakingly built by hand. It was Henry Ford (1863–1947) who first made cheap production of automobiles possible, which fulfilled the promise of a car for the common man, not just the very wealthy. He did this by adapting the factory system, using an assembly-line technique with a sequence of specialised workers who repeated the same task on a series of components. The system is still in use today, although significantly changed due to advances in technology.

The internal combustion engine also allowed for the development of an engine that would be light yet strong enough to power a 'heavier-than-air' flying machine. 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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Before petrol started being used as a fuel for automobile engines, it was considered to be a waste product in the production of paraffin (a type of wax) and was thrown away.



Source 1.30 The world's first motorcycle built by Gottfried Daimler in 1885



Source 1.31 The assembly-line production of the Ford Model T, the first affordable motor vehicle

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Ford Model T, first produced in 1908, 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'.

REVIEW 1.9

- 1 Explain why Etienne Lenoir's invention was so significant.
- 2 Identify the fuel Daimler used to change transport. Discuss how it helped shape the modern world.
- 3 Outline the evidence in this section that you could use to support this statement: 'Between 1870 and the start of World War I in 1914, Germany developed at such a rate that it outstripped British manufacturing output.'
- 4 Identify the person responsible for transforming the automobile from a 'rich man's toy' into a 'car for the common man'.

KEY INVENTIONS AND INNOVATIONS – ELECTRICITY

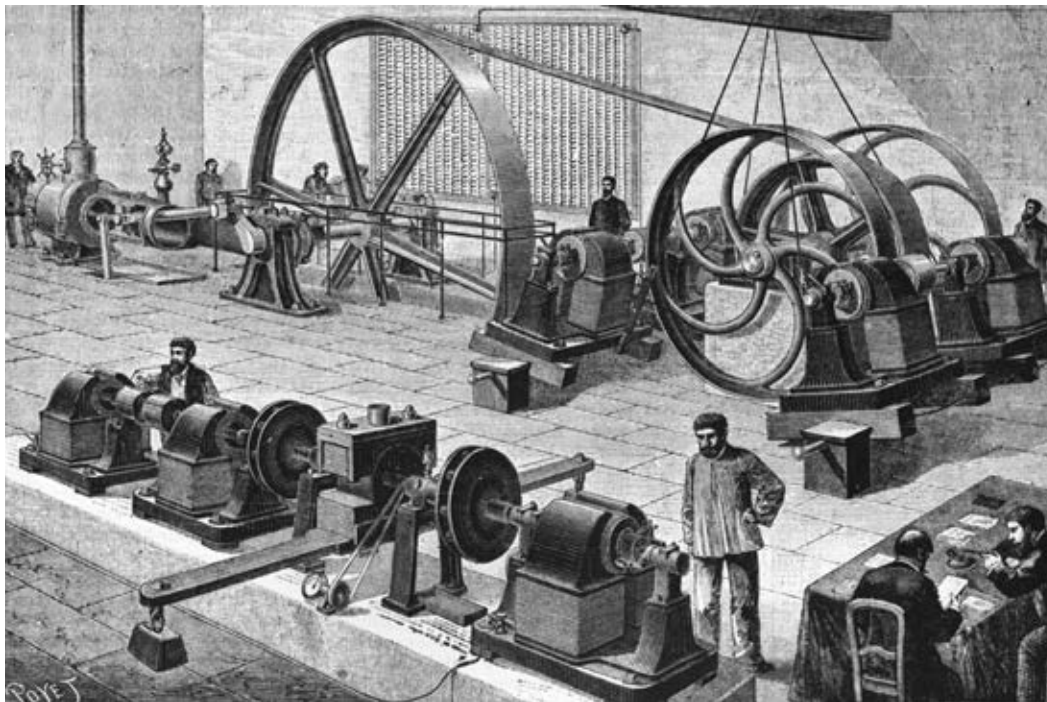
The discovery of electricity and the development of electrical generators was the work of many scientists and inventors from many nations:

- In 1791, Italian scientist Luigi Galvani discovered that he could make a dead frog's legs twitch if he struck them with a spark, advancing the study of electricity.
- In 1800, his fellow experimenter Alessandro Volta recognised the potential of Galvani's discovery and developed a cell or battery to store the energy ('electricity').
- In 1831, the English scientist Michael Faraday produced the first continuous flow of electric current. His work in electromagnetic induction was the basis for dynamos and other electric motors.
- In the 1870s, small scale power stations were built to provide electric lighting. Electric lights were first developed by Joseph Swan, an Englishman, and Thomas Edison, an American. Together they produced 'Ediswan' bulbs to light houses and streets in 1883.
- In 1884, Charles Parsons invented the steam turbine, which allowed steam power to generate electricity. Larger electric power stations began operating in the late 1880s.

Power lines were strung around Britain to carry electrical power to factories and homes. Factories driven by electricity were cleaner and safer, as they did not require the large, moving belts used to drive steam-powered machinery. Unlike coal-powered factories, industries using the new power source could be located anywhere, as long as there were power lines. As factories moved away from coal mining areas in northern Britain, a general movement of population followed these new industries from the north down to the south.

APPLY 1.6

- 1 Create an illustrated flow chart that outlines the major developments in the discovery and application of electricity.



Source 1.32 An 1887 woodcut showing an early power station

REVIEW 1.10

- 1 Describe the experiment Luigi Galvani used to show the existence of electricity.
- 2 Outline how Alessandro Volta advanced the study of electricity.
- 3 Explain why the introduction of electricity was such an improvement for industry.

KEY INVENTIONS AND INNOVATIONS – COMMUNICATIONS

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The first public telegraph was sent by Samuel Morse in 1844, from Washington to Baltimore. The message sent in Morse code – ‘What hath God wrought?’ – was chosen by the young daughter of a friend.

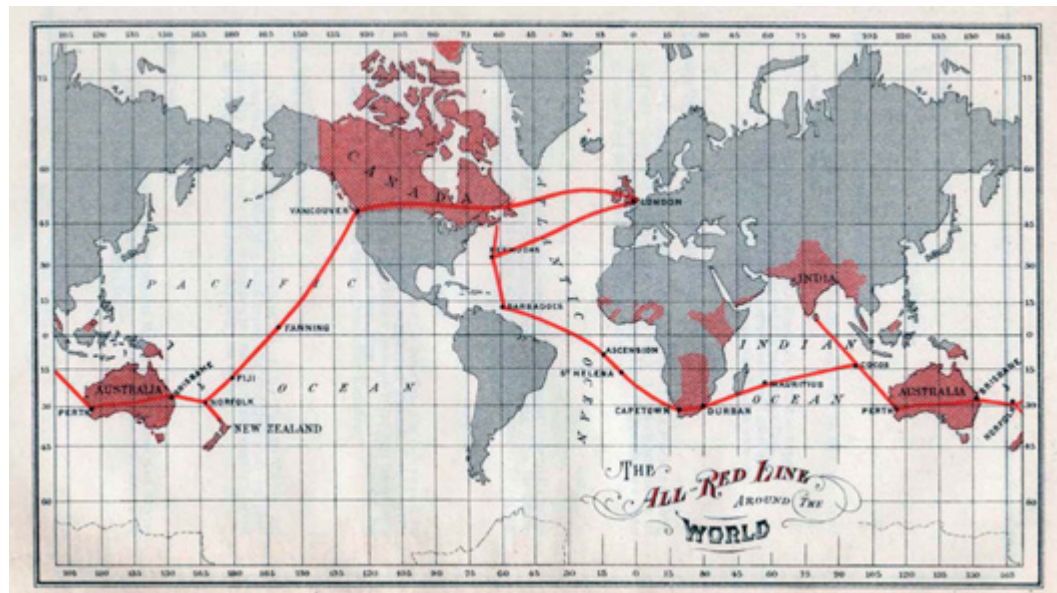


Source 1.33 A woman sending Morse code by telegraph c. 1900

The telegraph

The discovery of electricity helped to develop an invention that revolutionised mass communications – the telegraph. Improvements were made when Samuel Morse developed a coded system, using a series of dots and dashes to represent the alphabet (see Source 1.5). Shorter electrical impulses were dots and slightly longer ones were dashes.

In 1851, London and Paris were linked by an undersea cable. In 1858, the first transatlantic cable was laid, linking western Europe to North America. In 1866, this transatlantic cable allowed rapid communication across the Atlantic. The telegraph helped to bind together the distant parts of the British Empire and was an important part of the development of Australia (see Source 1.34). From 1858, the Australian capital cities were all linked by telegraph. The undersea cables and the Australian overland telegraph completed in 1872 linked Australia with Britain and Europe.



Source 1.34 Parts of the British ‘All Red Line’, the telegraph that linked the British Empire in 1902

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The first telephone call was made by Alexander Graham Bell to his assistant, Thomas Watson, in the next room, transmitting the first words that were ever spoken on the phone: ‘Mr Watson – come here – I want to see you.’

The telephone

The Scottish-born, Canadian-American inventor Alexander Graham Bell has long been credited with the invention of the telephone. In 1876, he was certainly the first to patent it in the USA, after conceptualising and developing his device. However, many other inventors also deserve credit for this astounding invention. In particular, Antonio Meucci, Innocenzo Manzetti and Thomas Edison were pivotal in the development of the telephone’s early technology.

REVIEW 1.11

- 1 Identify the words of the world’s first public telegraph message and telephone message.
- 2 Explain how Morse code worked.
- 3 Outline the main steps between 1851 and 1872 that allowed Australia to be connected to Europe by telegraph.

WHAT CONDITIONS AND NEW TECHNOLOGIES INFLUENCED THE INDUSTRIALISATION OF BRITAIN AND AUSTRALIA?

» Outline and explain population movements in Britain

- 1 Outline and explain the main population changes and movements in Britain between 1750 and 1850. Include relevant statistics, such as the figures shown in Source 1.35. (5 marks)

Source 1.35 Population increase in key manufacturing towns across Britain from 1801 to 1831

City	Population growth (%)
Glasgow	161
Manchester	151
Liverpool	138
Birmingham	90

» Discuss the role of the new wealthy middle class

- 2 The middle class emerged during the Industrial Revolution.
- Outline the reasons why this happened. (5 marks)
 - Discuss the role of the middle class during this period. (5 marks)

» Describe key features of the Agricultural Revolution in Britain

- 3 Define the term 'Agricultural Revolution' and identify its main features. (8 marks)
- 4 Discuss whether 'revolution' is an appropriate term to use to describe the changes British agriculture underwent in the 18th and 19th centuries. (5 marks)

» Locate the growth and extent of the British Empire from 1750 to 1900

- 5 The Industrial Revolution was a time of great change for the British Empire.
- Outline the growth of the British Empire from 1750 to 1900. (5 marks)
 - On a blank world map, locate and highlight the British Empire in 1900. (5 marks)
 - List the countries and regions that were members of the British Empire in 1900. (5 marks)

» Describe the raw materials Britain obtained from its empire

- 6 The following is a list of products that Great Britain imported during its period of industrial and economic expansion in the 19th century. Identify the source of each product. (12 marks)

corn	gold	spices
wheat	tea	rubber
timber	coffee	cotton
silver	sugar	wool

» Outline the main reasons why the Industrial Revolution began in Britain

- 7 During the 18th and 19th centuries immense changes took place in Britain.
- List the main agricultural and industrial developments in Britain during this time. (5 marks)
 - Select one agricultural and one industrial development from your list and outline the impact these developments had in Britain and globally. (10 marks)
 - Use the list and the impacts to explain why the Industrial Revolution began in Britain. (5 marks)

1.1

CHECKPOINT

CHECKPOINT

1.1

CHECKPOINT

» Explain how industrialisation contributed to the development of Britain and Australia

- 8 The factory system introduced great changes in both Britain and Australia.
- Outline the impact the development of the factory system had in both countries. (5 marks)
 - What evidence suggests that Australia was industrialising in the 19th century? (5 marks)

» Identify key inventors and their inventions and discuss how they affected transport and manufacturing

- 9 Between 1750 and 1900, there were massive changes in transport, manufacturing and communications. From the list below, select a specific branch from each of these areas and create a table to:
- list the main inventions that led to the changes (5 marks)
 - identify the significant inventors of this time (5 marks)
 - explain how the inventions contributed to developments in that area. (5 marks)

Transport: land, water, air

Manufacturing: cotton mills, iron production, steam engine, electricity

Communications: canals, railroads, shipping, telegraph, telephone

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASKS

Cotton – from plant to product

Cotton became a crucial product of the Industrial Revolution. Produce an illustrated presentation that follows the path of cotton around the year 1800, from its starting point as a raw material in the United States through to its end as a product of the British cotton mills. You should undertake this task in steps:

- 1 Locate a cotton plantation in the USA. Research the conditions there and prepare a presentation that shows how the cotton was planted and harvested. Who owned the plantation? What labour was used? What conditions did that labour exist under? What happened to the cotton once it was harvested?
- 2 Explain how the cotton reached Britain. Use your research skills to follow the journey of a specific ship company.
- 3 Outline the journey from British port to cotton mill.
- 4 Describe the process the cotton goes through in the British mill. What is the finished product? What will happen to that finished product?

Investigating famous innovators

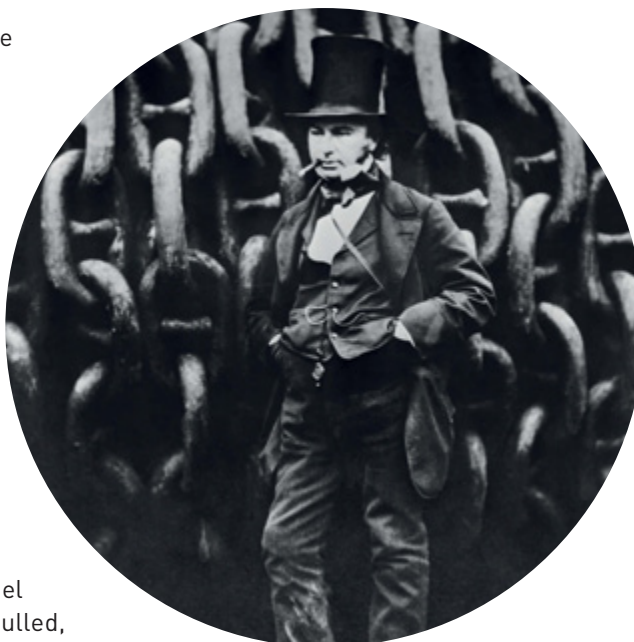
A study of the life and achievements of significant individuals offers insights into both the nature of the Industrial Revolution and its legacy.

- 1 Read the brief descriptions of the three men on the next page. Rank them in order from the one you feel has been the most significant in shaping the world you live in to the one you feel has had the least impact. Briefly explain your rankings.
- 2 Conduct research about the achievements of each of these people, recording the specific achievements that you regard as particularly significant.
- 3 Select another key inventor or innovator that you think has also made a contribution to the modern world. Research his or her achievements, and once again record the achievements you regard as significant.
- 4 Now rank these four individuals using the same criteria you used in Question 1, and briefly explain your rankings.

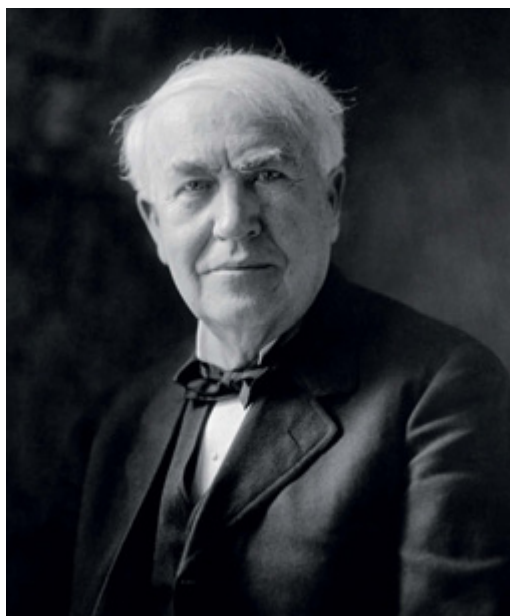
- 5 Write a 200-word persuasive text arguing why your first choice is the correct one.
- 6 Discuss your choices as a class.

Three important inventors or innovators

Isambard Kingdom Brunel has been described as one of the greatest figures in British history. He was an engineer, builder and visionary. Brunel built the first-ever tunnel under a navigable river. He designed and engineered the Great Western Railway Line, along with all its bridges and tunnels. Running from London to south-west England and Wales, it remains Britain's main rail line. Brunel also designed the world's first iron-hulled, steam-powered and propeller-driven ship, the *SS Great Britain*.



Source 1.36 Isambard Kingdom Brunel (1806–1859)



Source 1.37 Thomas Edison (1847–1931)

Thomas Edison is one of the most famous and best known inventors in history. Edison was part of, and contributed to, the Industrial Revolution in the United States. Although it is common for teachers and textbooks to focus primarily on the Industrial Revolution as a British phenomenon, it was international. Edison was responsible for a long list of inventions, including the electric light and the gramophone that recorded sound. He was also a pioneer of the film industry.

Steve Jobs was a pioneer of computer technology and the driver of the global success of Apple products.



Source 1.38 Steve Jobs (1955–2011)

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

1.2

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE EXPERIENCES OF MEN, WOMEN AND CHILDREN DURING THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION?

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 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 occupation to another. The proportion of people in Britain working in manufacturing in 1801 is estimated at 40 per cent, rising to 60 per cent in 1871. 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 mills. These workers struggled to survive on low wages and were forced to work in harsh conditions, as owners operated for a time without any government regulation. 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.



Source 1.39 An artist's impression of a group of mill workers in Manchester, London
Illustrated News, 1840

Factory and mine owners often cut corners with safety and conditions in the pursuit of higher profits. This included instituting long working hours and using cheaper labour, which could be legally obtained by employing only women and children. Long working days took their toll on families, and children were dragged into working life with little opportunity for education. Some of the worst working conditions during the Industrial Revolution were experienced by coal miners. Most of the work in coal mines was still done by hand with picks and shovels. The work was very physically demanding and often dangerous.

Robert Owen and New Lanark

Although these harsh working conditions and the employment of children in factories and mines were common, there were exceptions. One of the most striking exceptions was the cotton mills operated by Robert Owen in New Lanark, Scotland.

Robert Owen was an idealist, a visionary and a pioneer of progressive ideas about social justice. During a time when other industrialists and mill owners treated their workers as little more than poorly paid wage slaves, Robert Owen built a community around his cotton mills. Owen made sure that his workers had good housing, better than average wages, reasonable working hours, free medical care and child care for working mothers. In New Lanark, the site of Owen's cotton mill on the Clyde River, he established the world's first infants' school and offered evening classes for his workers. In many ways, Robert Owen was ahead of his times.



Source 1.40 An artist's impression of Robert Owen's cotton mill at New Lanark in 1818. Note the fast-flowing river in the foreground that was used to power the mill.

EXTEND 1.5

- 1 Conduct research on the Internet into Robert Owen and his mill at New Lanark in Scotland.
- 2 Using your research, discuss whether Robert Owen's approach was more or less effective than the traditional factory system.

Child labour

At the start of the Industrial Revolution, children were seen as ideal employees. They were small enough to fit between the new machinery, they were cheap to employ (often about one-fifth or one-sixth of the adult wage), and their families were grateful for the extra income. There was no real concern about their education being affected as education was not compulsory and most working-class families could not afford to send their children to school anyway. Children started work as young as age four or five.

In textile factories such as cotton mills, children were given jobs as piecers (tying broken threads together) or scavengers (collecting loose cotton from underneath the heavy weaving machines that ran non-stop). They worked six days a week, 12 to 16 hours a day, with very few breaks. Lack of sleep meant they were more vulnerable to mistakes and injuries. The duties of child labourers in cotton mills are described in Source 1.41 and their duties in mines are described in Source 1.43.

SOURCE STUDY

Child labour in textile factories

Source 1.41

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

William Crookes is overlooker in our room. He is cross-tempered sometimes. He does not beat me; he beats the little children if they do not do their work right ... I have sometimes seen the little children drop asleep or so, but not lately. If they are caught 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 female textile worker, Factory Inquiry Commission, Great Britain, Parliamentary Papers, 1833



Source 1.42 A child worker in a textile factory, 1908

INTERPRET 1.4

- 1 Identify the origin of this evidence about conditions for workers in the cotton mills.
- 2 Does the fact that the author of the source says, 'I can read a little; I can't write', have an effect on the reliability of her evidence? Discuss your response with the rest of the class.
- 3 What evidence does the source give you to help you describe conditions in Mr Wilson's mill?
- 4 According to the source, how long is a typical working day in a factory?
- 5 Explain why you think William Crookes 'beats the little children if they do not do their work right' but doesn't beat the worker giving evidence.

Source 1.43

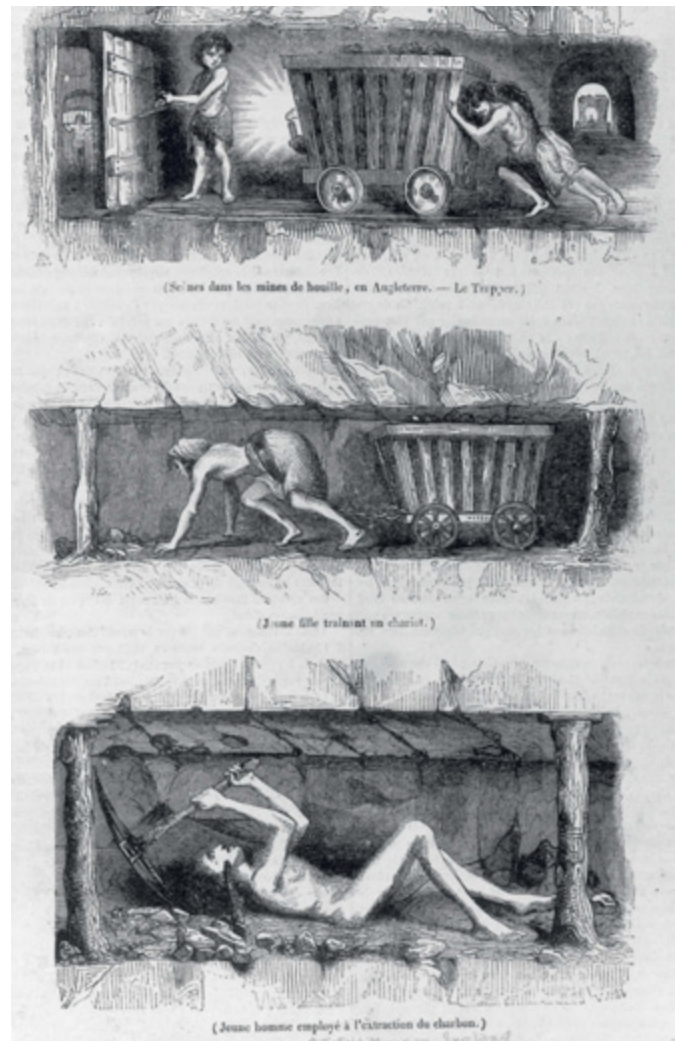
In the coal and iron mines ... children of four, five, and seven years are employed. They are set to transporting the ore or coal loosened by the miner from its place to the horse-path or the main shaft, and to opening and shutting the doors (which separate the divisions of the mine and regulate its ventilation) for the passage of workers and material. For watching the doors the smallest children are usually employed, who thus pass twelve hours daily, in the dark, alone, sitting usually in damp passages ... The transport of coal and iron-stone, on the other hand, is very hard labour, the stuff being shoved in large tubs ... over the uneven floor of the mine; often over moist clay, or through water, and frequently up steep inclines and through paths so low-roofed that the workers are forced to creep on hands and knees. For this more wearing labour, therefore, older children and half-grown girls are employed. One man or two boys per tub are employed, according to circumstances; and, if two boys, one pushes and the other pulls. The loosening of the ore or coal, which is done by men or strong youths of sixteen years or more, is also very weary work. The usual working-day is eleven to twelve hours, often longer ...

Friedrich Engels, *The Condition of the Working Class in England in 1844*, 1845

Source 1.44

Robert North says, 'I went into the pit at 7 years of age. When I drew by the girdle and chain, the skin was broken and the blood ran down ... If we said anything, they would beat us. I have seen many draw at 6. They must do it or be beat. They cannot straighten their backs during the day. I have sometimes pulled till my hips have hurt me so that I have not known what to do with myself.'

Extract from the Earl of Shaftesbury's speech to the British parliament, 1842



Source 1.45 An engraving depicting child labour in mines

INTERPRET 1.5

- 1 Friedrich Engels and the 7th Earl of Shaftesbury were both prominent figures during the Industrial Revolution. Briefly research their viewpoints and discuss whether you feel their attitudes would make them biased sources.
- 2 What conclusions can you draw from these three sources about the conditions facing child labourers in the mines at this time?
- 3 Do you regard any one of these sources as more reliable than the others? Explain your response and compare it with those of your classmates.
- 4 Do Sources 1.43 and 1.44 support or contradict the evidence provided in Source 1.45?
- 5 List the specific information given in these sources that could be used to argue for an improvement in the conditions in mines.

As writers and artists began to highlight the living conditions of the poor, wealthier members of society became more aware of the suffering around them and began demanding reforms from factory owners and politicians. Over the course of the 19th century, reforms in Britain raised the minimum employment age, shortened the working day, increased wages and introduced some form of education. In other areas, such as mining, the use of child labourers was limited or barred.

Source 1.46 Key reforms in Britain to regulate child labour

Year	Legislation	Details of reform
1819	Cotton Factories Regulation Act	- No children under 9 to be employed. - Work limited to 12 hours a day. - Limited practical impact.
1833	Factory Act	- No children under 9 to be employed. - Working days for children aged 9–13 limited to 9 hours a day, and children aged 13–18 limited to 12 hours a day. 4 inspectors appointed to check laws were being enforced.
1842	Mines Act	- No women or girls to be employed underground. - No boys under 10 years old to be employed underground. - No clauses relating to hours of work.
1844	Factory Act	- No child under 8 to be employed. - Working days for children under 13 limited to $6\frac{1}{2}$ hours a day - Hours of work for women and children aged 13–18 limited to 12 hours a day.
1847	Factory Act	- Known as the 'Ten-Hour Act', it introduced a 10-hour working day. - Established the Children's Employment Commission, a regular system of factory inspections.
1850	Coal Mines Inspection Act	Introduced the appointment of inspectors to coal mines.
1860	Mines Regulation and Inspection Act	- Increased the number of inspectors in coal mines. - No boys under 12 to be employed underground.
1878	Factory Act	- Applied to all trades. - No child under 10 to be employed, and compulsory education for children under 10. - Children aged 10–14 could only be employed for half-days. - Women could work no more than 56 hours a week.

Note: The Factory Acts in the 1830s and 1840s applied only to textile factories.

APPLY 1.7

- 1 In groups, select one of the Acts mentioned in Source 1.46 and link it to the conditions evident in Sources 1.43 to 1.45. How effective do you think it was in dealing with the specific problems raised in the sources?

REVIEW 1.12

- 1 Explain why Britain's cotton mills were referred to as 'dark' and 'satanic'.
- 2 Identify the reasons why work and safety conditions were so poor in British factories and mines in the first half of the 19th century.
- 3 Explain why factory and mine owners preferred to employ children as workers.
- 4 Describe the working conditions revealed in Sources 1.41 to 1.45.
- 5 Explain how Source 1.46 reveals changes in working conditions during the 19th century.

LIVING IN INDUSTRIAL TOWNS AND CITIES

In the 1750s, only 20 per cent of the population of Great Britain lived in either towns or cities. By 1850, the urban population had risen to 50 per cent; by 1880, it had risen to 80 per cent. In the fast-growing industrial towns and cities, the new middle classes often established their homes on the outskirts, at the farther end of the new rail lines. The majority of the unskilled workers lived closer to the factories, in slum areas with poor sanitation. In Liverpool in 1865, 40 per cent of young children died in such conditions, and the average life expectancy was just 29 years. Although birth rates were low, the population continued to grow because of the constant migration from the countryside.

Houses were built back-to-back to save space and many apartment blocks were constructed quickly and cheaply to meet demand. There was no proper sewerage, no fresh water and little or no rubbish disposal. Many buildings were unsound or unfit to live in. Those who endured such conditions often turned to alcohol and other drugs as a way of coping. Crime was rife, particularly in the slums of the larger cities such as London.

Life for the urban poor

SOURCE STUDY

Source 1.47

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

Extract from Friedrich Engels, *The Condition of the Working Class in England in 1844*, 1845



Source 1.48 An 1877 photograph known as *Hooky Alf of Whitechapel*, taken at a brewery in Whitechapel, a London slum

INTERPRET 1.6

- 1 Explain whether the evidence provided in Source 1.47 supports or contradicts the evidence provided in Source 1.48.
- 2 As a class, discuss whether visual or written sources are more reliable.
- 3 Identify the specific examples Engels gives in Source 1.47 to support his assertion that, 'the social order makes family life almost impossible for the worker'.

REVIEW 1.13

- 1 How did the proportion of British people living in cities change between 1750 and 1880?
- 2 Explain how the development of the railroad impacted on the distribution of population.
- 3 Describe living conditions in typical inner-city locations.

1.2

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE EXPERIENCES OF MEN, WOMEN AND CHILDREN DURING THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION?

» Describe the changing way of life of men and women who moved from the country to towns and cities

- 1 Using the text and sources in Sections 1.1 and 1.2, describe the major differences in the experiences of people living in the country and those living in major British cities during this period. (20 marks)

» Investigate working conditions in factories, mines and other occupations, with particular emphasis on child labour

- 2 Describe the working conditions in 19th-century British mines and factories that forced the government to step in and take action. (10 marks)
- 3 Discuss how the 1860 Mines Regulation and Inspection Act and the 1878 Factory Act changed working conditions in Britain. (5 marks)
- 4 Explain how the lives of Robert Owens' workers differed from those of most other factory and mine workers. (5 marks)
- 5 Identify the average life expectancy in Liverpool in 1865. Explain how sources used in this section can help you to understand why life expectancy was so different from today (74.5 years for males in 2010). (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

Create and visualise

Create a visual collage – using available sources or drawing your own material – that shows how you visualise living and working conditions were for men, women and children in Britain during the Industrial Revolution.

Charles Dickens' London

Charles Dickens (1812–1870) was a novelist who won recognition for his work, which exposed the living and working conditions of the poor in the industrialised Britain of the 19th century.

Use Sources 1.49 and 1.50 as a starting point to create a historically accurate *Guide to the London of Charles Dickens*. Your guide should include:

- illustrations that capture the living and working conditions people had to endure at the time
- text that describes specific locations and conditions, including at least one quote from a work by Dickens
- a bibliography that acknowledges all your sources of information.

Apart from investigating writing by Dickens and Engels, find out about some other writers and philosophers from the time who were interested in social reform, such as:

- Thomas Carlyle
- John Stuart Mill
- Harriet Taylor Mill
- John Ruskin.



Source 1.49 Seven Dials, a slum in central London, was well known for poverty and crime. It was seen as a black hole by most Londoners.

Source 1.50

It was a town of machinery and tall chimneys, out of which interminable serpents of smoke trailed themselves for ever and ever, and never got uncoiled.

It had a black canal in it, and a river that ran purple with ill-smelling dye, and vast piles of building full of windows where there was a rattling and a trembling all day long, and where the piston of the steam-engine worked monotonously up and down, like the head of an elephant in a state of melancholy madness. It contained several large streets all very like one another, and many small streets still more like one another, inhabited by people equally like one another, who all went in and out at the same hours, with the same sound upon the same pavements, to do the same work, and to whom every day was the same as yesterday and tomorrow, and every year the counterpart of the last and the next.

Extract from Charles Dickens, *Hard Times*

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

1.3

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE SHORT- AND LONG-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. 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, so 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, such as climate change.

SHORT-TERM IMPACTS

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. Overcrowded rooming houses were pulled down and replaced with new urban settlements, with positive consequences for residents:

- Residents in the 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 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, 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, which 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. In 1863, the first part of London's underground railway network opened, linking suburban trains to the city centre.

APPLY 1.8

- 1 Discuss the advantages and disadvantages for workers who moved from older, inner-city tenements to suburbs on the outskirts of cities.



Source 1.51 '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.

There were other positive consequences of the Industrial Revolution:

- 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 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.

REVIEW 1.14

- 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.
- 3 Outline the ways in which the introduction of street lighting changed people's way of life.

EXTEND 1.6

- 1 In two columns, list the positive and negative aspects of the Industrial Revolution for working-class Britons in the 19th century, giving reasons for your decision.

THE EMERGENCE OF TRADE UNIONS AND SOCIALISM

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

The rapid growth of cities meant that there had been little planning, and the new cities had no defined social rules, leaving many workers feeling alienated and friendless. Some embittered workers began to demand better lifestyles, conditions and political rights. The result was a rising interest in social revolution, and social thinkers such as Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels gained a following among the working classes.

SOURCE STUDY

Social divisions and social thinkers



Source 1.52 A 19th-century cartoon comments on the indifference of London's wealthy to the poor.

Source 1.53

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

Extract from Friedrich Engels, *The Condition of the Working Class in England in 1844*, 1845

INTERPRET 1.7

- 1 Name the two classes that Engels recognises as emerging from the Industrial Revolution. Identify the group that he argues was annihilated in this process.
- 2 Identify the 'three great levers' that Engels argues have 'put the world out of joint'. Discuss what you think he means by this.
- 3 Explain what Engels sees as the likely outcome of these changes, 'when the time comes'.

Chartism

In 1834, the British Parliament passed the Poor Law Amendment Act, which decreed that anyone requiring assistance, except for the old and sick, had to enter a government workhouse. These institutions often fed their residents poorly, worked them extremely hard and broke up families. Widespread discontent over the Poor Law Amendment Act reminded many people that they had little say in government. Reform bills in 1832 had extended the right to vote, but only to about 600 000 out of 3 million men over the age of 21.

In 1838, a group of reformists published a People's Charter, demanding a better life for people through parliamentary change. **Chartism**, the movement in support of the Charter, spread through Great Britain. The House of Commons rejected the Chartist petition, even though it had 1.2 million signatures. Supporters of Chartism clashed with police and soldiers, and over 500 Chartists had been put in prison by 1840. Second and third petitions were rejected in 1842 and 1848, and many Chartists gave up on Britain and emigrated to the USA, Italy and Australia.

Emergence of trade unions

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

Some industries developed trade clubs, which quickly developed into unions that fought for common aims, such as higher wages. A union's main weapon was the threat of a stoppage in work: a strike. The Combination Acts of 1799 and 1800 banned workers in Britain from meeting to demand increased wages or shorter working hours. Punishment for this crime was three months in jail. After protests and debate, **trade unions** were legalised in 1825. The largest union in Britain was the Grand National Consolidated Trades Union, established in 1833 by the progressive mill owner Robert Owen.



APPLY 1.9

- 1 Discuss the value of the sources in this unit in showing that many people were dissatisfied with the changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution.

REVIEW 1.15

- 1 Outline the major movements that responded to the Industrial Revolution.
- 2 Identify the major aim of the Chartist movement. Discuss whether you think the Chartists were successful.
- 3 Explain why trade unions developed in the 19th century. Why were they so significant?

Source 1.54 An engraving depicting a meeting of unions in Birmingham in 1832

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION AND IMPERIALISM

In the short term, the Industrial Revolution was linked closely to the push by the existing European powers to consolidate their empires. The increased production of goods meant that new markets had to be found to sell these goods. The new colonies offered this, as well as cheap sources of the raw materials needed for production – timber, cotton, oils and ores.

Africa, the Americas, Asia and Australia offered new sources of materials, power and trade. In the early part of the Industrial Revolution, this trade included the slaves who picked the raw cotton in the USA that was exported to British mills. European nations battled to gain control over massive areas of land in Africa and divided up trading ports in China.

The British East India Company handed over control of India to the British government in 1858. Britain ruled India for almost a century, using it as a source of raw materials and new markets. In India, the Industrial Revolution led to new transport and communication systems, built by British investors with British steel. As a result, most of the profits generated from these projects ended up back in Britain.

Most British traders and **missionaries** based in colonies did not believe that they were exploiting the locals. Rather, they thought they were working hard to bring civilisation to ‘savages’ through education, sanitation, Christianity and the benefits of the Industrial Revolution.

Many Britons who had been living in difficult conditions chose to emigrate to Britain’s colonies in Australia, Canada and New Zealand. Emigration increased in the 1830s and 1840s, and by the mid-1860s over 100 000 people were leaving Great Britain every year.



Source 1.55 This map shows the division of the African continent among the European empire builders in 1913.

REVIEW 1.16

- 1 Explain the link between the Industrial Revolution and the consolidation of empires by European powers.
- 2 Who controlled India before 1858? Who then took control?
- 3 How did many British traders and missionaries regard their work in colonies?
- 4 Explain why emigration from Great Britain took place during the Industrial Revolution.

LONG-TERM IMPACTS

Although it is impossible to pinpoint a date on which the Industrial Revolution came to an end, many historians agree that this coincided with the beginning of World War I in 1914. In the century since that time, 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.

Population explosion

The years since the Industrial Revolution have seen an unprecedented growth in the population of the world. This has slowed in the industrialised nations but continues to rise sharply in the developing world. In 1801, the world population was approximately one billion people. The world's population was estimated to be seven billion at the end of 2013. By 2075, some estimate that it could climb to almost 10 billion.

Changing landscapes

During the Industrial Revolution, forests were cleared in ever greater amounts, at first for fuel and building materials, then to make space for new farmlands, new factories and mills, and new housing areas where the workers could live. All over the world, industrialisation and rising populations have changed the Earth's landscapes (see Source 1.56), with consequences to the natural world and long-term environmental impacts.

Environmental impacts

The Industrial Revolution left humanity dependent on carbon fuels such as petrol and gas, and introduced new sources of air, land and water pollution. In the mid-20th century, the effects of fuel burning on the Earth's atmosphere were becoming apparent to people in the developed countries.

APPLY 1.10

- 1 Select a specific environment in which you can identify changes that can be traced back to the Industrial Revolution. Discuss the long-term impact the Industrial Revolution has had on that specific environment.



Source 1.56 This photograph of Tokyo, Japan, is an example of how industrialisation has changed landscapes across the world and caused long-term environmental damage.

People also came to recognise the problems caused by industrial waste. Large areas of land were damaged or poisoned by the dumping of industrial waste and by-products, including unknown chemicals, without any special care or consideration. The run-off from some of these chemicals can enter the water supply or the food chain. For example, fish and other seafood can be contaminated by chemicals such as lead and mercury that have entered rivers and waterways.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Evidence of the effects of early environmental pollution was found when modern scientists tested hair samples from long-dead people such as Isaac Newton and Napoleon Bonaparte. They discovered high concentrations of the metallic elements antimony and mercury, and initially believed the test results indicated that these people had been poisoned.



Source 1.57 The effects of industrialisation are seen in scenes such as this, where chemicals from a nearby minerals processing factory have killed the trees.

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

It is now widely accepted that pollution has changed the Earth's climate and could lead to further, unexpected changes. Governments worldwide are encouraging the search for greener energies through policies aimed at limiting carbon production or taxing those that produce it.

REVIEW 1.17

- 1 Define what you understand by the term 'globalisation'. Explain how it has allowed the original Industrial Revolution to impact across the planet over the last century.
- 2 Create a population graph that covers the world's population from 1750 until the present. What trends can you identify? What impact could they have for the future?
- 3 Explain how the Industrial Revolution has changed landscapes across the globe.
- 4 Analyse how the Industrial Revolution introduced new sources of air, land and water pollution.
- 5 Identify two growing economies that are now continuing the impacts of the Industrial Revolution.

1.3

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Analysis and use of sources
- Perspectives and interpretations
- Research
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE SHORT- AND LONG-TERM IMPACTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION?

» Discuss positive and negative consequences of the Industrial Revolution

- 1 Some of the significant consequences of the Industrial Revolution are listed in the first column of the table below. Create a similar table in your notebook and fill in the columns to indicate the positive and negative aspects of the consequences. (30 marks)

Consequences of the Industrial Revolution	Positive aspects	Negative aspects
Population growth		
Mass production of goods		
Growth of cities		
New modes of transport		
Development of trade unions		
Environmental effects (changed landscapes, pollution)		

» Assess the short- and long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution

- 2 Outline the major short-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution for Great Britain and its colonies. (15 marks)
- 3 Identify major long-term impacts for the same areas, and assess their role in shaping the present situation in those countries. (15 marks)
- 4 Outline the major historical arguments for and against the suggestion that the Industrial Revolution benefited working-class people in 19th-century Britain. (10 marks)
- 5 Assess the contribution of the Industrial Revolution to:
 - a global environmental problems (10 marks)
 - b modern communications and transport (10 marks)
 - c global inequalities. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASKS

Reactions to the Industrial Revolution

The Luddites were a group who reacted violently to the Industrial Revolution by smashing machines in factories. Marxists followed the ideas of Karl Marx, who saw a future where the workers would rise to create a more equal society.

Research these two groups, and create a conversation between a Luddite and a Marxist, where they discuss the best approach to dealing with the changes the Industrial Revolution was bringing. Each should argue their point of view before you provide a summary outlining your opinion of their viewpoints.

The Industrial Revolution and you

Analyse the impact the Industrial Revolution has had on your local area and your life:

- 1 Prepare a basic history of your town, city or suburb. Then place the information on a timeline to compare events and developments here with those in Britain while the Industrial Revolution was developing.
- 2 Create a folio of evidence that shows how your specific area has changed across time.
- 3 Analyse both the evidence in your folio and your timeline, and explain how the Industrial Revolution has helped shape the area you live in today.



Source 2.1 Shackles, such as these, were used to restrain slaves on their enforced journeys to new lands.

MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES

The period from 1750 to 1901 saw a large increase in the number of people moving around the world. For the most part, these movements were directly linked to the Industrial Revolution and the expansion of many European powers into new territories. Some of these movements were forced, while others were voluntary. The cruel practice of slavery saw Africans forced from their villages and shipped to the Americas. In Britain, as crime rates increased in crowded cities, convicts were also forcibly transported to its colonies – first to North America and later to Australia. By contrast, other movements of peoples were voluntary. North America and Australia both became popular destinations for migrants looking to improve their lives. The discovery of gold in both places accelerated this process. The mass migration of people to these continents came at great cost to the Indigenous peoples there. In a short period of time, they were largely dispossessed of the lands that were central to their culture and way of life.

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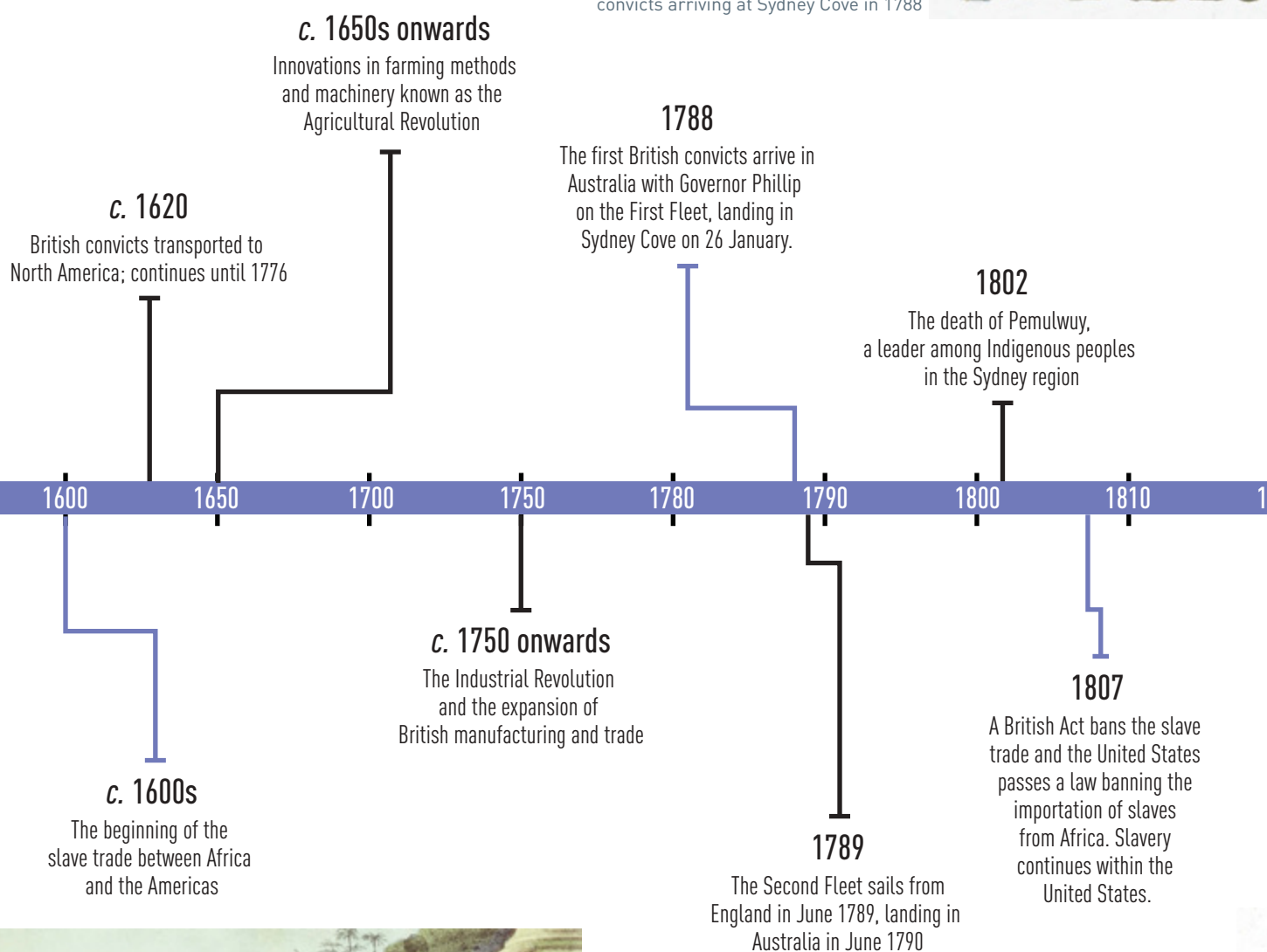
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MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES – A TIMELINE

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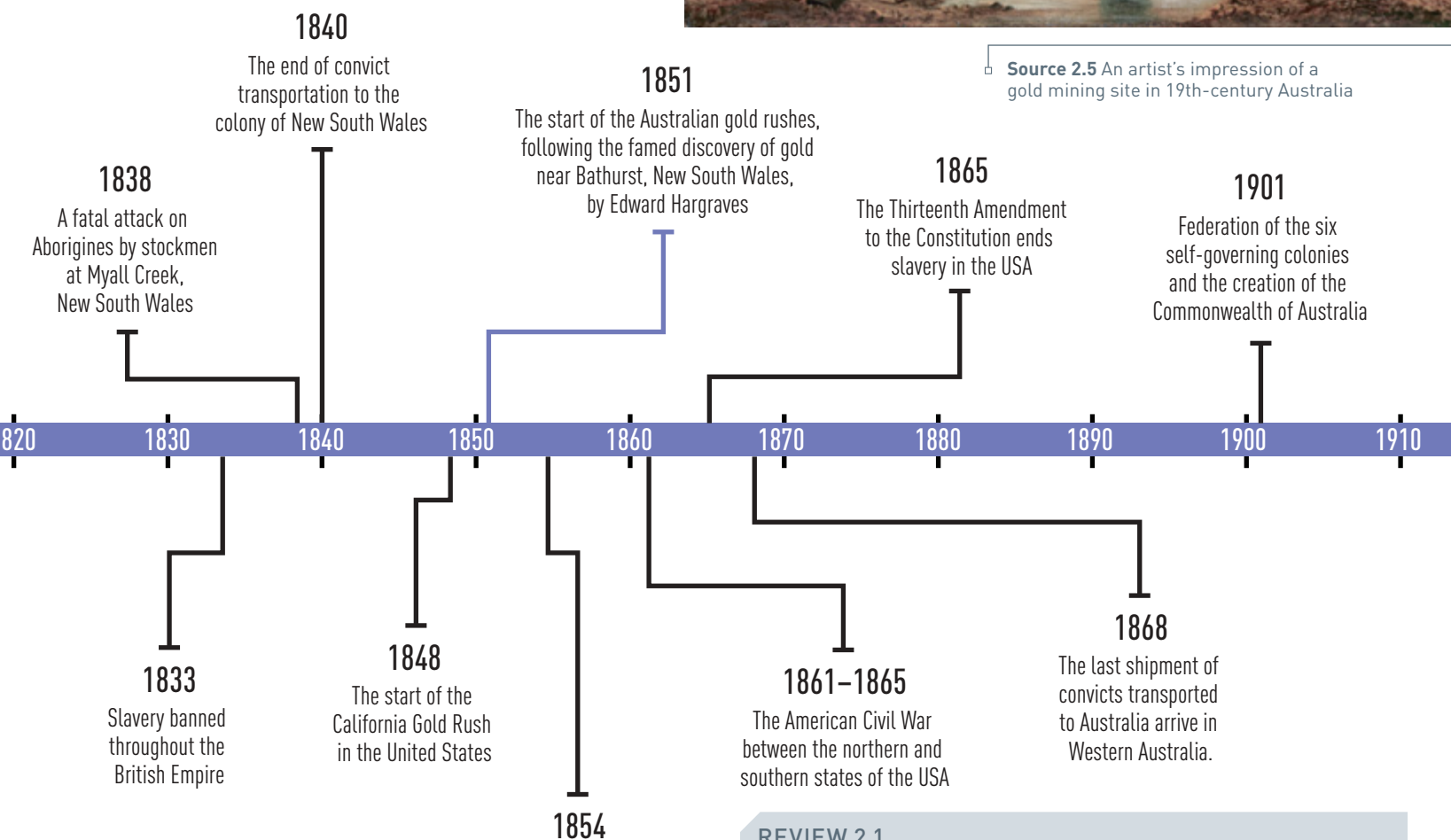
Source 2.3 An artist's impression of convicts arriving at Sydney Cove in 1788



Source 2.2 A 19th-century painting by Jean Baptiste Debret depicting an overseer punishing an African slave in Brazil



Source 2.5 An artist's impression of a gold mining site in 19th-century Australia



Source 2.4 The symbol of the British anti-slavery campaign

REVIEW 2.1

- 1 In which century did the slave trade between Africa and the Americas begin?
- 2 In what year did the transportation of convicts to Australia commence?
- 3 Place each of the following events in their correct chronological order (from the earliest to the most recent):
 - the banning of slavery in the British Empire
 - the last shipment of convicts to Australia
 - the first transport of convicts to North America
 - the United States banning the import of slaves from Africa
 - the Thirteenth Amendment ending slavery in the United States.
- 4 Which entries on the timeline provide evidence that there was an increasing movement against slavery towards the end of the period?

2.1

SECTION

HOW DID THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION INFLUENCE THE MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES?

The Industrial Revolution began in Britain around 1750 and spread to Europe, North America and other parts of the world over the course of the 18th and 19th centuries. The major social and economic changes caused by **industrialisation**, both directly and indirectly, contributed to the mass movement of peoples in this period.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN BRITAIN

The Industrial Revolution was a time when technological innovations in manufacturing, mining, transportation and agriculture fundamentally changed Britain's social structure and economy. Before the mid-1750s, Britain had been an agricultural society with a mostly rural population. By 1850, most people in Britain lived in towns and cities, close to their places of work in the new factories and mills. Country towns such as Manchester and Newcastle grew rapidly, becoming great industrial and commercial cities as a consequence of industrialisation.

EXTEND 2.1

1 Read the sections in Chapter 1 about the key inventions and innovations of the Industrial Revolution that changed the way people worked and lived. Select one invention or innovation, and write a 200-word explanation about:

- what it was used for and how it improved efficiency
- how it transformed the world in which people lived.



Source 2.6 A photograph from the 19th century shows workers at a shoe factory in Northampton, England. The introduction of the factory system and technological innovations during the Industrial Revolution led to fundamental changes in Britain's society and economy.

The Agricultural Revolution in Britain

Many different agricultural innovations and changes that took place in Britain from the mid-1600s largely paved the way for the start of the Industrial Revolution in 1750. These changes – collectively known as the **Agricultural Revolution** – continued throughout the 18th and 19th centuries.

The key advances made in farming methods during the agricultural revolution included:

- the clearing of land and the forced **enclosures** of common farmland to create much larger and more efficient areas for crop production
- the introduction of new farming techniques that improved crop yields and the quality of livestock, such as new methods of crop rotation and animal breeding
- the invention of new farming equipment and machines for ploughing, sowing seed and harvesting that increased the amounts of crops that could be grown and processed for sale.

New approaches to farming benefited wealthy landowners, particularly the enclosure of common land that had previously been worked by small-scale farmers to feed their families and communities. The Enclosure Acts passed by the British parliament during the Agricultural Revolution placed this land into private ownership, and created much larger farms. Agriculture became a profitable business for landowners. These profits led to investments in new farming methods and equipment, which greatly increased crop yields and improved cattle and sheep breeds.

However, for many small farmers and their families, the Agricultural Revolution meant the end of a way of life. Thousands were displaced by enclosures – forced out of their homes that were on land now in private ownership. Others were put out of work by the introduction of machinery that required fewer labourers. The result was a wave of migration from the country to the newly emerging towns and cities. Many who had lost their homes and livelihoods flocked to the towns and cities looking for work, or emigrated to North America and other places. The movement of people from rural villages to towns and cities coincided with the Industrial Revolution, and provided the labour force to work in the new factories and mills.



Source 2.7 An artist's impression of a wheat crop being harvested with a mechanical reaping machine, used to cut and gather grain, invented by Cyrus McCormick in 1831

Population growth

During the 18th century, improvements in food production and new discoveries in medicine and hygiene led to a significant increase in population. The birth rate was rising, fewer children were dying, and the average adult was living longer. Between 1750 and 1800, the population of Britain grew from six and a half million to nine million. By 1911, Britain's population had grown to more than 45 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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The British Parliamentary inquiry released in 1845 found that in Preston – a new industrial town in the north-west of England – there were only 852 beds for a population of 2400. There were many cases in Preston where four or five people were forced to sleep in shifts, sharing a single bed. In one case, eight people were found to be sharing one bed.

Living conditions during the Industrial Revolution

The people who moved from the country to towns and cities in search of work became the new urban working class. They lived in densely populated, polluted and unhealthy conditions. Housing for workers in these cities and towns was built by the new industrialists as cheaply and quickly as possible, to reduce costs and increase profits.

The overcrowded living conditions were worsened by the dramatic growth in Britain's population. In turn, this led to the spread of disease. Calls for reform came in 1845 after a British Parliamentary inquiry into the health of towns, which found that in many large industrial cities, such as Manchester and Liverpool, more than 30 000 people lived in houses without any toilet facilities.

Workers in factories and mills generally worked long hours, six days a week in hot, noisy and often dangerous conditions. Women and children were much cheaper to employ than men, and in the early period of the Industrial Revolution there were no laws restricting the use of child labour. Children as young as six were employed in mines and factories. In fact, they were seen as ideal employees for some jobs as they could fit into small spaces, climb under mechanical weaving machines to retrieve scraps of cotton or wool, or pull carts full of coal or iron-stone through narrow tunnels.

The phrase 'dark satanic mills', first used in the early 19th century, refers to the miserable working conditions of labourers in Britain. Many writers of the time were appalled by the day-to-day experiences of the working poor, with whole families in a seemingly endless cycle of backbreaking work and poverty.

Over time, reforms raised the minimum age of employment, shortened the working day, increased wages and introduced minimum standards of education for children.



Source 2.8 An engraving showing typical living conditions in Whitechapel, a London slum, during the Industrial Revolution

EXTEND 2.2

- 1 Not only Britain sent convicts to isolated parts of the world. France had a notorious penal colony in a place known as Devil's Island. Research the location, history and conditions for the unfortunate prisoners sent there.

Impact of the Industrial Revolution on the movement of peoples

The movement of peoples during this period can be linked directly to the changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution. The rise of European **imperialism** – a system in which the wealthy European powers of Portugal, Spain, the Netherlands, France and Britain established colonies in Asia, Africa and the Pacific – also greatly contributed to the movement of peoples during this time. Some of these movements were forced, while others were voluntary.

Convict transportation

One consequence of the hardship and poverty of life in new industrial cities was crime. Many people were forced to resort to theft to survive, and higher crime rates resulted in overcrowded jails. In order to deal with this rapid increase in the number of prisoners, successive British governments transported convicts away from Britain – first to colonies in the Americas and then to Australia. Between 1788 and 1868, over 162 000 convicted British criminals, many guilty of only minor crimes, were transported to Australian colonies.

Free settlers

The harsh conditions in cities during the Industrial Revolution also led some people to look for opportunities outside Britain. They became known as **free settlers** and travelled to new lands in search of new opportunities. In particular, families hoped for new and better lives in the colonies. Emigration (the departure of people from their native country) reduced competition for jobs, housing and other resources in overcrowded cities in Britain and Europe.

Other groups of people left their homelands simply to survive. These included Scots who emigrated to North America, Australia and New Zealand after being forced off their traditional lands in the highlands of Scotland by the process of enclosures known as the 'Highland Clearances'.

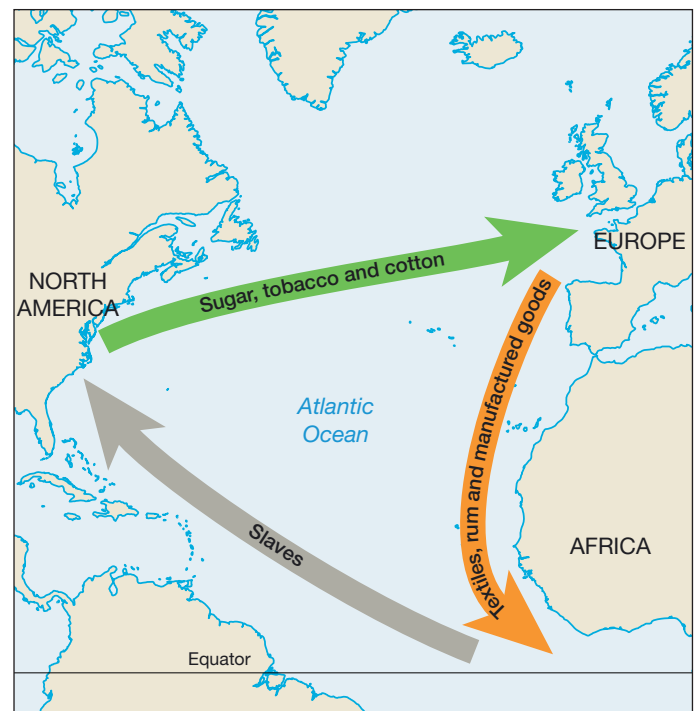
APPLY 2.1

- 1 Studying the movement of people is an opportunity to explore the key concept of cause and effect in history. Use an example provided or conduct research online to find out about a group of people who left Britain or Europe between 1750 and 1901. Identify the reason for (cause) their emigration from their homeland and investigate the impact (effect) that this may have had on their new homeland.

The slave trade

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. This process, now known as the **triangular trade** (see Source 2.9), 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.



Source 2.9 The triangular trade route between Europe, Africa and the Americas

REVIEW 2.2

- 1 Define the term 'Industrial Revolution' and explain why British people started moving into towns and cities at this time.
- 2 Explain why living conditions in the towns built by industrialists were so poor.
- 3 Prepare a list of working conditions that existed during the Industrial Revolution that would be regarded as unacceptable today.
- 4 Why did people emigrate from Britain and Europe at this time?
- 5 In your own words, define 'slavery'.
- 6 Outline the difference between a free settler, a convict and a slave.

CONVICT TRANSPORTATION FROM BRITAIN

As we have learned, growing populations across Europe and the movement of people to rapidly developing towns and cities resulted in a massive increase in crime rates in Britain during the 17th and 18th centuries. The movement of people away from rural villages into towns and cities resulted in serious competition for available jobs, housing, food and services (such as access to doctors). For some, petty crime was an easy way to earn a living, while for others it was a necessity – a case of steal or starve. Most criminals were poor, unskilled and uneducated. There was little understanding of rehabilitation, so the only response to this growth in criminal activity was punishment. Those found guilty of such crimes as murder, **treason** or theft of valuable goods could be sentenced to death. In the late 18th century, at least 200 crimes were punishable by execution.

Those who escaped the death penalty were imprisoned in overcrowded jails where conditions were far worse than even the poorest slums. 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 hulks, as they were known, were moored in British harbours and filled with so many prisoners that they were even more cramped and unhealthy than the jails (see Source 2.10). It was also more difficult to make them secure, so riots and escapes were a constant problem.

In 18th-century Britain, new theories for treating and dealing with criminals became popular. One theory in particular was widely supported – 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. This continued 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 good location for a new penal colony.



Source 2.10 An artist's impression of prisoners being rowed out to a hulk, 1829

The penal colony of New South Wales

The **First Fleet** of 11 ships left Britain carrying over 700 convicts on the six-month journey to New South Wales in 1787 (see Source 2.13). Arriving at Botany Bay on 18 January 1788, it soon became clear that the area was unsuitable for settlement so the fleet moved on to Port Jackson (Sydney Harbour). They landed at Sydney Cove on 26 January 1788.

The arrival of the First Fleet

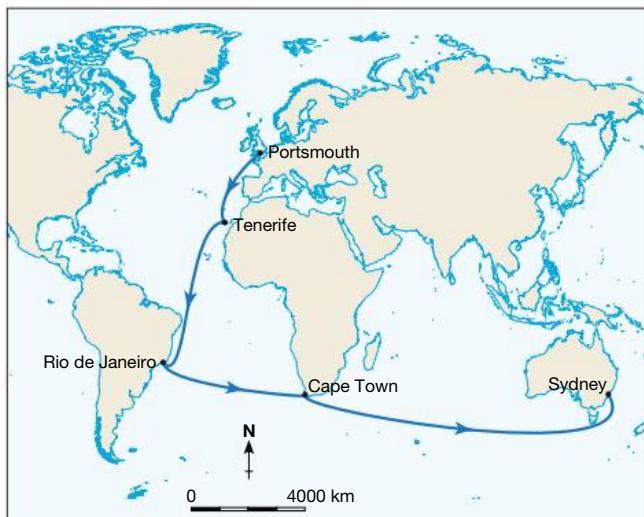
SOURCE STUDY



Source 2.11 An artist's impression of Sydney Cove, painted in 1937, showing the arrival of the First Fleet. The left-hand foreground shows part of a low-lying island that was cut off from the mainland at high tide, later called Bennelong Point. In the top-left corner, the Tank Stream flows into the cove.



Source 2.12 This photo of Sydney Cove, taken in 2011, shows the city of Sydney. In the left-hand middle-ground is the Sydney Opera House, which was built at Bennelong Point.



Source 2.13 The route taken by the 11 ships of the First Fleet from England to Australia

INTERPRET 2.1

- 1 Examine Source 2.11. Identify the features that would make it attractive as a location for settlement by the First Fleet. What challenges does the site present?
- 2 Sources 2.11 and 2.12 show the same location over 200 years apart. What are the main continuities and changes you can identify?
- 3 Explain how Source 2.13 could be used as evidence to support the hypothesis that the British knew more about the east coast of Australia than the other areas.

Other penal colonies

Other penal colonies in Australia were later established in Tasmania, at Port Phillip in Victoria, on the Swan River in Western Australia, at Moreton Bay in Queensland and on Norfolk Island. For more than 80 years, convicts and ex-convicts provided the labour force that helped to develop these Australian colonies by building roads and houses, and clearing dense forests.

Political prisoners

A significant category of convicts transported to Australia 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 founded 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 union to bargain for wages with local landowners. They were transported for seven years in 1834. However, the men became popular heroes and only two years into their sentence they were pardoned and returned to England. For their sacrifice, they earned the title ‘Tolpuddle Martyrs’.

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.

Who were the convicts?

The story of Australia’s convict past has often been contested by different historians, academics and everyday people, largely as a result of our uneasy relationship with how it defines us as a country today. This contestability is the result of two ideas working against each other:

- the desire to forget or cover up the past – up until the 1960s, it was common for Australians with transported convict ancestors to hide the fact, because it was considered a stain on the family name. South Australia has always emphasised that, unlike the rest of Australia, it was settled as a free colony, and Tasmania changed its name from Van Diemen’s Land to Tasmania in 1856 to remove the association with convicts.
- the desire to mythologise or romanticise the past – to this day, it is common for certain convicts and settlers from Australia’s past to be singled out and held up as examples of people who triumphed over adversity, such as Francis Greenway (a convicted forger who went on to become Australia’s first government architect) and Caroline Chisholm (a humanitarian who helped poor migrant women arriving in Australia).

Historians have differing views of the convicts and the kind of people that they were. Some argue that political prisoners protesting against corruption and unfair government policies were not criminals at all, and claim that the law-breakers who did commit crimes were merely the victims of poverty and harsh laws. Other historians suggest that the convicts were, in reality, hardened criminals, and that half to two-thirds of the convicts were repeat offenders who chose a life of crime even though other work was available.

The most common offences that resulted in transportation to Australia after 1788 included pick-pocketing, sheep- and horse-stealing, highway robbery and burglary. Many convicts were from newly industrialised cities, and many were young. Research has shown that 40 per cent of the convicts transported to Australia in the First and Second Fleets came from the London area. Not all those convicted of a crime were transported. Generally transportation was reserved for those under 50 years of age who had been convicted more than once. The convicts selected for transportation tended to be young. Statistics show that, until 1851, around 30 per cent of the convicts were under 19 years of age.



Source 2.14 Detail from a public poster that cautioned against attending or joining unions



Source 2.15 Photographic portraits of convicts taken after their arrival in Australia

APPLY 2.2

- 1 Conduct research on the Internet to select and investigate the lives and experiences of two convicts that show the competing historical perspectives of convicts.
 - a Select one who could be considered 'good' (that is, a respectable person who committed a minor offence) and one who could be considered 'bad' (that is, someone found guilty of a serious crime, such as murder).
 - b Create a fact file on each (including name, age, crime and punishment) and include information about what became of him or her. Add a photograph or illustration if one is available.

REVIEW 2.3

- 1 Explain why crime increased in Britain during the Industrial Revolution.
- 2 Which policy was a result of the belief that crime in Britain was caused by a 'criminal class'?
- 3 Identify which Australian states hosted convict settlements.
- 4 Explain why political prisoners were transported to Australia. Describe the impact they had on Australia's development.
- 5 Discuss why the question 'Who were the convicts?' is contested by historians and everyday people alike in Australia.

FREE SETTLERS TO THE NEW WORLD

APPLY 2.3

- 1 Compare the population growth of Europe and North America between 1750 and 1900. Which area had the highest percentage growth? Why do you think this was the case?

APPLY 2.4

- 1 Create a poster designed to encourage people in Europe to emigrate to either Canada or the United States. Your poster should portray your chosen country as a 'land of opportunity'. Include a slogan and a relevant image to motivate people to make the journey.

Unlike the convicts and slaves, free settlers moved willingly to start new lives. The choice of destination played a significant role in the decision of many emigrants to leave their homelands. During the 18th and 19th centuries, North America, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa offered abundant land almost for the taking. In some cases, free grants of land were made. Even when land was not free, prices were usually low and this was possibly the greatest factor that pulled new immigrants towards these countries. The discovery of gold in North America and Australia also led to a dramatic shift in population. In 1750, Europe's population was 163 million, growing to 408 million in 1900. Over the same period, North America's population rose rapidly from 2 million to 82 million.

North America

The British colonies in what we now know as the United States of America fought a war from 1775 to 1783 (the **American War of Independence**) to break free of British control. The chance to be a part of a new nation was a powerful pull factor drawing new immigrants. It led to a period of expansion, as settlers moved west across the country, developing new settlements and trade routes. All these changes created employment and opportunities to own land.

By the late 19th century, Canada, also a British colony, was starting to open up. Like the USA, it had large areas of land available. To encourage development of the west, land was given free to settlers along the route of the Canadian Pacific Railway.

In 1848, gold was discovered in California, sparking the first gold rush. People from around the world seeking instant wealth went to the west coast of North America and settling in the new territories (which were not yet part of the United States). Around 300 000 people arrived in California over the next five years, transforming the area. This was followed by a Colorado gold rush in 1859, causing the population of the western region to grow rapidly. A couple of smaller gold rushes also hit Canada around this time, ending with the big Klondike gold rush in the Yukon in 1897. Because of these gold rushes, North America became known as a land of opportunity.

The idea of a prosperous democracy was a powerful pull factor for many Europeans who had seen their lives become worse during the changes of the Industrial Revolution.



Source 2.16 A
A photograph from the 19th century showing a street scene in Idaho Springs, Colorado, as goldminers flock to the area.

Australian colonies

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.

Some settlers were part of a new group of assisted migrants. Employers could apply for financial assistance to bring workers to Australia if they had a particular skill that was needed. This approach would also be used to boost immigrant numbers in the 20th century.

As in the USA, the discovery of gold helped transform Australia. Most famously, gold was discovered by Edward Hargraves near Bathurst in New South Wales in 1851. Between 1850 and 1860 the population of Australia more than doubled from 405 400 to 1 145 600.

Among those who came to Australia during the gold rush era were a second wave of Chartists and other political refugees. There was a perception that there was a greater opportunity to think and speak freely, practise one's chosen religion and express differing political views. Many stayed to become settlers in the new nation that would emerge with Federation in 1901.

APPLY 2.5

- 1 Conduct research on the Internet about Australia's colonial settlements before Federation in 1901. On a blank map of Australia, mark the location of each settlement. For each one, note:
 - when it was first settled by Europeans
 - whether it was a convict or free settler colony
 - the date transportation started and finished (if it was a convict colony).

Encouraging emigration

SOURCE STUDY

INTERPRET 2.2

- 1 Source 2.17 provides us with information about living conditions in Britain and an unspecified destination. The 'Here' section refers to Britain.
 - a Examine the representation carefully and list the reasons it provides as reasons for families to consider emigration. To what extent are those reasons catered for in the 'There' section?
 - b Are there any clues to suggest the location of the 'There' section?
 - c What is the significance of the subtitle 'Or, Emigration a Remedy'? Who is the implied target audience for the source?



Source 2.17 One of many posters used in Britain during the 19th century to encourage people to emigrate to the new world

REVIEW 2.4

- 1 Identify the key difference between the reasons free settlers emigrated and the reasons for convicts' emigration.
- 2 Explain the 'pull' factors drawing free settlers to North America in the 19th century.
- 3 Discuss the similarity of 'pull' factors to Australia at the same time.
- 4 Explain why political prisoners and political refugees would decide to stay in Australia.

2.1

CHECKPOINT

HOW DID THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION INFLUENCE THE MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES?

» Describe key features of the Industrial Revolution in Britain

- 1 Define the periods known as the Industrial Revolution and the Agricultural Revolution in Britain, and explain why the Agricultural Revolution had to come before the Industrial Revolution. (10 marks)
- 2 Describe the living conditions that working people typically experienced in cities during the Industrial Revolution in Britain. (10 marks)

» Explain how the Agricultural Revolution caused British people to move from villages to towns and cities

- 3 Describe the impact that the Agricultural Revolution and the Industrial Revolution had on the movement of peoples within Britain. (5 marks)
- 4 Explain who the major beneficiaries of the Agricultural Revolution were, and outline how these groups benefited from developments during this period. (10 marks)

» Outline how the Industrial Revolution influenced convict transportation and the migration of free settlers

- 5 Explain how the Industrial Revolution provided 'push' factors that encouraged people to leave Britain, either as free settlers or convicts. (10 marks)
- 6 Outline the links between the Industrial Revolution and the political demands that saw activists coming to Australia as both convicts and free settlers. (5 marks)
- 7 Outline the 'pull' factors in Australia and North America that made them attractive destinations to those experiencing the Industrial Revolution in Britain and Europe. (10 marks)
- 8 Classify the reasons for leaving Britain given below as either 'push' or 'pull' factors:
 - having land enclosed
 - transportation for stealing food
 - the discovery of gold in Australia and North America
 - the opportunity to express political opinions
 - cheap land in Australia and North America
 - overcrowded and unhygienic living conditions
 - child labour in factories
 - imprisonment for leading Chartist demonstrations
 - warmer climate
 - the formation of new nations such as the United States of America.(10 marks)

» Identify the movement of slaves out of Africa, and the movement of convicts and free settlers out of Britain

- 9 On a blank world map, label the places of origin and the destinations of the large groups of people who moved to new lands during the period 1750–1901. Use colour coding to differentiate the labels for slaves, British convicts and free settlers from Europe. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/80]

RICH TASK

Why was Australia settled?

For many generations, there has been almost complete agreement between Australian historians and teachers that Australia was settled because Britain needed a place to send its convicts after the American War of Independence in 1783. In recent years, however, this view has been challenged by some historians. It is quite normal for historians to develop new opinions as more evidence becomes available to them. It is an important part of being a historian to allow the evidence to inform and modify your hypothesis, rather than only try to find evidence that supports the hypothesis you have already formed.

Consider how views of this aspect of Australian history have changed over time by comparing and contrasting the views of historians such as Manning Clark, Geoffrey Blainey and Geoffrey Bolton, among others.

- 1 As a class, divide into four groups. Each group should be allocated one of the following reasons that historians have advanced for Australia's settlement:
 - as a dumping ground for convicts
 - to provide Britain with a permanent trading base in the South Pacific
 - as a strategic base, to limit French expansion in the region
 - as a source of key raw materials such as flax and pine trees, found on nearby Norfolk Island and New Zealand, which were required for the powerful British navy's sails, rope and masts.Each group should research the reason they are allocated, looking for evidence in primary and secondary sources that will support their argument that their reason was the driving force behind the settlement of Australia. Groups should compile their evidence in a folio that could be used to convince others why their argument is correct.
- 2 After each group's presentation, have a class discussion about their findings, particularly focusing on the strengths and weaknesses of their evidence.
- 3 Is it possible to come to a conclusion about which was the most important reason? Each student should write their own personal conclusion, reflecting on why they regarded some evidence as more significant than other evidence.



Source 2.18 New Zealand flax plant



Source 2.19 A Norfolk Island Pine tree

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

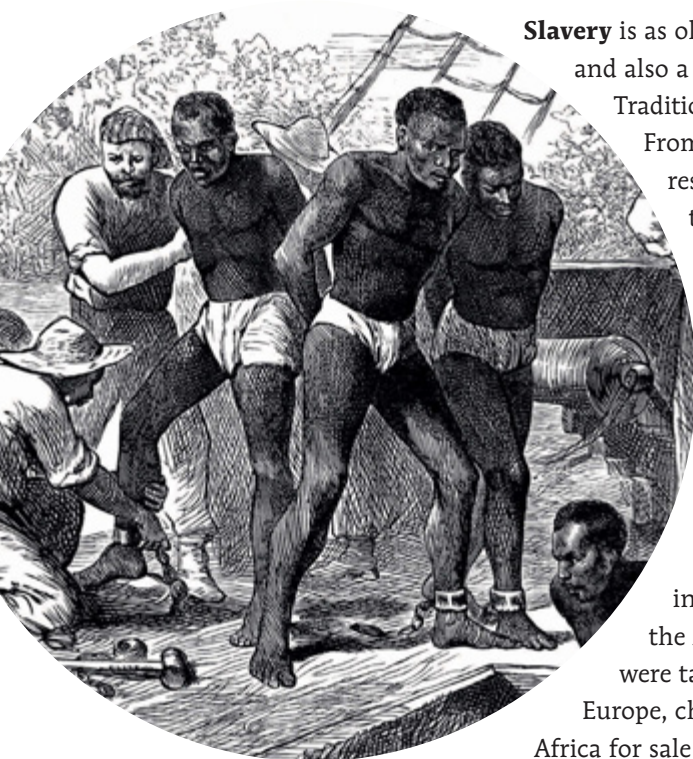
2.2

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE EXPERIENCES OF SLAVES, CONVICTS AND FREE SETTLERS ON THEIR JOURNEYS?

In this section we investigate the experiences of slaves, convicts and free settlers on their journeys to new lives far from their homelands. We also explore the reasons behind the slave trade – a trade that resulted in the forced removal and mistreatment of millions of Africans during the 18th and 19th centuries.

THE TRANSATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE



Source 2.20 Slaves were shackled before being put in the hold of a slave ship bound for the Americas.

Slavery is as old as human history. It was a feature of life in the ancient world, and also a feature of African history before the arrival of the Europeans. Traditionally, African tribal leaders made slaves of their captured enemies. From the 1600s onwards, the European powers began to exploit African resources. This meant looking to Africa for trade goods, territory and then human cargo in the form of slaves.

During the 1700s, Britain became a major player in the trade that had previously been dominated by the Portuguese and the Spanish. Britain's participation in the slave trade was driven by the profit motive. Merchants were happy because their ships were full on each of the three legs of the **triangular trade** (see Source 2.9). Profit, along with a sense of European superiority, ensured that the slave trade grew rapidly. It lasted until 1833 in the British Empire and until 1863 in the United States.

At the end of each leg of the trade route, merchants' profits increased. The slaves they captured in Africa were sold for profit in the Americas and raw materials like sugar, tobacco and, later, cotton were taken on board. These were then shipped to Europe for sale. In Europe, cheap manufactured goods were loaded on board and carried back to Africa for sale at a profit.

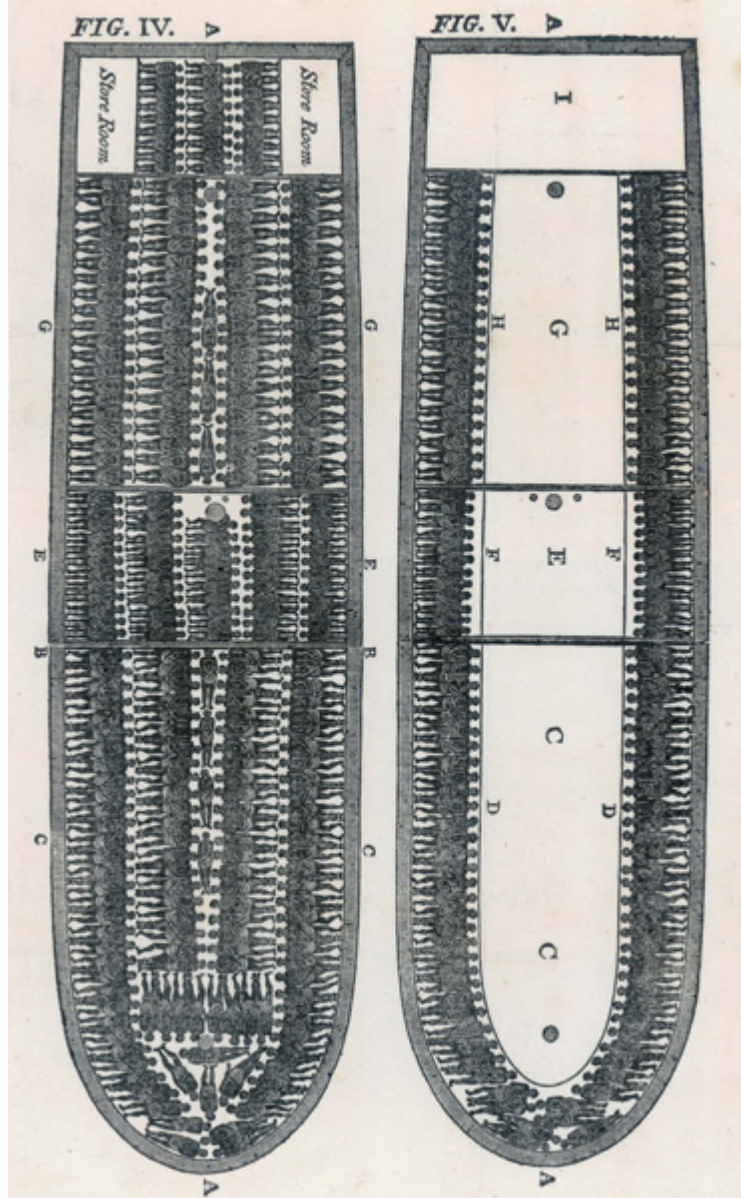
By the end of the 18th century, it is estimated that up to 12 million Africans had been taken as slaves to the West Indies, South America and Britain's American colonies. The size of the slave trade was not just the result of the need for cheap labour as the number of sugar, tobacco and cotton plantations expanded in the Americas. It was also due to the high, premature death rate among slaves. This meant that more slaves were always needed to maintain the size of the workforce.

Unlike convicts, who could have opportunities in a new land after completing their sentences, slaves had very little to look forward to. Slavery usually lasted for life, and a slave's children were born into slavery.

Transportation of slaves

Perhaps the most notorious leg of the transatlantic slave trade was the 'middle passage'. This was the section of the journey in which slaves were transported from Africa, across the Atlantic Ocean to the Americas. The journey would have lasted anywhere from one to six months. Slaves were packed below deck, often in chains, where they were forced to lie side by side in cramped conditions with little headroom.

Slave ship companies went to great lengths to find the best way of packing their human cargo for shipment. The 'best way' was of course the most profitable way, but there was debate about how they could achieve this. Some favoured the 'loose pack' method, arguing that by giving slaves a little more room, not as many would die from the appalling conditions. Those slaves who did survive the 'loose pack' would also arrive in better condition and fetch a higher price at the slave markets. Others favoured the 'tight pack' method, with many more slaves loaded onto a single ship. It was argued that even if some died or reached the Americas in poor health, there would still be more slaves to sell. 'Tight pack' was generally more popular, on the basis of profits. Of course, it did not take into account the price in human suffering.



Source 2.21 A plan of the British slave ship *Brookes* in 1789, showing how 454 slaves were loaded in accordance with the 'tight pack' method following the Slave Regulation Act of 1788. Before the Act, the 'tight pack' method would have meant the ship carried up to 740 slaves.

APPLY 2.6

- 1 Often, one of the most difficult things for historians and students of history to do is understand the actions and ideas of people who lived in the past. Sometimes, the things people did or thought seem incompatible with the way many people think and act today. Slavery is a good example of this.
 - a Use the key concept of empathetic understanding to put yourself in the place of a slave owner in one of the American colonies. Write a 200-word explanation of why slavery is an acceptable and necessary practice.
 - b Now put yourself in the role of the enslaved man or woman owned by the same slave owner. Write a 200-word explanation of why slavery is wrong and should never be practised.

REVIEW 2.5

- 1 What was the triangular slave trade?
- 2 What was the 'middle passage' and why was it notorious?
- 3 What did the terms 'loose pack' and 'tight pack' mean for slave traders? Why was 'tight pack' favoured?

THE EXPERIENCES OF SLAVES

STRANGE BUT TRUE

It was common for rebellious slaves to have their hands, and then their heads, cut off. The severed body parts were then passed around to other slaves below deck as a warning. To some African tribes, the severing of their heads was the worst imaginable fate. They believed that without their heads, their spirits would never find their way home.

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. Often, Africans were captured while they were out hunting, and their families would never have known what happened to them. They were herded into cages and then loaded onto slave ships.

The conditions under which slaves were shipped to the Americas were brutal. The quarters for the slaves below the decks of slave ships were little more than leaking, ocean-going dungeons. In summer, the heat below decks was stifling. In winter, the slaves, with little clothing and no blankets or bedding, would shiver with cold. It was almost impossible for slaves to find a comfortable position because of overcrowding and the fact that they were in chains. Much of the time, they were forced to lie in their own urine and excrement. The only relief might come when small groups were allowed briefly on deck, while still in chains, to be hosed down with sea water. The slaves were fed the bare minimum of food required to keep them alive, in order to reduce costs and maximise profits. Slaves also had limited access to fresh water.

Many slaves attempted escape during the journey or tried to end their misery by jumping overboard. Some also refused to eat. Slave-ship captains responded by ordering crew members to smash the teeth and force feed these troublesome slaves. Slavers also used a special tool, like a pair of pliers, called the *speculum oris*. The pointed ends were jabbed between the jaws and then, with the turn of a screw, the ends opened and forced the jaws apart.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In one case, a newborn baby whose slave mother had died in childbirth on a slave ship was left out in the sun to die, and was later thrown overboard. The captain was found not guilty of murder because there had been no 'premeditated malice'. The court ruled that the captain had not planned for the woman to die, and that without a mother the child would have died anyway.



Source 2.22 An illustration from *The Illustrated London News*, 20 June 1857, showing how slaves were packed together on board slave ships

EXTEND 2.3

- 1 A slave ship by the name of *Zong* provides an example of the types of attitudes that slave owners held towards their slaves during this period. Conduct research on the Internet about the *Zong* massacre. Prepare a 250-word essay describing the events leading up to the massacre, and explain why it is a significant historical event.

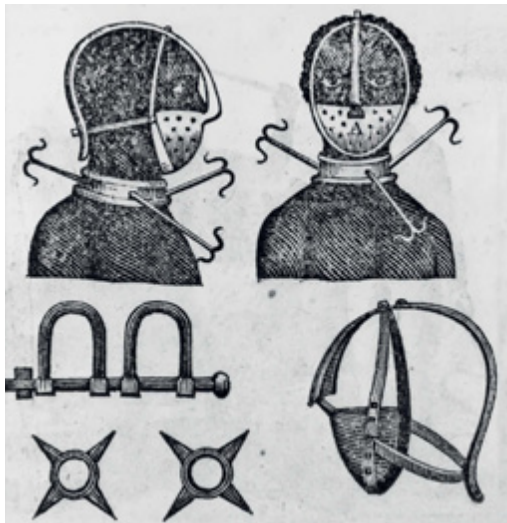
Transportation of slaves

SOURCE STUDY

Source 2.23

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

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



Source 2.24 The various forms of restraint used for slaves. The three metal prongs around the neck ensured that if a slave managed to escape, he could not lie down.



Source 2.25 A steel slave whip used in the 19th century on ships transporting slaves

INTERPRET 2.3

- 1 Read Source 2.23 written by Olaudah Equiano. What does the fact that this is a written source indicate about his life after being taken from Benin? Does his slavery have any impact on the reliability or bias of this as a historical source?
- 2 Outline your reaction to the instruments shown in Sources 2.24 and 2.25. Explain why the commander of a slave ship would have had a very different reaction.
- 3 With a partner or in small groups, discuss the motivation behind the development of instruments like these.
- 4 Explain how Sources 2.23 to 2.25 help you to understand the operation of the slave trade.

APPLY 2.7

- 1 Use the information in the text and Source 2.26 to create two 200-word descriptions of a slave auction. One should be from the perspective of a potential buyer, the other from the perspective of a slave waiting to be sold.

Arrival in the Americas

When the slave ships docked at one of the American ports, the slaves were unloaded and prepared for auction. Sores and wounds were covered with tar to make them less visible, and troublesome slaves were given laudanum (made from opium) to sedate them. The slaves were paraded like animals before the interested buyers. Potential purchasers would examine them thoroughly, look in their mouths, feel their muscles and even comment on their ability as potential breeders of more slaves. The entire process was dehumanising and undignified, and the slaves had no idea where they were or what was ahead of them.



Source 2.26 A coloured engraving depicting a slave auction in America's Deep South, c. 1850



Source 2.27 The scarred back of a slave – the result of a brutal series of whippings

The experiences of African slaves in the Americas varied according to when they were transported, what skills or physical attributes they had, where they were sent and who bought them. The majority of slaves brought to the southern states of North America and the West Indies worked on plantations and farms. They were given new names and usually went by the surnames of their masters. They worked long hours in the cotton, sugar or tobacco fields, and lived in simple huts with few comforts. Slaves also worked in the house and tended animals and vegetable patches. Female slaves were often at the mercy of male members of the household, and the illegitimate children of these masters were also born into slavery.

Slaves who tried to escape were severely punished. 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.

Although there were some kind masters, slaves were always considered to be property, not human beings, under US law. For example:

- Under the law, slaves could be bought and sold by their owners and separated from their families.
- Slaves were not allowed to own property of their own, and were not allowed to leave their master's land without permission.
- Laws were passed that made it illegal for slaves to learn to read or write.

- Slaves were not allowed to be out after dark or join with groups of other slaves, except for supervised work or in church.
- Slaves were never allowed to hit or challenge a white person, but a white person could kill a slave while punishing them without breaking the law.
- The slave owners attempted to wipe out any memory the slaves had of their African heritage.

There were exceptions, however. Some slave owners taught their slaves to read and write. Many slaves managed to preserve memories of their African heritage, parts of their traditional languages and stories from their past. There were also slave owners who would never sell or separate families, and other slave owners who set their slaves free when the slaves reached retirement age.

APPLY 2.8

- 1 Why do you think a law was created to make it illegal to teach slaves to read and write? Discuss as a class.
- 2 In 1948, the United Nations passed a Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Go to the website of the United Nations and examine this declaration. Compare the rights of slaves with what the modern world accepts as being essential for all people.
- 3 Use the information provided in this section (together with your own research) to create an audio-visual presentation showing what conditions were like for slaves being transported on slave ships. Your presentation should feature images, text and music and be 3–5 minutes in length.

EXTEND 2.4

William Wilberforce is famous for leading the opposition to the slave trade in Britain.

- 1 Conduct research to find out about William Wilberforce's background. Do you think his background influenced his attitude about slavery? Give reasons for your response.
- 2 What evidence is there that Wilberforce polarised the British (made them take sides)? Find two sources that demonstrate different perspectives/opinions about Wilberforce.
- 3 Do you think that William Wilberforce deserves to be called a hero? Explain your answer.
- 4 What evidence have you found that contests the view of Wilberforce as a hero?



Source 2.28 William Wilberforce

REVIEW 2.6

- 1 Describe the way in which African slaves were captured at the height of the African slave trade.
- 2 Outline the legal rights of slaves under American law during the years of the slave trade.
- 3 Select any one of the sources used in this section and describe how it has helped you understand the experiences of slaves in this period.

THE EXPERIENCES OF CONVICTS

Although conditions for convicts being transported during this period were not generally as cramped as they were for slaves, conditions were still extremely harsh. Like slaves, convicts spent most of the voyage restrained below deck. The majority of convicts transported on board the First Fleet were in reasonable condition when they arrived in New South Wales in 1788, although they must have been stunned at the new environment they found themselves in. The seasons were reversed and the landscape was unlike anything they had ever experienced before.

Later convict arrivals had a worse experience on the journey over. The **Second Fleet** sailed from Britain in June 1789, and conditions for convicts in these ships were appalling. Cruel punishments carried out by captains and crew, lack of food rations and diseases such as scurvy, dysentery and typhoid all combined to make the journey a horrendous experience. On top of this, one ship, the *Guardian*, struck ice and couldn't complete the journey. About 25 per cent of the 1250 male convicts in the Second Fleet died on the journey, and many died soon after arrival. This compared with a less than 3 per cent death rate on the First Fleet. The only exception was the *Lady Juliana* – the first transport ship to carry only female convicts.

On the Second Fleet's return to Britain, stories of convict suffering led to legal action against some of the seamen and contractors. This forced the authorities to review the transportation process. Ships were only despatched twice a year, at the end of May and the beginning of September to avoid the dangerous southern hemisphere winter conditions. Independent surgeons were appointed to supervise the treatment of convicts, and a bonus was paid for the safe arrival of convicts.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The arrival of the *Lady Juliana* into Port Jackson in 1790 – with an all-female cargo of 226 convicts on board – more than doubled the population of women in the new colony of New South Wales.

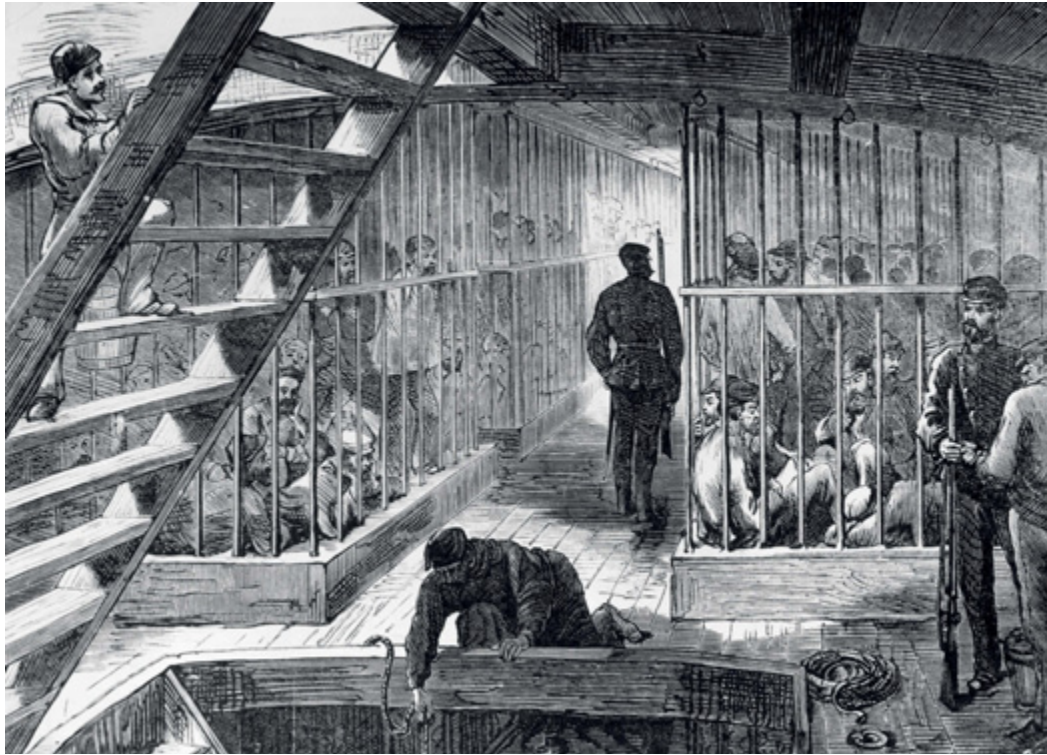
SOURCE STUDY

Conditions and punishments on convict ships

Source 2.29

We soon found out that we had a troublesome cargo ... as I may say more noise than danger. When any of them, such as Nance Ferrel [Elizabeth Farrell] ... became very troublesome we confined them to the hold and put on the hatch ... This, we were soon convinced, had no effect as they became in turns outrageous, on purpose to be confined ... I, as steward, found it out by accident ... in the hold I came upon a hogshead [cask] of bottled porter [dark beer] with ... empty bottles in it ... We were forced to change the manner of punishing them ... I was ... to take a flour barrel and cut a hole in the top for their head and one on each side for their arms. This we called a wooden jacket. Next morning, Nance Ferrel, as usual, came to the door of the cabin and began to abuse the agent and captain ... to her mortification the jacket was produced, and ... two men ... put it on ... She could only walk or stand ... she began to get weary and begged to be released ... but in a few days was as bad as ever ... We were forced to tie her up like a man, and give her one dozen with the cat-o'-nine-tails ...

An account by John Nicol, steward on the *Lady Juliana*, in *John Nicol, Life and Adventures, 1776–1801*, Text Publishing, 1997, pp. 122–124



Source 2.30 An engraving depicting conditions of a convict ship



Source 2.31 A 19th-century illustration depicting the harsh punishment given out to convicts while being transported from Britain to Australia. It shows a prisoner who has been flogged until his back is raw, suffering a brine (salt water) bath while his back is scrubbed with a broom.

INTERPRET 2.4

- 1 Explain what the Sources 2.29 to 2.31 have in common.
- 2 How can these sources help you to understand the attitude of authorities towards convicts at this time?
- 3 Outline the impact the treatment shown in these sources could have on the attitude of convicts when they arrived in Australia.
- 4 What is John Nicol's 'troublesome cargo'? What does he mean when he describes it as 'more noise than danger'?
- 5 Which source do you think is the most useful and reliable for helping a historian understand the way convicts were treated during the trip to Australia? Explain your response.

REVIEW 2.7

- 1 Compare the conditions that slaves and convicts had to endure during their transportation. What are the main similarities? What are the main differences?
- 2 Using the statistics provided, identify the approximate number of male convicts who died on the Second Fleet. What percentage was this of the total?
- 3 What were the main diseases that convicts suffered from during the journey to Australia?
- 4 Outline the arguments for and against punishment being so severe on the convict ships.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The *Great Britain* was the first steam-powered, iron-hulled, ocean-going ship. Over the years, it carried more than 15 000 immigrants to Australia. On a trip from England to Melbourne in 1861, it took on board 550 chickens, 250 ducks, 150 sheep, 55 turkeys and geese and 30 pigs to feed the 750 passengers and 130 crew.

THE EXPERIENCE OF FREE SETTLERS

Free settlers emigrating to Australia from Britain during much of the 19th century travelled in wooden sailing ships known as clippers (fast sailing ships). The journey from Britain to Australia generally took four months if winds were favourable.

Steerage passengers were those travelling on the cheapest tickets. They did not have their own cabins, but were accommodated in the areas originally designed to be cargo holds. These were usually on the lowest deck, below the water line. In these areas there was little light or ventilation. During bad weather, hatches would be closed, which meant that steerage passengers would find themselves confined below. There was no separate dining area, and meals were brought from the galley (kitchen) to a common space (see Source 2.33). Under these conditions, people often became sick or even died as a result of poor hygiene and infectious diseases.

Conditions improved for steerage passengers as new ships were built, and steam-powered, iron-hulled ships were introduced. In the late 19th century, ocean-going steamships carried the majority of settlers to Australia from this time. They were much more spacious than the earlier clippers and had grand saloons for first-class passengers. Some steamships even provided cabins and dining saloons for the steerage class.

SOURCE STUDY

Experiences of settlers – journey and arrival

Source 2.32

Of the persons embarked at Dundee, there were 79 married couples, three single men and eight single women, and 150 children of all ages. Three adults have died, one of fever, occasioned by exposure to the hot sun at St. Jago, one of malignant scarlet fever, and lately one of typhus. Twenty-three children have died of various diseases, but mostly of affections of the bowels, arising from unsuitable food ... she is an old ship, not particularly leaky ... She was the reverse of comfortable in her 'tween decks, being encumbered with luggage to such a degree, that in bad weather, when most persons were below, it was difficult to pass from one end of the ship to the other. The provisions and water were wholesome, and served in sufficient quantities. I had the usual medical comforts supplied to convict ships ... The emigrants were almost invariably quiet and orderly ... I had no other ground of complaint than their inattention to cleanliness. An insurmountable difficulty, in preserving due cleanliness and ventilation, arose from the enormous quantity of luggage they were permitted to bring on board ...

Statement by David Thompson, Esq., RN, Surgeon Superintendent of the ship *John Barry*, with emigrants from Scotland, Immigration Report of 1837 to the British Parliament

Source 2.33

This morning a little after three o'clock, one of the passengers came down and called out land and lighthouse ahead, but he called out don't get up – What an idea, to tell us to lay in bed when Australian shores were in sight, you may imagine with what light hearts we quickly dressed and went up on deck ... With what feelings I first sighted my new country I cannot describe, suffice it is to say, they were of a mingled character, joy and sadness, first of all a feeling of sadness crept over me, as when I was out of sight of Australia I felt a kind of link still binding me to the dear ones I had left behind me in Old England, but this

morning I knew that our journey was almost terminated ... About 1/2 past 4 we saw the first Australian sunrise, first thing the sky was bathed in one mass of bright red and then changed to green and an endless variety of magnificent tints ... far different than in the manufacturing towns in Lancashire ...

Extract from the diary of 19-year-old Ally Heathcote, who migrated from England in 1874 (Museum Victoria, Immigration Museum). She and her family arrived in Melbourne on 16 November 1874 after a 52-day journey.



Source 2.34 An 1870 illustration showing British emigrants in the steerage (cheapest) class of a wooden ship gathering for a meal

EXTEND 2.5

- 1 Explain the difficulties historians could face using sources to reconstruct the life of a free settler such as Ally Heathcote, or the life of a convict or a former slave mentioned in previous units, such as Olaudah Equiano (see Source 2.23).

INTERPRET 2.5

- 1 What evidence can you find in Source 2.34 to support the understanding that steerage passengers were travelling on the cheapest tickets?
- 2 Examine David Thomson's account of the journey from Britain to Australia in Source 2.32. What does he see as the main problems facing the free settlers travelling to Australia? What solutions do you think he would recommend?
- 3 Read Source 2.33 and explain why Ally Heathcote would feel both joy and sadness as she saw the Australian coastline for the first time.
- 4 What evidence can you draw from these three sources to support the suggestion that the journey of free settlers to Australia was a happier experience than that of convicts?

REVIEW 2.8

- 1 What advances in shipbuilding allowed free settlers travelling to Australia in the late 19th century to have a more pleasant journey than those who had travelled earlier?
- 2 Select two sources of evidence provided in this section and explain how they helped you understand the experiences of free settlers travelling to Australia in the 19th century. Make a judgement about how useful and reliable these sources were in helping you reach your understanding.
- 3 Outline the major differences between the experience of convict and steerage passengers travelling to Australia in the early part of the 19th century.

2.2

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE EXPERIENCES OF SLAVES, CONVICTS AND FREE SETTLERS ON THEIR JOURNEYS?

» Investigate the main features of slavery, including transportation

- 1 Explain why Britain became involved in the slave trade. Include the main arguments for Britain's involvement in this trade. (10 marks)
- 2 Using Source 2.21, explain how the triangular trade worked. Outline why it made slavery a profitable venture for merchants and investors. (10 marks)
- 3 Describe the conditions slaves had to endure from capture in Africa through to sale in the Americas. (10 marks)
- 4 Outline the restrictions slaves had placed on their lives once they arrived in the Americas. (10 marks)

» Use sources to construct the experiences of a slave sent to the Americas, or a convict or free settler sent to Australia

- 5 Compare and contrast the experiences of slaves, convicts and free settlers. To organise your ideas, create a table with three columns in your notebook:

Slaves to the Americas	Convicts to Australia	Free settlers to Australia

- Use the sources in Section 2.2 as examples to put under each of these headings.
 - Once you have completed your table, you will have sufficient information to summarise the elements that each list has in common, as well as the major differences. (30 marks)
- 6 Outline and explain the different perspectives a slave, convict and free settler would have about their experiences. Make sure your response is supported by specific references to the sources you used in the previous question. (30 marks)

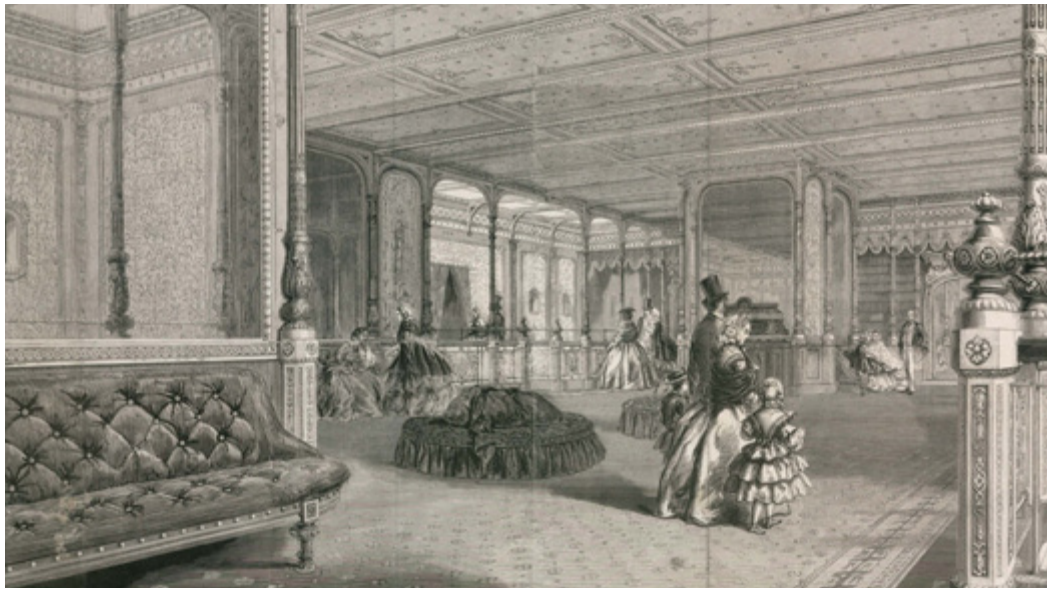
TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASK

Experiences of free settlers – the journey and life in Australia

The aim of this task is for you to become familiar with the impact social class and wealth had on settlers' experiences on their journeys, and their opportunities in Australia.

- 1 Sources 2.35 and 2.36 clearly show the differences class and wealth had on the experience of travelling to Australia in the 1850s. Examine the two sources and list the differences in travel experiences you can observe.
- 2 You now have to validate your observations by finding other sources to support your conclusions. Find at least one primary and one secondary source that support the conclusions you have drawn from Sources 2.35 and 2.36.
- 3 Now consider whether the differences that were apparent on board the ships carried into life in Australia. Sources 2.37 and 2.38 are two examples of housing in Sydney from the same period. Both sites are still standing, and are potential site studies. Conduct a digital site study of both Vaucluse House and Susannah Place, and find evidence that will help you draw conclusions about the way people would typically live in both locations. Remember that Vaucluse House also included servants.
- 4 After considering all the evidence you have gathered, argue for or against the suggestion that free settlers in 19th-century Australia simply lived the same lives they had in Britain in a better climate.



Source 2.35 An illustration c.1859 showing a steamship's grand saloon for first-class passengers



Source 2.36 An engraving from 1850 depicting the shared accommodation in a ship carrying poor needlewomen from Britain to Australia



Source 2.37 Susannah Place in The Rocks, Sydney, built in the 1840s



Source 2.38 Vauluse House in Sydney, built between 1805 and the 1860s

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

2.3

SECTION

HOW DID LIFE CHANGE FOR PEOPLE WHO MOVED TO AUSTRALIA?

Although convicts transported to Australia were forced migrants, there were opportunities for them there once they had served their sentences. Unlike convicts, free settlers to Australia could look for ways to improve their lives as soon as they arrived. Despite the opportunities, many settlers, particularly those who chose to live on the frontiers, faced huge challenges.

CONVICT LIFE IN A NEW LAND

Once convicts arrived in Australia, their future was largely dependent on their attitude. If they served their time, there were plenty of opportunities for work in a colony establishing itself on the other side of the world. Skills in such areas as building and food preparation ensured a bright future. The overall experiences and way of life of many convicts transported to Australia were positive. The climate, food and living conditions would have been superior to what they would have experienced in Britain. In addition, their new home offered real opportunities for a better life in the future, with the chance to own their own land. These opportunities were increasingly limited for poorer, working-class people in Britain.

Varied experiences

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 (groups of prisoners forced to work on public projects, and sometimes all chained together in 'chain gangs' to prevent escapes), to clear land and build roads, bridges and houses (see Source 2.39).



Source 2.39 An illustration of a government jail gang in Sydney, 1830

Convicts were also assigned to work for free settlers, officials or soldiers. They worked on farms or as labourers in private businesses such as breweries, brickworks, saddleries or blacksmiths. The treatment of assigned convicts depended on the nature of their master. Most were harsh and demanding, but some also showed compassion and fairness, teaching assigned convicts skills that would assist them once they had served their terms.

Female convicts were sent to institutions known as female factories (female-only workhouses similar to prisons) while waiting to be assigned work with a free settler. They were also sent to female factories as a punishment for any offences committed while in the colony. Female convicts who were about to give birth or had very young children would also be housed in female factories. There they were given duties such as washing clothes in the laundry, needlework and ropemaking.

Assigned convicts

SOURCE STUDY

Source 2.40

Mr Robert Arlack belonged to a class at that time ... who looked solely upon their assigned servants or government men as machines for getting money, and who, with this view worked them most unmercifully ... In fact, they considered convicts to be only a more expensive kind of labouring cattle ... they never thought of giving these unfortunate wretches a single ounce of any nourishment they could possibly avoid ...

Extract from James Tucker, *Ralph Rashleigh*, 1845 (reprinted in 1952 by Angus & Robertson)

Source 2.41

The overseer rises at day break, and rings a bell, which is affixed to a tree, as a signal for the men to proceed to their labour ... The bell is rung again at eight o'clock, when the men assemble for breakfast, for which they are allowed one hour; they again return to their labour till one o'clock, when they have an hour for dinner, and they afterwards labour from two till sunset.

Extract describing convicts' daily routine on Dunmore Station, from *An Historical and Statistical Account of New South Wales as a Penal Settlement and as a British Colony*, John Dunmore Lang, 2nd edn, 1837

Source 2.42

I am happy to inform you that I am now very comfortably situated within a mile of Hobart Town ... As to my living, I find it better than ever I expected, thank God, I want for nothing in that respect. As for tea and sugar, I could almost swim in it.

Extract from a letter by convict Richard Dillingham to his parents, in Harley Forster (ed.), *The Dillingham Convict Letters*, Cypress Books, 1970

INTERPRET 2.6

- 1 Identify the origin of each of the sources provided here and examine the reference information. On the basis of this information only, how reliable do you think each is?
- 2 What can you learn about the lives of assigned convicts from these sources?
- 3 How would you explain the range of attitudes and experiences of the people quoted?
- 4 What additional research would you need to carry out in order to gain a clearer picture of the treatment of assigned convicts?

Places of secondary punishment

Many convicts sent to the Australian colonies in the 19th century could suffer brutal treatment from jailers and prison guards. Convicts who re-offended while serving their original sentences were dealt with most harshly by being sent to places of secondary punishment. The Coal River settlement (later known as Newcastle, New South Wales), Norfolk Island (in the Pacific Ocean, 1600 kilometres east of Sydney) and Macquarie Harbour (Tasmania) were all established to deal with these offenders. Norfolk Island was the harshest and was reserved for the 'absolute worst' convicts. The degrading treatment convicts received there was designed to punish rather than reform, as a warning to convicts on the mainland.

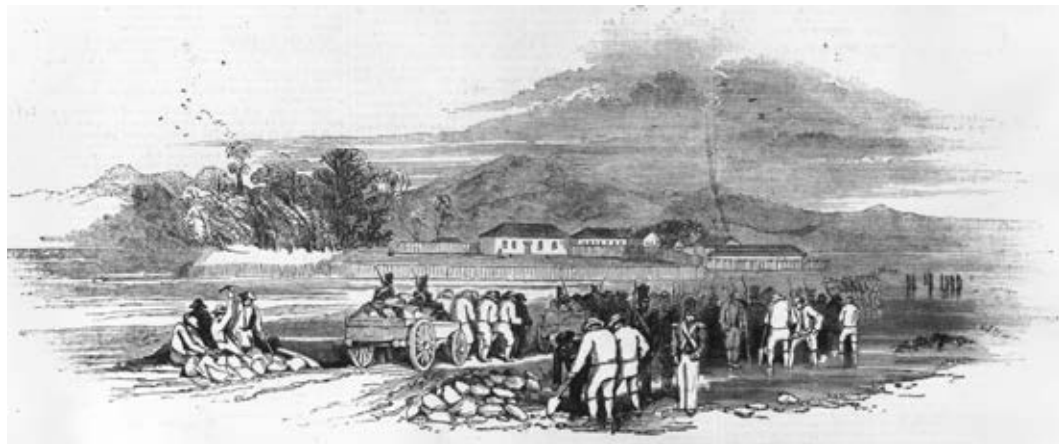
SOURCE STUDY

Convict life on Norfolk Island

Source 2.43

100 lashes: For saying 'O My God' while on the chain for Mutiny [rebellion]
100 lashes: Smiling while on the chain
50 lashes: Getting a light to smoke
200 lashes: Insolence to a soldier
100 lashes: Striking an overseer [work boss] who pushed him
8 months' solitary confinement, on the chain: Refusing to work
3 months' ditto: Disobedience of orders
3 months' Gaol: Being a short distance from the settlement
100 lashes before all hands in the Gaol: Insolence to a sentry [soldier]
100 lashes: a song [presumably one of the Irish 'treason songs']
50 lashes: Asking gaoler [jailer] for a chew of tobacco
100 lashes: Neglect of work

Punishment record of convict William Riley during two years in heavy irons after a convict mutiny on Norfolk Island, in Robert Hughes, *The Fatal Shore*, Collins Harvill 1987 p. 480



Source 2.44 An artist's impression of convicts at work on Norfolk Island

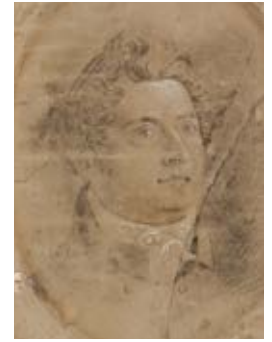
INTERPRET 2.7

- 1 Carefully examine Sources 2.43 and 2.44. How many of the situations mentioned in Source 2.43 have the potential to be applied to the convicts shown in Source 2.44?
- 2 How many lashes did William Riley receive as punishment?
- 3 Which of these sources provides the best evidence for a historian arguing that conditions on Norfolk Island were cruel and inhuman? Justify your response.

Emancipated convicts and expirees

Convicts in the Australian colonies who were good workers and did not reoffend could be rewarded in a number of ways. Those who showed that they could be trusted with some limited freedoms were granted a 'Ticket of Leave'. This allowed them the freedom to work for pay in a specified area, but they were not permitted to leave the area. Other convicts who were especially well behaved could have their sentences reduced and be emancipated (set free). These people were known as **emancipists**. Convicts who served the full term of their sentence without reoffending were also set free. These people became known as **expirees**.

Convicts played an important role in the development of Australia. In most cases, their labour in towns and on farms went unnoticed or unacknowledged. However, some ex-convicts went on to take up significant positions in colonial society after their release. Well-known ex-convicts include Francis Greenway (architect; see Source 2.45), James Blackburn (engineer), William Bland (surgeon), John Davies (journalist and publisher), William Field (pastoralist and businessman), Simeon Lord (merchant and magistrate), Mary Reibey (businesswoman; see Source 2.46), Robert Sidaway (theatre organiser), Samuel Terry (merchant) and D'Arcy Wentworth (surgeon and pastoralist; see Source 2.47).



Source 2.45 Portrait of Francis Greenway



Source 2.46 Portrait of Mary Reibey



Source 2.47 Portrait of D'Arcy Wentworth. There is some dispute as to whether D'Arcy Wentworth should be described as a convict because he actually volunteered to go to Botany Bay just before being sentenced for highway robbery.

APPLY 2.9

- 1 Conduct research on the Internet to gather evidence that will help you to decide whether William Charles Wentworth (son of D'Arcy Wentworth) can be described as a significant individual in Australian history. Write a 100-word paragraph summarising your findings and stating your position.
- 2 Select one male and one female convict mentioned in the text or in the list below and conduct research to investigate their lives and achievements. Useful weblinks to help you in your research into the experiences of individual convicts can be found in the [obook](#).

Francis Greenway

John 'Red' Kelly

Alexander Pearce

William Redfern

Mary Wade

Mary Bryant

Write a 100-word informative text for each that describes their experiences as convicts, and how their lives changed as a result of being transported. Include relevant sources that you have evaluated for their reliability and accuracy.

EXTEND 2.6

- 1 Discuss the similarities and differences between convicts and slaves in a 250-word written response. Use information from this chapter, together with additional research, to compare these groups of people in terms of their treatment and status.

REVIEW 2.9

- 1 List the major changes that convicts would have been forced to make when they first arrived in Australia.
- 2 List some of the tasks convicts could expect to be given when they arrived in Australia.
- 3 Explain the term 'place of secondary punishment'. Provide the names of three places that were set up for this purpose.
- 4 Define the terms 'Ticket of Leave', 'emancipist' and 'expiree'.
- 5 Identify the range of opportunities that a convict could take up after serving his or her sentence.
- 6 Name a convict and explain how he or she benefited from transportation to Australia.

THE LIVES OF FREE SETTLERS IN AUSTRALIA

Settlers, squatters and selectors



Source 2.48 A 19th-century painting showing a squatter farming sheep

Early settlers in Australia came in search of a better life or to make their fortune. Some settlers had agricultural backgrounds, but others, such as the military officers who were given large land grants, had no farming experience.

Squatters were settlers who cleared stretches of land and occupied them with their sheep and cattle, without official ownership. They lived on the frontiers, far away from government regulation and supplies. Squatters were often the first to explore parts of inland Australia, and chose the most fertile land to settle on. The government later gave licences

to squatters, allowing them to lease the land they already occupied. Some squatters became very wealthy and were the pioneers of Australia's wool industry.

In the 1860s, the governments of the Australian colonies sold blocks of land that they had previously leased to squatters. The new settlers who bought small areas of land to farm were known as **selectors**. Wealthy squatters purchased most of the fertile land they had cleared and worked, and selectors were often left with the poorest farming land without easy access to water.

The life of settlers in Australia could be harsh. Even with the help of convict labour, it could take years to clear their land of trees and establish their crops and livestock. Food was scarce, and settlers initially lived in basic bark shelters, or built 'wattle and daub' huts made of tree branches and clay.

APPLY 2.10

- 1 Discuss the ethics of governments selling land they had previously licenced to squatters. Do you think the Australian government would be able to do this today?

SOURCE STUDY

The lives of early Australian settlers

Source 2.49

... the selector's ... stock of ready money is usually exhausted by the time he has ringed and felled a few trees upon the site of his future homestead, erected a hut of slabs and bark, furnished it with a trestle bed and blankets, a rudely-constructed table and bench, a few cooking utensils, an axe, a spade, a crosscut saw, and a supply of flour, tea and sugar ... and when he has broken up a few perches of land and put in his first crop, he is not unfrequently compelled to seek for work in the neighbourhood at fencing or road-making, in order to maintain himself until the 'kindly earth' shall have yielded him her increase [produce a crop] ... In some cases the free-selector, who is fortunate enough to be the possessor of a horse and to be quick and dextrous [skilled] in the use of the shears, sets out in the beginning of August for the woolsheds in the south of Queensland, or in the north of New South Wales, to fulfil a yearly engagement at sheep-shearing ... returning in time to gather

in his own crops, and with cheques in his pocket representing at least a hundred pounds ... He is thus enabled to purchase a few head of stock or a better description of plough, to build a more commodious [spacious] hut, and to supply the wife and children, for whom he has been making a home in the bush, with such articles of wearing apparel [clothes] as they may stand in need. There is plenty of hard work and very little recreation in such a life ...

Descriptive sketch of Victoria c. 1860, *Picturesque Atlas of Australasia*, 1886

Source 2.50

Each stockman's hut stood by itself in a clearing, leagues distant [miles away] from any other dwelling, and as far as might be from the nearest scrub, in the thickets of which the Blacks could always find an unassailable stronghold.

The settler depended for safety upon the keenness of his hearing, the excellence of his carbine [rifle], and the Blacks' superstitious dread of darkness, which makes them averse to leaving their camp except on moonlight nights, or with an illumination of burning firesticks.

Extract from Rosa Praed, *Australian Life: Black and White*, 1885

Source 2.51

Then there was a garden, fenced in with hurdles, over which our tame kangaroo took his daily constitutional [walk]; but nothing grew in it except pumpkins and fat-hen [a type of weed]. Well for us that they did flourish, for we lived on pumpkins and mutton for three months, during which time the drays were delayed by flooded creeks, and the store was empty of flour, tea, sugar, and all other groceries.

Description of life on *Naraigin*, a sheep station 300 km from Brisbane, c. 1850s, in Rosa Praed, *Australian Life: Black and White*, 1885



Source 2.52 A settler family's bark house c.1870, New South Wales

INTERPRET 2.8

- 1 Identify information in Sources 2.49, 2.51 and 2.52 that is confirmed in Source 2.50. Is there any reason to regard one source as more reliable than any others?
- 2 Is there evidence in any of the sources that they were created by an actual squatter? Does this affect their reliability?
- 3 Explain how these sources can be used to provide evidence to support the contention that the life of settlers could be harsh.

The gold rush in Australia

STRANGE BUT TRUE

There had been reports of gold discoveries in Australia before 1851. However, the New South Wales government had been unwilling to make these finds public, because they did not want criminals thinking that transportation would give them free passage to a place where they could get rich. They changed this view after seeing how the 1848 gold rush helped to develop California.

The discovery of gold at a sawmill in California in 1848 sparked a gold rush that led to the spectacular growth of the west coast of the United States. As people flooded to the goldfields, San Francisco was transformed from a city of 1000 people in 1848 to more than 25 000 people by the end of 1849. Edward Hargraves had been one of the hopefuls who had travelled there. Although he was unsuccessful at finding his fortune in California, Hargraves felt that the landscape in California was similar to the land around Bathurst, west of Sydney. It was Edward Hargraves' well-publicised discovery of gold near Bathurst in 1851 that started the gold rush in Australia.

Living conditions were hard for everyone on the Australian goldfields. In places like Bendigo, for example, around 40 000 people lived close together in tents. Water and fresh food was scarce. Garbage piled up around the diggings and toilets were simply holes dug in the ground. The unsanitary conditions and poor diet led to diseases such as dysentery and typhoid. Most **'diggers'** worked from dawn until dusk, six days a week. It is estimated that more than 80 per cent of the population on goldfields were male, as women generally remained at home with their children. Some women did brave the difficult conditions to keep the family together, but they risked death or disease from the lack of sanitation and medical care. Children under the age of five made up the majority of deaths on the goldfields.

In the early years of the gold rush, most miners were able to make reasonable returns, and alluvial gold washed up in creek and river beds was relatively easy to find. By the 1850s, much of the alluvial gold had already been found, and miners had to dig mine shafts to find reef gold many metres below the surface. All miners had to pay a licence fee, which was bitterly resented. It became one of the factors that contributed to the Eureka rebellion in 1854 (see Section 2.4).



Source 2.53 Paintings like this one helped to create the legend of Hargraves as the discoverer of gold in Australia.



Source 2.54 Miners near a mine shaft in the Gulgong or Hill End area, New South Wales c.1870

REVIEW 2.10

- 1 Outline the differences between a squatter and a selector.
- 2 Create a table outlining the main arguments for and against making the journey to Australia as a free settler. Based on your list, do you think you would have decided to make the journey?
- 3 When and why did the Australian gold rush begin?
- 4 What made conditions on the goldfields so harsh?
- 5 Which group made up the majority of deaths on the goldfields?

THE IMPACT OF CONVICTS AND SETTLERS ON INDIGENOUS PEOPLES

The settlement of Australia brought together two very different cultures. For the Europeans, a successful living was dependent on ownership of land, cultivation of the soil, building houses and fences, and outward demonstrations of progress. The Indigenous peoples in Australia had no concept of private ownership or of demonstrating ownership with boundaries and fences. They believed that they belonged to the land, with an elaborate culture and spirituality that gave meaning to their lives.

Impact in the early years of colonisation

In the early years of settlement, Governor Phillip, the first governor of New South Wales, was instructed to treat the Indigenous people kindly and to share with them all the 'benefits of white civilisation'. However, there was no recognition of Indigenous rights to the land, and little attempt to understand Indigenous culture. Well-meaning settlers gave the local people European food and clothing, but also alcohol and tobacco which were bad for their health. Gradually the Indigenous people became dependent on European goods and lost many of their hunting and food-gathering skills. Over time this led to further disintegration of their culture.

One of the most devastating impacts of European **colonisation** was disease. The Indigenous peoples had no resistance to serious diseases such as smallpox and cholera. Even illnesses such as influenza, the common cold, measles and chickenpox proved fatal. Aborigines were dying in their thousands, while the number of newborn babies was declining year by year.

Pemulwuy and early resistance

A Bidjigal man known as Pemulwuy led significant resistance to the early British settlement in the Sydney region. In 1790, he speared and killed Governor Phillip's gamekeeper (someone employed to protect the animals on private land), and by 1792, he was leading the resistance in the Parramatta area to the west of Sydney. He would often raid British camps for food or in retaliation for ill-treatment of Aborigines. In 1797, he led a raid on the government farm at Toongabbie. Settlers retaliated by sending a hunting party after Pemulwuy. They shot him seven times. He was captured and placed in hospital, but 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. Pemulwuy became celebrated as the leader of resistance among Aboriginal people in the Sydney region. As a result, Pemulwuy's campaign against the British was so effective that on 1 May 1801 Governor King issued an order that Aborigines near Parramatta, Georges River and Prospect could be shot on sight. Pemulwuy himself was shot dead the following year. His head is rumoured to have been removed and sent to Britain. The return of Aboriginal remains to Australia has been an ongoing issue for British and Australian governments since this time.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

It has been estimated that the total population of Indigenous Australians decreased by about 90 per cent from 1788 (the time British settlers arrived) to 1850. A key reason for this devastating decline was the spread of disease against which the Aboriginal people had no resistance.



Source 2.55 Detail from the only known illustration of Pemulwuy by Samuel Neele

EXTEND 2.7

- 1 Find out what the total population of Indigenous Australians is estimated to have been in 1788. How reliable is this estimate?
- 2 If the total population had decreased by 90 per cent in 1850, how many Aboriginal people would there have been in 1850?
- 3 As a class, discuss whether Pemulwuy's story supports or contests the argument that the British settlement of Australia was an example of peaceful colonisation.

Impact of settlement on Indigenous Australians



Source 2.56 An engraving c.1820 depicting an Indigenous family at Port Jackson



Source 2.57 This photo of European settlers surrounded by Aborigines is believed to be the first photo taken in Australia. It was taken on 1 January 1855.

INTERPRET 2.9

- 1 Examine Sources 2.56 and 2.57. Source 2.57 was created 35 years after Source 2.56. List the continuities and changes you can observe in the two sources.
- 2 Do you think a photo is a more or less reliable historical source than a painting? Explain your response.
- 3 What evidence is there of traditional Indigenous lifestyles in these sources?
- 4 How could historians use these two sources?



Source 2.58 An etching c. 1860 entitled *Natives attacking shepherd's hut*

Violence on the frontier

Apart from disease, the displacement (forced removal) of Indigenous peoples from their land was a major cause of their decline. Their lifestyle appeared **nomadic** and this led many settlers to believe that they could be moved from place to place with no negative consequences. As the pastoralists and their livestock moved across the Western District and Gippsland, Aborigines were simply driven off their traditional lands. This often resulted in clashes with other Indigenous groups. 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 those they saw as invaders of their land. Cut off from their traditional sources of food, they killed sheep and cattle for food and some also attacked white property. These attacks often led to retaliation by white settlers.

Contestability on the extent of violence

The extent of violence towards Indigenous Australians has caused considerable controversy among historians. Some argue that violence and massacres were widespread, while others suggest that these claims have been exaggerated. Studies have estimated that around 1000 Indigenous people died as a result of violent attacks involving European settlers. Although the numbers are contested, it is generally accepted that considerably more Aborigines were killed by whites than there were whites killed by Aborigines.

It is difficult for historians to know the whole truth about these violent clashes. They took place in remote areas and massacres were often denied, or numbers of deaths were under-reported. It was illegal to attack Aboriginal people and whites found to have killed them could be tried for murder. At Myall Creek, New South Wales, in June 1838, 12 stockmen murdered 28 Aboriginal people, many of them women, children and the elderly. This event has two distinctions. It is one of the worst examples of a brutal and unprovoked attack on Aborigines. It is also the only case in which white men were found guilty and punished for violence against Aboriginal people. Seven men were convicted and hanged for the events at Myall Creek.

The situation at Federation

By 1900, the majority of people of Aboriginal descent were living on **reserves**, **protectorates** or **missions**. In Queensland, the Northern Territory and Western Australia, some Aborigines were living between the two cultures – working on cattle properties but still camping around waterholes and living off the land. They were able to maintain some links to their traditional culture and way of life. There were also Aborigines living on the fringes of towns and cities. Many of them did not feel that they belonged to either culture.

Overall, the Indigenous people had poorer health, shorter life spans, lower educational levels and a greater likelihood of imprisonment than the white population of Australia. Their place on the margins of the newly formed nation was clearly illustrated through the Constitution. The new federal government was given no power to legislate over Aboriginal matters and Aborigines were not to be counted in the **census**. Furthermore, under the Franchise Act of 1902, Aborigines were denied the right to vote in federal elections even though many had been able to vote in the colonies before 1900.

Waves of immigration from 1788 had helped to make Australia one of the most prosperous, free and democratic nations in the world by 1900. Unfortunately, the country's original inhabitants were denied full participation in the benefits of this bountiful land.

REVIEW 2.11

- 1 Outline the major differences between Indigenous Australians and European settlers in terms of their attitudes to the land and way of life.
- 2 What were the major things that white settlers introduced to Aborigines in the first years of British settlement? Explain the impact they had.
- 3 Who led Aboriginal resistance to the British in the Sydney area in the early years of European settlement?
- 4 Outline the main consequences of Indigenous Australians being displaced from their traditional lands.
- 5 Explain the significance of Myall Creek as a historical site.
- 6 Outline the legal, political and social position of Indigenous Australians at the time of Federation.

2.3

CHECKPOINT

HOW DID LIFE CHANGE FOR PEOPLE WHO MOVED TO AUSTRALIA?

» Investigate and report on the changing way of life of convicts, emancipists or free settlers

- 1 Explain the difference between a convict, an emancipist and a free settler. (3 marks)
- 2 Outline the difference between the way convicts and free settlers were treated on arrival in Australia. (7 marks)
- 3 Identify a convict who became a successful emancipist and evaluate their contribution to Australia. (20 marks)
- 4 Outline the way historical sources can help us to understand the way of life free settlers experienced on the frontier. In your response, ensure that you have referred to at least three specific sources. (10 marks)
- 5 Explain the disadvantages of life on the goldfields for the thousands of settlers who went to seek their fortune there. (10 marks)

» Describe the impact that convicts and free settlers had on Indigenous peoples

- 6 Describe the impact of British settlement on the Aboriginal people of the Sydney region during the early years of settlement. What evidence can you use to support your answer? (10 marks)
- 7 Explain how the arrival of free settlers and squatters on the frontier affected Indigenous Australians in those areas. (10 marks)
- 8 Argue for or against the suggestion that the gold rush in Australia improved lives and opportunities of Indigenous Australians. (10 marks)
- 9 Outline the situation for Indigenous Australians at the time of Federation. Discuss the positive and negative impacts convicts and free settlers had on Indigenous Australians up to that time. (20 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASKS

Investigate a reserve, protectorate or mission

- 1 In pairs or small groups, select a specific reserve, protectorate or mission to research.
 - a Show its location on a map and investigate any evidence of the attitude of British settlers towards Indigenous Australians there and the way in which they treated them.
 - b Come to a conclusion about whether the Aboriginal inhabitants benefited from the situation. Discuss your findings as a class.



Source 2.59 Blankets are distributed to Aborigines at a mission in New South Wales, c.1888

Georgiana McCrae – a typical Australian?

Read the brief biography of Georgiana McCrae provided in Source 2.60, then complete the following activities.

- 1 Georgiana McCrae was a free settler who journeyed to Australia in the 19th century. As a class break the biography into a timeline of the main achievements and events of her life.

- 2 Add any details about her life (and the conditions she lived in) to the different events on the class timeline.
- 3 In small groups, select one of these events for further research. Research that event and answer the question: Was McCrae's experience typical of free settlers in Australia at that time?
- 4 Come back together as a class and discuss whether Georgiana McCrae was a 'significant Australian'.

Source 2.60

Georgiana McCrae was a daughter of the Duke of Gordon. In Britain she was recognised as an excellent painter and in 1820, at the age of 16, she won a silver medal from the Royal Society of Arts for her work.

In 1830, Georgiana married Andrew McCrae, a lawyer ... In 1838, he booked passage to Australia, which he believed offered huge opportunities. Georgiana, unable to travel at that time due to illness, is said to have raised the funds to purchase passage by painting miniatures ... She and her children landed at Port Phillip on 1 March 1841. When Georgiana arrived in Melbourne the settlement was only five years old and was a virtual shanty town.

The cottage her husband had rented in Lonsdale Street was nothing like Gordon Castle, where Georgiana had lived in her youth. The cottage had an outdoor toilet, mud and animal faeces underfoot and a hole in the roof for the cooking fire smoke to escape. The privileged life she had led as a member of the English upper class was well and truly over.

In February 1842 they moved to Mayfield, on the Yarra River ... designed by her and described as 'one of the first superior houses erected in the Colony'. In 1843, Andrew took up the 'Arthur's Seat' run near Dromana, and there built a house in which the family lived from 1845 to 1851. Georgiana is said to have welcomed local Aboriginal people when they passed through each year. Georgiana was acknowledged by other runholders for being as useful as a drover among cattle and horses, and was renowned as a 'medicine woman'.

Although her husband moved about, including going to the goldfields, Georgiana remained in Melbourne. There she died in 1890 at the age of 85.

Biographical information about Georgiana McCrae from the Australian Government website



Source 2.61 A self-portrait of Georgiana McCrae

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

2.4

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE SHORT- AND LONG-TERM IMPACTS OF THE MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES?

Huge increases in the numbers of people moving around the world between 1750 and 1901 had wide-reaching effects in both the short and long term. In this section, we will briefly examine the effects that these movements had on the development of societies in North America and Australia. There are a number of similarities between the USA and Australia during this period. Both were expanding from British colonies to become independent countries, and their development was heavily reliant on the influence and hard work of people from foreign places.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE TRANSATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE

In the short term, the slave trade made European and American merchants extremely rich and helped establish the sugar, tobacco and cotton industries in North America. However, over the course of the 19th century, as the Industrial Revolution spread, machines did more and more of the work that had been previously done by hand. This made slave labour less important and slaves less valuable.

Consequences of slavery for the United States

An immediate and enduring consequence of the transportation of African slaves to the Americas is the cultural and ethnic make-up of populations in the United States, and countries across the Caribbean and South America, such as Cuba and Brazil. In each of these countries there are high percentages of people of African descent.

The American Civil War

The United States became the destination for 645 000 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. In 1860, 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 2.63).

Lincoln's election led to the secession (withdrawal) of 11 southern slave states from the Union. 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 for four years and 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 political make-up of the modern United States was forged by what President Abraham Lincoln called the second American Revolution that came with the Union victory in the Civil War.



Source 2.62 An artist's impression of one of the bloody battles of the American Civil War

Slavery divides the United States

Source 2.63

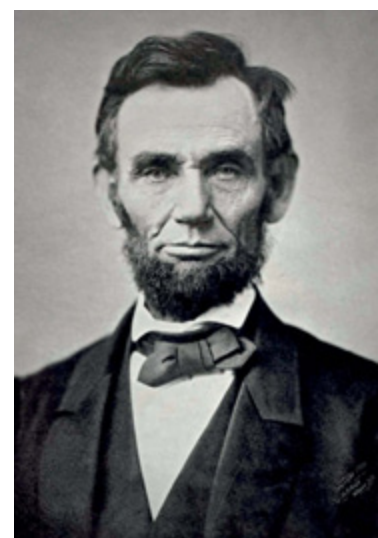
A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure, permanently, half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved – I do not expect the house to fall – but I do expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other. Either 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

INTERPRET 2.10

- 1 Can you identify Lincoln's perspective on slavery from Source 2.63? Give reasons for your answer.
- 2 What does Lincoln identify as the cause of the United States being a 'house divided'?
- 3 What is the purpose of this speech? What is the significance of the date of the speech?

SOURCE STUDY



Source 2.64 Abraham Lincoln

Contribution of the descendants of African slaves

Over the decades, most descendants of the transported slaves also suffered physical and emotional damage, even after the end of slavery in 1865. Nevertheless, their contribution



Source 2.65 The transportation of African slaves to the Americas has had an impact on the cultural and ethnic make-up of modern societies there.

to the nation that became their home was significant, both economically and culturally. 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 their access to education and other opportunities was poor, some black Americans played leading roles in medicine, business, writing, invention and music during this period. By the turn of the 20th century, the movements that would see African Americans strive for equality were beginning.

EXTEND 2.8

- 1 Research the cultural and ethnic backgrounds of the populations of the United States, Cuba and Jamaica today. What percentage of each of these populations are the descendants of African slaves?

APPLY 2.11

- 1 The following people were well-known African Americans:
 - Dr Daniel Williams (surgeon)
 - Frances Ellen Watkins Harper (poet and writer)
 - Jan Matzeliger (inventor)
 - Ida B Wells (journalist and newspaper editor)
 - Dr WEB Du Bois (historian and sociologist)
 - Mary McLeod Bethune (teacher)
 - a Conduct research on the life of one of these people and prepare a 150-word report that outlines the key contributions and achievements he or she made to American life and society. Include a photograph if one is available.
 - b Do you believe this person should be remembered as a significant historical figure? Justify your response.

Consequences of slavery for Africa

In the long term, a growing number of historians argue that a combination of the slave trade and European colonialism contributed to the under-development of many African countries. Slavery and colonialism exploited Africa's people and resources, and money and people were taken from Africa. Some of those people were potential leaders who might have made a difference for the better had they been able to stay in Africa.

The way the slave trade worked, in which Africans often captured people from other tribes and then sold them to the Europeans, also weakened the sense of unity and trust that might have developed within African communities. Unity, trust and political stability are important to economic development. The slave trade was also an easy way for some African communities to get rich. They were therefore less inclined to look for other ways to generate an income and create wealth.

REVIEW 2.12

- 1 Explain the differences between the consequences of the slave trade for:
 - Africa
 - Britain
 - North America
- 2 Outline the impact of the American Civil War on slavery in the United States of America.
- 3 Why were African Americans important to the American economy after slavery ended?

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE AUSTRALIAN NATION

Australia changed dramatically in the period between 1788 and 1901. It started as a tiny, struggling British colony on Sydney Harbour that by 1901 was a united (federated) and independent nation.

The convicts who were forced to come to Australia together with the free settlers and diggers who came here in search of new fortunes all contributed to Australia's development as a nation. Up until the 1820s, convicts were important in building infrastructure; that is, the bridges, roads and public buildings of the new colonies. As the colonies expanded inland, convicts increasingly worked for the growing numbers of free settlers. It appears that most convicts chose not to return to Britain after serving their sentences.

In 1840, transportation of convicts to New South Wales came to an end. By this time, the free populations of the colonies outnumbered the convicts. There had been growing demands among the free settlers for a say in local government and more political freedom. By 1850, there were six colonial settlements, and the cities of Sydney, Hobart, Brisbane, Perth, Adelaide and Melbourne had all been established.

After 1851, the gold migrants made an enormous contribution to the economic development of Australia. The gold wealth, coupled with the efforts of pastoralists, small farmers, merchants, manufacturers, professionals and labourers, ensured that the period from 1860 to 1890 was a time of economic boom.

The one group who suffered during this period were Indigenous Australians. The 19th century was the period of colonial expansion that destroyed their cultural links to the land. Indigenous Australians found themselves on the fringes of the new society, as their lives, values and traditional attachments were all swept aside by European 'progress'.



Source 2.66 A photograph of Sydney, taken c.1900 from the North Shore, looking across to Sydney Cove.

APPLY 2.12

- 1 Find a modern photograph showing the same area of Sydney as shown in Source 2.66. What have been the major changes in the last century?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In 1820 there were 36 000 non-Indigenous people living in New South Wales. Free settlers who were born in Britain were given the nickname 'sterlings', after the British currency (the pound sterling). By this time, around 9000 people had been born in the colony and were under the age of 12. The nickname 'currency lads and lasses' was used to refer to these children because they were the first generation of children born in the colony – where paper currency rather than pounds sterling was used.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

A livestock count in 1800 recorded 6124 sheep in the new colony. In the 1820s, Australia imported around 5000 merino sheep from Europe. These imports laid the foundations of the Australian wool industry. In 2001, Australia had approximately 111 million sheep and lambs and accounted for around 9 per cent of world sheep numbers.

Developing industries

The labour and skills of convicts and settlers cleared the land and developed Australia's agricultural industries. In particular, the wool industry became the economic backbone of the country. Australia's manufacturing industries were also developing, although by the end of our period of study in 1901, manufacturing was relatively small in scale compared to industries in Britain (see Source 2.67).

SOURCE STUDY

Australian industry around 1900

Source 2.67

The first Australian factories were based on the waterfront – repairing visiting vessels, brewing beer and making biscuits. The early industrialisation of the late 19th century led to an expansion into the fringe suburbs of the main coastal settlements, creating thousands of new jobs for boilermakers, engineers, iron founders and brickmakers. The decline in goldfields activity earlier in the century [around the 1860s] had left many English immigrants unemployed and, as was said, 'threw them into' the newly industrialised workforce and suburbs. At the



Source 2.68 A photograph taken c.1900 of Darling Harbour, Sydney. It was a transport hub where railways brought export products such as coal and wool to the docks, and rail, ships and horse-drawn vehicles carried them away for distribution around Australia. By 1905, Darling Harbour was also the site of a gasworks and coal-fired power stations.

end of the century, despite rapid industrialisation the manufacturing sector was still dominated by many smaller factories. Even in Victoria, the most industrialised colony, factories of more than fifty employees drew only half of the registered workforce. The older trades in small workshops, such as saddlemaking, coachbuilding and dressmaking, still outnumbered the new, expanding engineering trades developed by the burgeoning tram and railways industries.

Australian Manufacturing to Federation, ABS 1301.0 – Year Book Australia, 2001

INTERPRET 2.11

- 1 Explain how Sources 2.68 supports or challenges Source 2.67.
- 2 What did the earliest factories in Australia produce?
- 3 Outline the things in Source 2.68 that provide evidence that Darling Harbour was a transport hub.
- 4 Would a historian use Source 2.68 as evidence of rapid or slow change in transportation in Australia? Explain the reasons for your response.

Impact of the gold rush settlers

The discovery of gold and the consequent mass movement of people created key ingredients for the making of a modern Australia.

A major increase in population

A new wave of free settlers to Australia trebled the population in only 10 years. Although the gold migrants were still predominantly British, there was a broader range of nationalities who arrived during this period, including Chinese, Germans, Italians and Americans.

A booming economy

The added wealth and population contributed to a boom and major development in the eastern colonies. Roads, bridges, railways and impressive public buildings were a feature of the age. It was a time when Melbourne became, for a while, at least, the largest city in Australia, overtaking Sydney. The gold rush also made Melbourne the financial and banking centre of Australia well into the 20th century.

New political ideas

Those who came to Australia in search of gold brought with them a range of new progressive political ideas. There were Americans committed to democracy and republicanism, Irishmen opposed to wealthy British landholders, and European liberals who had hopes of a better world where freedom of the press, freedom of religion and the freedom to protest were available to all. Then there were the Chartists – a working-class democratic movement that called for the vote for all men over 21 and a parliament elected annually. The miners' charter linked to the famous Eureka rebellion on the Ballarat goldfield in 1854 included the Chartist's ideas. The Eureka rebellion was partly about unfair practices and taxes on the goldfields, but it also reflected growing concerns about political rights. It is suggested that the constitutions drawn up by the colonies in the 1850s were more democratic than they might have been had the Eureka Rebellion not occurred.

Nationalism and racism

The movement of thousands of Chinese to Australia during the gold rushes and the resulting anti-Chinese racism were factors that encouraged the Federation movement. It was no coincidence that the first law passed by the new Australian parliament in 1901 was the White Australia Policy, enshrined in the Immigration Restriction Act, that banned non-whites from entering Australia. One of the most remarkable features of Australian history has been the transition from a nation born, in part, out of racism to one of the world's most successful multicultural societies.

Australia's population at Federation

In the later decades of the century, more migrants poured into the Australian colonies. There was also a growing population of native-born Australians. At the time of Federation in 1901, over 77.2 per cent of the population count in Australia were Australian-born (2 908 303 people) and 22.8 per cent stated that they were born overseas (857 576 people).

REVIEW 2.13

- 1 When did convict transportation to New South Wales end?
- 2 Which was Australia's most important rural industry for much of the 19th century?
- 3 Why did Melbourne become Australia's main financial and banking centre in the second half of the 19th century?
- 4 What evidence is there that Australia was 'in part, a nation born out of racism'?



Source 2.69 The Eureka flag, raised by the goldminers as part of the famous rebellion in Ballarat in 1854. The flag became a political symbol and is historically linked to nationalism, radicalism and republicanism.

APPLY 2.13

- 1 Investigate the Eureka rebellion. As a class discuss your findings; for example, does it provide evidence of changing political interests in 19th-century Australia? What contribution did it make to Australia's national identity?

2.4

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE SHORT- AND LONG-TERM IMPACTS OF THE MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES?

» Describe the immediate and longer-term consequences of transporting African slaves to the Americas

- 1 Identify three industries that rapidly developed as a result of slavery. Explain why slaves were so crucial to this development. (5 marks)
- 2 Analyse the argument that slavery and European colonisation have had long-term negative consequences for African countries. (20 marks)
- 3 Explain how the presence of slavery helped lead to a civil war in the United States. (10 marks)
- 4 Identify examples of how African Americans were able to make positive contributions to 19th-century American society. (10 marks)

» Assess the impact of convicts and free settlers on the development of the Australian nation

- 5 Explain how Australia changed between 1788 and 1901. Use relevant sources that support your explanation. (15 marks)
- 6 Evaluate the contribution of convicts and free settlers to those changes. (20 marks)
- 7 Identify the links between free settlers becoming more numerous than convicts and the push for political changes in Australia. (10 marks)
- 8 Explain why the gold rushes made such a major contribution to Australia's economic development. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASK

Australian identity

What is a typical Australian? What values and beliefs does Australia represent? To what extent was Australian identity established in the 19th century? These are difficult questions that historians, politicians and students still argue about. This rich task is designed to help you develop your own opinion about Australia's national identity and its origins.

- 1 Discuss Sources 2.70 to 2.72, which depict 'typical Australians' in the 19th century.
 - a In what way do these figures represent 'typical Australians'?
 - b Are they relevant only to the 19th century?
 - c What characteristics do these figures typically have?
 - d What could they contribute to a sense of national identity?
 - e Who is excluded from this view of Australia?
- 2 Select an alternative type of person from 19th-century Australian life to those shown here to research. After you have finished researching, answer discussion questions a to d about your type of person.
- 3 Discuss your findings as a class. Can you agree on what constitutes a 'typical Australian' or identify agreed aspects of an Australian identity? How many of these aspects of an Australian identity have survived into 21st-century Australian society?



Source 2.70



Source 2.71



Source 2.72

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

3



Source 3.1 This machine, known as the Edison Universal Stock Ticker, was one of the earliest electronic communication devices. It transmitted information relating to the price of gold and stocks over telegraph lines from around 1870 up until 1960. Today, stock tickers such as this serve as a reminder of the early days of capitalism.

PROGRESSIVE IDEAS AND MOVEMENTS: CAPITALISM

Between 1750 and 1918, many parts of the world underwent enormous social and political transformations. Systems of government that had dominated for hundreds of years were broken down and more liberal and progressive ideas took hold. A number of progressive ideas and movements went on to have profound effects on the modern world – they included capitalism, socialism, egalitarianism, nationalism, imperialism, Darwinism and Chartism.

In this chapter we will briefly examine the most important progressive ideas and movements of the time before engaging in a detailed study of capitalism, and how it went on to shape economic and social systems around the world, including in Australia.

3.1

SECTION

- » identify key historical events, such as the Enlightenment, the American War of Independence, the French Revolution and the Industrial Revolution, that contributed to the development of a range of progressive ideas and movements
- » examine the underlying ideas associated with these historical events and describe how they influenced the development of progressive ideas and movements
 - » outline the key principles of the following progressive ideas – capitalism, socialism, egalitarianism, nationalism, imperialism, Darwinism and Chartism.

CHECKED OUT BY

3.2

SECTION

- » outline and explain the origins of capitalism
- » describe the main features of capitalism
- » identify the ideas of supporters of and opponents to capitalism and explain their differences
- » trace changes in attitude to the idea over the period

..... CHECKPOINT 2.2

3.3

SECTION

- » Assess the short- and long-term impacts of capitalism on Australia and the world
 - » discuss the relevance of the idea today

..... CHECKPOINT 2.2

PROGRESSIVE IDEAS AND MOVEMENTS – A TIMELINE

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c. 1650–1800

The 'Enlightenment' – a time when ideas based on reason rather than religion influenced the development of many countries.

1775–1776

The start of the American Revolution and the US Declaration of Independence. This Declaration embraced egalitarian ideas.

1778

With the arrival of the First Fleet at Botany Bay, British imperialism extends to Australia.

1838–1848

The Chartist Movement calls for a series of democratic reforms including the right to vote for all male adults.

1650

1750

1760

1770

1780

1790

1800

1810

1820

1789–1799
French Revolution

1760–1914
The Industrial Revolution

1650–1800
'The Enlightenment'

1775–1783
American War of Independence

c. 1750

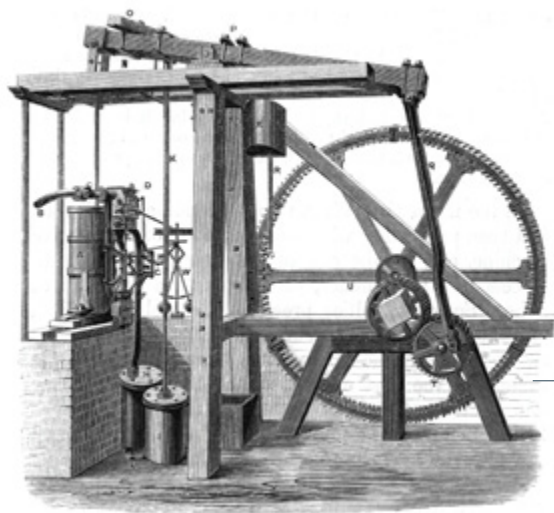
The Industrial Revolution begins in England, and continues into the 20th century.

1789

The French Revolution begins, ending the rule of a centuries-old monarchy in France.

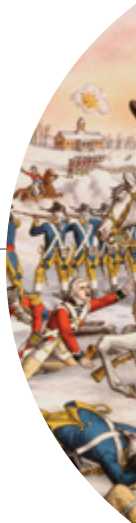
1776

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.



Source 3.2 Watt's steam engine, invented in 1776, had a significant impact on the early years of the Industrial Revolution

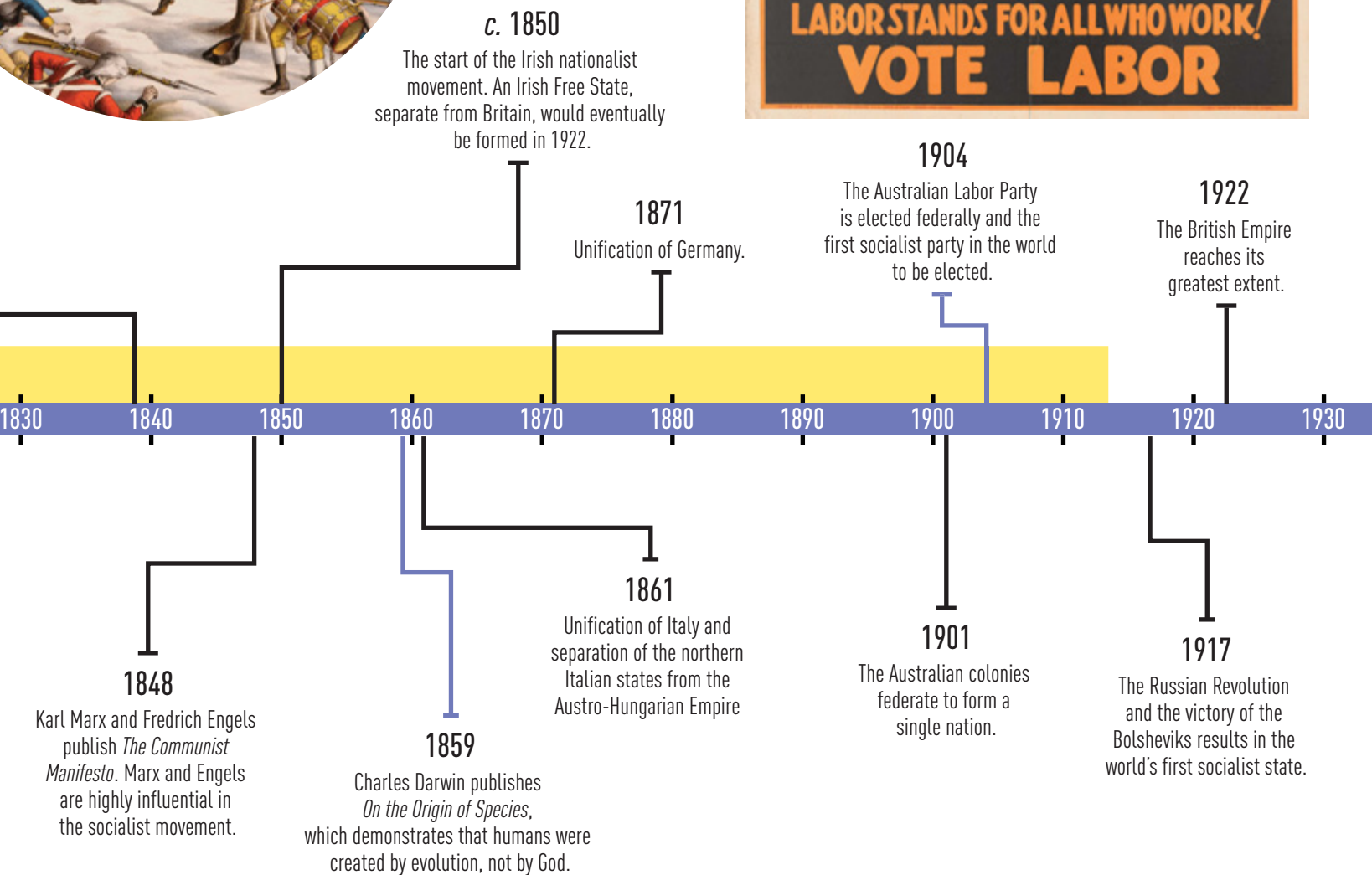
Source 3.3 *The Battle of Princeton*, painted in 1784, shows General George Washington leading his army against the British in the War of Independence on 3 January 1777.



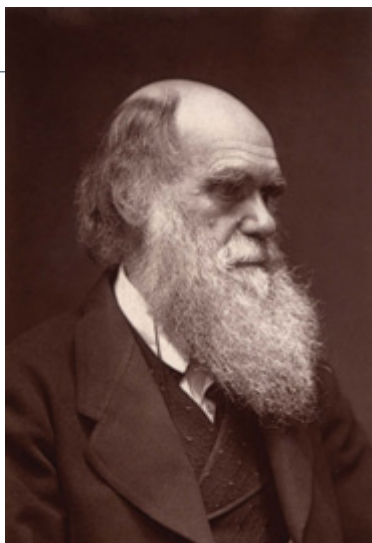


Source 3.4 The taking of the Bastille. The prison was symbol of repression for the revolutionaries

Source 3.5 An Australian Labor Party poster, c. 1928



Source 3.6 Charles Darwin



REVIEW 3.1

- 1 What was the 'Enlightenment'?
- 2 Place the Russian, American and French revolutions in chronological order.
- 3 What was the name of the first socialist party in the world to be elected to government? Where did this happen?
- 4 What evidence does the timeline provide to support the idea that this was a time when nations wanted to establish their independence?

3.1

SECTION

WHAT PROGRESSIVE IDEAS AND MOVEMENTS DEVELOPED BETWEEN 1750 AND 1918?

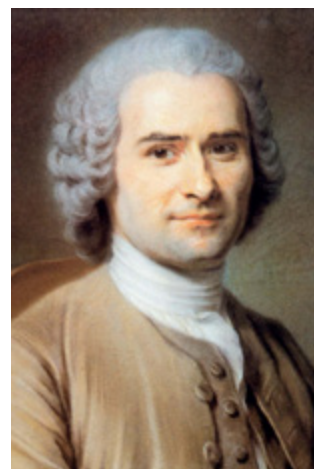
The period from 1750 to 1918 saw a number of new ideas and movements arise that challenged the ways in which societies had been organised for centuries. From the mid-17th century, philosophical ideas based on reason rather than religion dominated discussions about society. This period became known as the **Enlightenment**. It accompanied the development of scientific inquiry and rational thought, and provided the basis for many modern-day secular (non-religious) states, including Australia.

THE ENLIGHTENMENT

The Enlightenment began around 1650 and lasted about 150 years. It was an important period in history, which led to the birth of the modern world. It started with a group of thinkers questioning ideas about science, religion, government, education and society in general that had been accepted for centuries. Enlightenment thinkers such as John Locke; Voltaire; Jean-Jacques Rousseau; and Charles-Louis de Secondat, Baron de La Brède et de Montesquieu (better known as Montesquieu) contributed ideas that formed the foundations for how modern governments and societies are organised.

The ideas of happiness and progress

The pursuit of happiness and progress were important for many important thinkers during the Enlightenment. Voltaire saw the history of human society as a continuous ladder of progress and improvement. One of the results of this progress would be increased happiness.



Source 3.7 The great thinkers of the Enlightenment: Locke, Voltaire, Montesquieu and Rousseau

For John Locke, who first commented on the pursuit of happiness in 1690, happiness was linked to liberty and to the freedom of the individual. In 1776, Thomas Jefferson also saw a connection between liberty and happiness. It is for this reason that 'life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness' were enshrined (protected) as basic human rights in the United States Declaration of Independence.

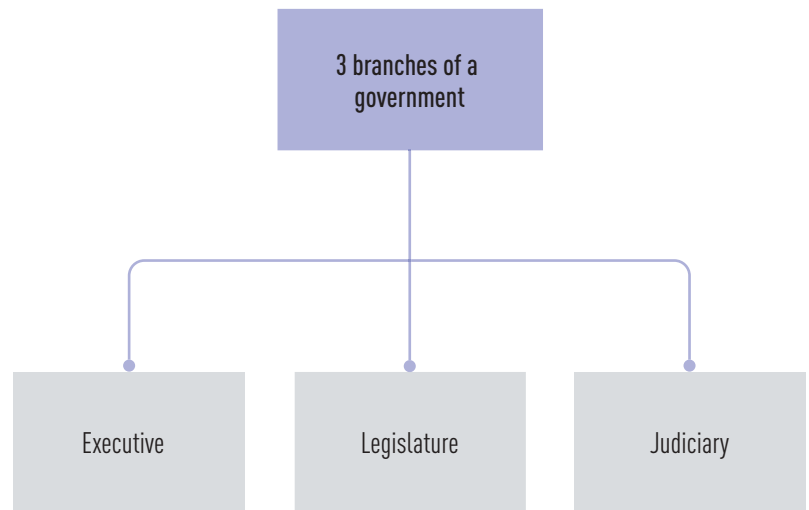
Another of the key beliefs of the Enlightenment was that people had the potential to be better. The Enlightenment therefore encouraged society to introduce reforms to tap human potential in an attempt to make both the individual and society better.

Ideas of government

One of the most influential Enlightenment writers was Jean-Jacques Rousseau. Rousseau introduced the idea of the 'social contract'. According to Rousseau, a social contract exists between the state (the rulers or lawmakers) and people who are governed by the state. Under the contract, the state has a duty to govern well and to be just (fair). In return, the people keep their part of the contract by giving up some of their natural freedoms in order to gain the protection of the state. Rousseau's ideas had a major impact on the people who overthrew the monarchy of King Louis XVI during the French Revolution of 1789. His ideas underpin the democratic French government formed after the revolution as well as many laws in France today.

Montesquieu wrote about the **separation of powers** (see Source 3.8). This separation of powers was meant to prevent any one part of the government becoming too powerful. The idea became part of the United States Constitution and is also reflected in the Australian Federal Constitution. In Australia, power is separated into three branches: the Executive (the Governor General), the Legislature (Parliament, where power is again split between the House of Representatives and the Senate) and the Judiciary (the High Court of Australia).

The optimism about making the world a better place and the belief in human potential that were central to Enlightenment thinking was reinforced by the changes that came with the Industrial Revolution. People were remaking the world. At the time, the advances in medicine, science and technology suggested that Voltaire was right when he likened all of human history to the climbing of a continuous ladder of progress.



Source 3.8 Montesquieu's idea of the separation of powers in government became a feature of many of the governments of the modern world, including the United States and Australia.

REVIEW 3.2

- 1 Identify four significant thinkers of the Enlightenment.
- 2 Explain how the United States Declaration of Independence, the US Constitution and the Australian Constitution were all influenced by the Enlightenment.
- 3 Explain what Rousseau meant by the 'social contract'.
- 4 Explain how the Enlightenment and Industrial Revolution were linked.
- 5 Outline how the Enlightenment changed ideas about the way people should be governed.

A TIME OF REVOLUTION

There were two influential 18th-century revolutions that went on to influence the development of progressive ideas and movements: 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 to put an end to the rule of the monarch. The idea of **egalitarianism** suggested that all people are born equal and therefore deserve equal rights and opportunities. The principle of egalitarianism did not fit with the unequal distribution of wealth and power held by the British monarch (in North America) and the French monarch and aristocracy. It served as a motivating factor in both revolutions.

The 18th century also brought with it a revolution of a different kind, the Industrial Revolution. At this time, advances in technology changed the way people worked and the way that society was organised. Because of the dramatic changes in working conditions and the often tense relationships between wealthy employers and their poor employees, many new and progressive ideas were introduced.

The American Revolution

The American Revolution is a historical term that refers to a number of events and developments that took place during the second half of the 18th century. Together, these events and developments combined to transform the 13 British colonies on the east coast of North America into a new republic named the United States of America.

Boston Tea Party

Before the American Revolution, the 13 colonies on the east coast of North America had been part of the larger British North America. Over time, however, the inhabitants of these 13 colonies became resentful of British rule. In particular, they were angry when the British government made decisions that affected the colonists without consulting them.

When the British government introduced the Tea Act in 1773, with the intention of providing financial assistance to the East India Company (a large British company), it effectively lowered the tax on Company tea in the colonies. The colonists, including local tea smugglers who were concerned about the effect of cheaper British tea on their profits, were resentful that their views could not be represented in British Parliament when decisions like that were made. The tea smugglers played an important role in a significant event in American history known as the Boston Tea Party. Tea smugglers, along with other colonists, dressed as Mohawk Indians and dumped a large load of the cheaper Company tea into Boston Harbor. This was a direct challenge to British control, and became a rallying point for Americans. It publicised the American demand of ‘no taxation without representation’ – meaning that colonists were no longer willing to be subjected to British regulations if they did not have representation (a vote) in the British Parliament.

War of Independence

Britain’s response to the Boston Tea Party was to impose direct British control on the colony of Massachusetts, the state in which Boston is located. When the military governor tried to seize American weapons, military clashes broke out between the resisting Americans and the British Army. The American response led to a Declaration of Independence on 4 July 1776, which announced the formation of the United States of America. Among the leaders and thinkers who contributed to the Declaration of Independence were Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin and John Adams.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

During the War of Independence, Benjamin Franklin was an American diplomat in France. For many French people, he came to symbolise the ideas and values of the new American republic. His image appeared on fans, brooches and all kinds of household items, even chamber pots (pots stored under the bed and used when someone needed to go to the toilet during the night). It was said that even King Louis XVI had a chamber pot with Franklin’s image on it.

The Declaration claimed that ‘all men are created equal’, and asserted that people were endowed with certain unalienable rights (rights that one is born with and that can never be taken away). This was revolutionary thinking at a time when the idea of rights for all people was regarded as a philosophical concept rather than something practical.

The war continued until 1783, when a treaty between Britain and the USA formally ended the war, and recognised the USA as an independent state.



Source 3.9 An artist's depiction of American colonists, dressed as Mohawk Indians, dumping tea in Boston Harbor in 1773

The French Revolution

Shortly after the end of the American Revolution in 1783, another revolution started across the Atlantic Ocean in France. Discontent with the French royal family and the **aristocracy** in general had been growing in France during the reign of Louis XVI. A meeting of the Estates General (legislative assembly) in May 1789 brought together the three estates of the realm – the nobility, the clergy and the people. Unable to agree on a power arrangement, the third estate – the people – formed a National Assembly demanding a constitution and political representation. This signalled the start of the French Revolution.

Storming of the Bastille

On 14 July 1789, as popular discontent with the political system in France simmered, an angry mob of people stormed a fortress prison in Paris known as the Bastille. This event, more than any other, became the symbolic flashpoint of the French Revolution. The Bastille, which had been a state prison, represented royal power and the *ancien régime* – the old system of government. More importantly, the Bastille contained a large store of explosives. The date of the fall of the Bastille is still a public holiday in France.



Source 3.10 *The Taking of the Bastille*. The prison was a symbol of repression for the revolutionaries.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Bastille has become a symbol of the French Revolution around the world. It is often remembered as housing thousands of innocent people imprisoned by a corrupt and uncaring king, but at the time the fortress was stormed to retrieve a large store of explosives there were only seven prisoners inside. Four of these were common criminals charged with forgery, two were insane, and the last was an Irish lord imprisoned for debts.

Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen

The first version of the most fundamental document of the French Revolution – known as the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen – was passed by the Constituent French Assembly on 26 August 1789. It reflected the view of the influential French political thinker Jean Jacques Rousseau that the rulers only govern with the consent of the people who are governed. The separation of powers into executive, legislative and judicial branches of government, as advocated by the French political philosopher Montesquieu, was also included.

The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen opened by claiming that all men were born free and remained equal in rights. It claimed that **sovereignty** (the independent authority of a country over its own lands) should essentially be the responsibility of the nation. This was a direct challenge to the established belief of European monarchies that sovereignty was the responsibility of God and God's representatives on Earth – that is, kings. Thomas Jefferson, who had been a major contributor to the American Declaration, was ambassador in Paris in 1789. He was in consultation with the French revolutionaries as they framed their own document. Although these ideas form the basis of most democratic governments today, at the time they were regarded as radical.

Reign of Terror

In 1791, it was proposed that France would be run by a constitutional **monarchy** with an elected government assembly limiting the king's powers (similar to the way in which Britain and Australia function today). This arrangement caused a crisis in government, and the following year the monarchy was abolished. On 21 January 1793, Louis XVI was executed on the guillotine. This sent shock waves through the royal houses of Europe, who moved to defeat the republican French.

The French population was divided, and the revolutionary government's Committee of Public Safety assumed control of public life. It instituted a 'reign of terror' against perceived enemies of the republic, and records indicate that 16 594 prisoners were guillotined (had their heads chopped off). It has been suggested the actual figure may be as high as 40 000.

The revolution ends

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

The Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution is the name given to the period of enormous social, economic and cultural changes brought about by a process of **industrialisation** (the move from an economy based on farming and agriculture to one based on manufacturing and industry) that took place in Britain from the mid-1700s, and then spread to the rest of the world. The Industrial Revolution lasted for more than 150 years, beginning around 1750 and continuing until around 1914. The Industrial Revolution changed almost every aspect of daily life and brought about profound economic changes. Manual labour and horse-drawn machinery had previously been the basis of the economy, but 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**. Under capitalism, entrepreneurs could invest in land, machinery and equipment, and hire workers to make a profit for them. 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.

Working conditions in the early 20th century

SOURCE STUDY



Source 3.11 Children work in a factory in Georgia, USA, at the turn of the 20th century.

INTERPRET 3.1

- 1 Examine Source 3.11 and identify potential health and safety risks for the child workers.
- 2 What does the source tell you about working conditions in the United States at the start 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. It was the perceived oppression of the working classes that gave rise to the ideas of **socialism**, which aspired to having all members of society share equally in the profits of their labour. **Chartism** was a movement that sought more equal rights and political representation for workers.

As the nations of the industrialised world developed, countries began to look outside their own borders for resources, land and cheap labour 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. Independence movements also ushered in a new era of **nationalism**, as people began to build a sense of national identity.

Furthermore, the traditional teachings of the Catholic Church were challenged by the rational thinking that was behind the ideas of the Enlightenment and new scientific discoveries. One of the most important of these new ideas was **Darwinism**, which suggested a scientific rather than a religious explanation for life on Earth.

REVIEW 3.3

- 1 Who was the link between the American Declaration of Independence and the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen?
- 2 Identify any long-term impacts of the American and French Revolutions.
- 3 Explain the link between the Industrial Revolution and capitalism.

A TIME OF NEW IDEAS

Since the time of Plato in ancient Greece, thinkers have argued about the best way to organise society. During medieval times in Europe, the Catholic Church dominated thinking, and most rulers drew links to God to establish legality and justify their authority. This situation changed in the 18th and 19th century as a number of key events and developments challenged the way people thought and how they acted. As discussed, key among these events were the American Revolution, the French Revolution and the Industrial Revolution. In response to these events, philosophers and statesmen asked key questions about why societies should be organised in the way they were. The answers to these questions gave rise to a range of new ideas and movements that brought about change.

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

Capitalism

The Industrial Revolution transformed the way society and the economy were 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. In return, nobles provided security to the peasants. 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 to sell for a profit. Unlike in a feudal society, capitalists had no sense of obligation to their workers. Capitalism became 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 (such as factories and machinery) are privately owned. Capitalism will be discussed in more depth in Section 3.2.



Source 3.12 An American cotton mill in 1912 – new machinery transformed the textiles industry during the Industrial Revolution.

Socialism

The Industrial Revolution also created new forms of inequality. While some people became very wealthy by investing capital and managing factories, a huge class of working poor was created – people who no longer benefited from the social obligations and responsibilities of feudal lords. 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) manages and allocates resources so that they are distributed equally among citizens.



Source 3.13 A satirical cartoon from 1843, entitled 'Capital and Labour'

INTERPRET 3.2

- 1 Identify the differences between the lives of 'capital' and 'labour' in Source 3.13.
- 2 What point is the cartoonist making about capital and labour?
- 3 What do you think the cartoonist's purpose was?
- 4 What type of publication do you think it may have originally appeared in?

Karl Marx was an intellectual who popularised the ideals of socialism through an economic and social system called **communism**. Together with his colleague Friedrich Engels, Marx wrote *The Communist Manifesto*, a book that inspired numerous revolutions and revolts during 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. Throughout industrialised countries, workers began to form trade unions to fight for reforms that would protect them from exploitation by their employers, and governments implemented reforms to benefit workers.

Australia has a 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 a social welfare system (which includes unemployment benefits, public housing and medical care).

EXTEND 3.1

- 1 Conduct research on the Internet about *The Communist Manifesto*, written by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels in 1848. Prepare a 150-word written report outlining 3 of the most significant influences it has had on the modern world.

Egalitarianism

APPLY 3.1

- 1 Egalitarianism was an ideal that was spoken about in Australia at the time of Federation. Conduct research to find out whether Australia in 1901 was established as an egalitarian society.

Egalitarianism is the idea of equality among people. The word comes from the French *égal*, meaning 'equal'. Egalitarians argue that all people should be considered to have equal social status or worth as human beings and be entitled to equal opportunities in society. As a political philosophy, it also helped to justify demands by the working-class for the vote and direct political representation.

In 1783, at the end of the American Revolution, the American leaders 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 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. When the French Revolution championed 'liberty, equality and fraternity', it was also popularising the concept of egalitarianism.

Equality at this time had its limits however. The men who drafted the American Declaration of Independence 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 3.14 The signing of the Declaration of Independence, 1776

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 they actually existed as independent nations. For example, until 1861, the region that is now Italy was comprised of smaller political states, each having its own monarch or ruler. 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 late 18th century, 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.

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.

The birth of Irish nationalism in the mid-19th century shows how nationalist ideas can change a society. At that time, Ireland had been directly ruled by England since 1603. After the widespread suffering caused by a famine in the 1840s, a movement for independence began, as many felt that British rule in Ireland was responsible for 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 3.15 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'.

EXTEND 3.2

- 1 Design a postcard similar to the one shown in Source 3.15, encouraging national pride in a federated Australia in the lead-up to Federation in 1899. Be sure to include symbols, phrases and colours that represent Australia as a nation.

Imperialism

Imperialism is the geographic expansion of one state or people and the resulting domination over another. The Age of Exploration, from the early 15th century to the 17th century, opened up the world to many countries in Europe and led to the discovery of new lands and shipping routes. The discovery of the Americas by Christopher Columbus, for example, took place in the 1450s. With this greater geographic knowledge of the world, powerful European nations – including Great Britain, Spain, France, Portugal, the Netherlands, Austria–Hungary and the Ottoman Empire – began expanding their empires to take advantage of the resources (such as 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 non-European countries and regions. European powers controlled vast areas of Africa, Asia and the Middle East, and were exploiting these territories for raw resources and labour.

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 greater 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 3.16 The extent of the British Empire in 1901 (shown in red)



INTERPRET 3.3

- 1 In the 1800s, it was often said that the ‘sun never set on the British Empire.’ Explain how Source 3.16 could help you understand the statement.
- 2 Outline how Source 3.17 helps you understand the way in which imperialism worked.
- 3 What evidence do these sources provide about Britain’s power at this time?

Source 3.17 This cartoon published in 1876 illustrates the wealth and power of the British Empire. The lion (representing Britain) is shown clutching the key to India (representing the Suez Canal). The Suez Canal is a shipping channel that was built through Egypt in 1869 to connect Europe with Asia. In the background, a British politician is shown buying a large stake in the Suez Canal from an Egyptian official. Control of the Suez Canal allowed the British to cut travel times to their colonies in Africa and India dramatically, strengthening and expanding the British Empire.

Darwinism

Darwinism is 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, English naturalist 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.

By observing similar animals in different environments, most famously the animals of the Galapagos Islands, Darwin formulated a scientific theory called evolution. 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, which means that they are passed on from parents to offspring. 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 that 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 had any relation to apes or other animals. 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.

Reactions to Darwinism

SOURCE STUDY



INTERPRET 3.4

- 1 What aspect of Darwinism is Source 3.18 focusing on?
- 2 Does the cartoon support or reject the theory of evolution put forward by Darwin? Justify your answer with evidence from the source.

Source 3.18 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.

WHAT PROGRESSIVE IDEAS AND MOVEMENTS DEVELOPED BETWEEN 1750 AND 1918?

» Identify key historical events, such as the Enlightenment, the American War of Independence, the French Revolution and the Industrial Revolution, that contributed to the development of a range of progressive ideas and movements

- 1 Outline the significance of the following events in changing the way people thought about government and life:
 - the Enlightenment
 - the American War of Independence
 - the French Revolution
 - the Industrial Revolution
 - the publishing of *The Communist Manifesto*. (20 marks)

» Examine the underlying ideas associated with these historical events and describe how they influenced the development of progressive ideas and movements

- 2 Explain the significance of each of the following concepts in shaping the world we live in today, and discuss the limitations governments placed on the interpretation of them during the period 1750–1918:
 - happiness
 - equality
 - liberty
 - sovereignty. (25 marks)

» Outline the key principles of the following progressive ideas – capitalism, socialism, egalitarianism, nationalism, imperialism, Darwinism and Chartism.

- 3 Create a glossary that explains the meaning of each of the following terms in a way that you can understand:
 - capitalism
 - socialism
 - egalitarianism
 - nationalism
 - imperialism
 - Darwinism
 - Chartism. (15 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Debating significance: *The Communist Manifesto* vs *On the Origin of Species*

Two of the most influential books ever written, *The Communist Manifesto* and *On the Origin of Species*, were products of the freedom of thought that had its roots in the Enlightenment.

In two groups, research the reception of each book at the time of publication. Examine what made them controversial. Explain their ongoing significance.

After you have completed your research, as a class discuss their impact. Can you agree whether one was more influential than the other? Is there any text from your lifetime that has similar significance?

3.1

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

3.2

SECTION

WHAT IS CAPITALISM AND HOW DID IT DEVELOP?

For the remainder of this topic, we will explore the development and influence of capitalism in detail, including its origins, the role of key thinkers in its development, and the short- and long-term effects it has had on Australia and the world.

Not only has capitalism influenced how societies are governed and the ways in which people live, it has also become 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 brought about major changes in economic systems and social relations. In this section, we will discuss the broad principles that are common to ideas of capitalism, as well as the history and context of capitalism's rise.

ECONOMIC SYSTEMS BEFORE CAPITALISM

Before the rise of capitalism, feudalism was the dominant economic system across much of the Western world and parts of Asia. Under this system, society was divided between peasants (or commoners) and nobles. In Europe, 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 3.20 View of Venice in the 18th century. Shipping fuelled the busy trade in the city.

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.

Adam Smith and the origins of capitalism

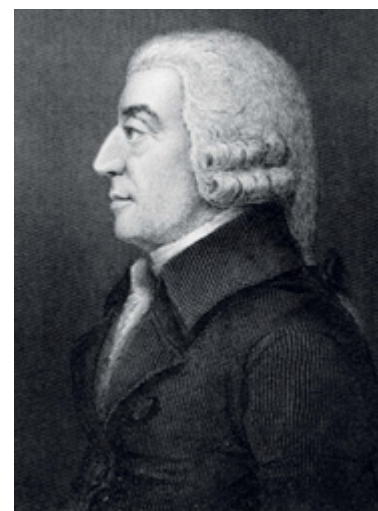
One of the most influential thinkers in the rise of capitalism was Adam Smith. He was a philosopher who wrote many works challenging the ideas of feudalism. In 1776, Smith published *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*. To this day, it remains one of the most influential books 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 cause them to be judged harshly by others. This meant that employers would pay fair and reasonable wages, and shoppers would not buy products that would harm people. 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 supportive of 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 20th- and 21st-century governments and societies have responded to his ideas.



Source 3.21 Adam Smith was an influential capitalist thinker.

EXTEND 3.3

- 1 Analyse the basic elements of Smith's beliefs and conduct further research to answer the following questions:
 - a Do you think his suggestion that capitalism would operate 'efficiently and fairly' was realistic?
 - b Do you think it has proved accurate over time?

REVIEW 3.5

- 1 Explain how feudalism determined the way the majority of people lived before the Industrial Revolution.
- 2 Outline the type of economic system that operated in port cities like Venice.
- 3 What ideas of his time did Adam Smith challenge?
- 4 What factors did Smith believe influenced people's decisions?
- 5 Explain how the 'invisible hand' was supposed to work.

THE CAPITALIST ECONOMY

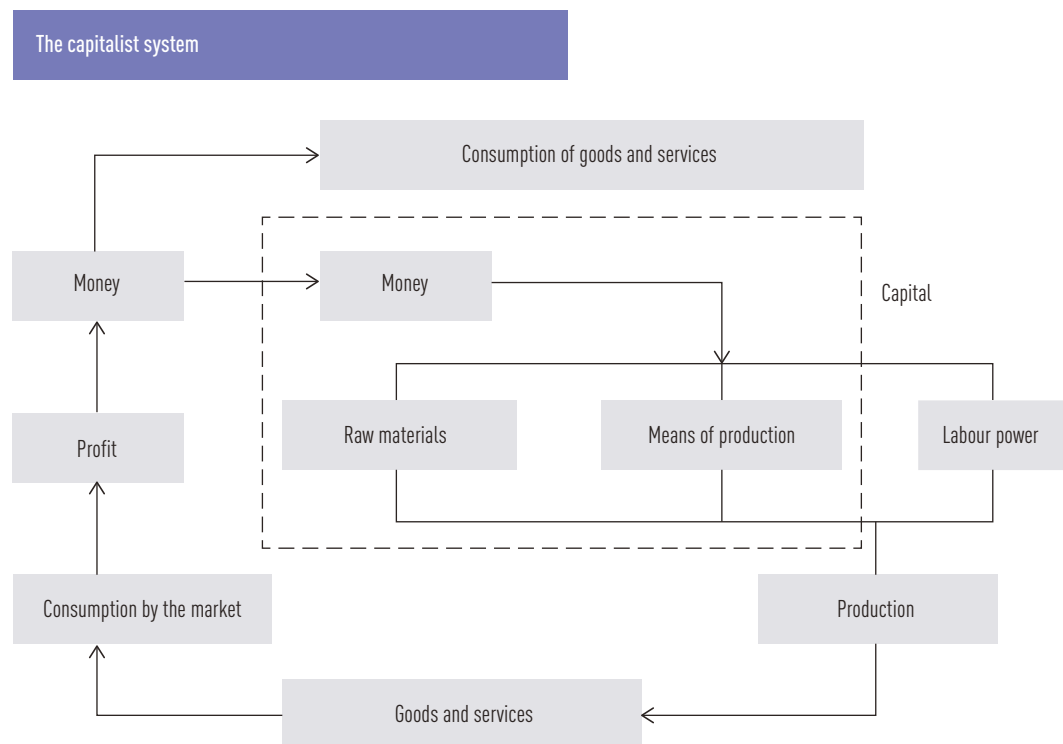
Some of the most important concepts relating to capitalism – described by Adam Smith and other social philosophers and economists – are **capital**, **supply and demand**, **competition** and ***laissez-faire***. These terms are explained in further detail below. A clear understanding of these concepts will help you to appreciate the basic functions of capitalism.

Capital

Capital forms the basis of the capitalist system. It refers to wealth 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. This means that the products of capitalism do not necessarily need to be things that can be physically perceived.

There are three major inputs for production in the capitalist system. These are labour, the means of production (such as land and machinery) and raw materials. Both raw materials and the means of production qualify as ‘capital’ that the producer invests in.



Source 3.22 The relationship of the different elements of the capitalist system

Supply and demand

Capitalism assumes that there will be balance 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 desirable the product is. Supply and demand will be balanced by the price of goods or services. Supply and demand should ensure that a supplier can demand more money for a product if more people want it and it is scarce. On the other hand, if fewer people want a product and it is plentiful, prices should go down.

Supply and demand can also be applied to wages. Capitalism assumes that workers are paid wages for labour. A person's wage is set 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. But if there are plenty of unskilled workers and not much work to do, those workers will be paid less.

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 a similar product from somebody else.

Laissez-faire

One of the guiding principles of capitalism is the French term *laissez-faire* (pronounced less-AY-fare). This term, which roughly translates as 'allow to do', means to let things be. Adam Smith's metaphor of the 'invisible hand' is in many ways similar to the concept of *laissez-faire*, though he never used the term. *Laissez-faire* suggests that the capitalist economy will work best if it is left to function on its own, 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' between countries reflect the principle of *laissez-faire*. 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.

REVIEW 3.6

- 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?



Source 3.23 Two rival mobile phone companies in Australia. Competition under capitalism means that companies will compete to provide a lower price or better product.

TYCOONS AND 'ROBBER BARONS'

The capitalist system of the 19th century led to the development of great wealth for some individuals. These individuals differed from wealthy classes in previous generations, because they showed that it was possible to build wealth and power from nothing. People who obtained 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. This was particularly true in the United States, whose class system was not as rigid as Europe's, where industrialists came from a variety of backgrounds.

Cornelius Vanderbilt – from nothing to millionaire

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 the USA. 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.

Vanderbilt's great-great-grandfather had emigrated from Holland to North America as an indentured servant (someone bound to work for another person for a set time in exchange for the costs of emigrating) in the 17th century. The young Cornelius 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.

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 his time.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

While running passenger ferries in New York, Vanderbilt's strong competitive drive threatened the businesses of his shipping rivals. They decided together to pay him to leave the Hudson River so they could all get on with their businesses.

Source 3.24 The SS *C. Vanderbilt* was a steamer owned by Cornelius Vanderbilt that operated on the Hudson River.



The ‘captains of industry’

In the United States, the most famous of the wealthy industrialists included Cornelius Vanderbilt (shipping), 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 whom they put out of business and those whom they exploited. The rise of capitalism was characterised by exploitation as well as opportunity.

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.

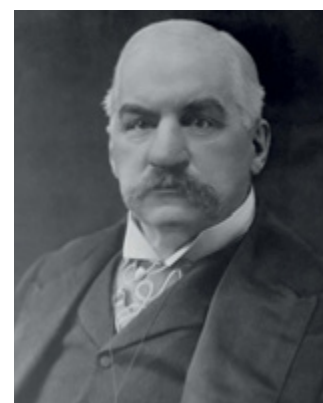
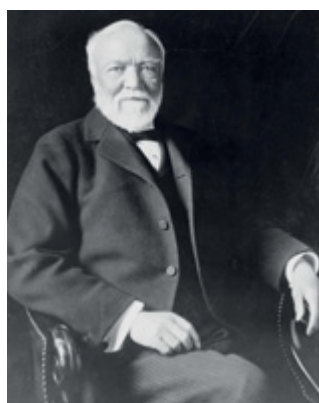
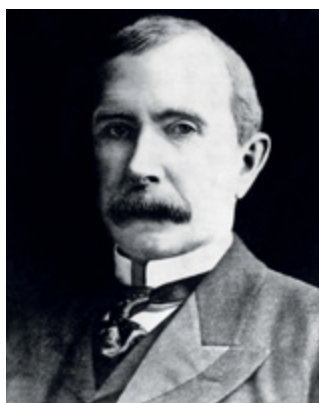
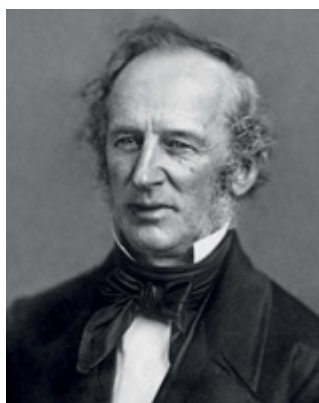
EXTEND 3.4

- 1 Conduct research on the career of one of the ‘captains of industry’ mentioned here. In a 250-word report:
 - a outline his achievements
 - b analyse the impact, both positive and negative, that these achievements had on the lives of others
 - c make a statement as to whether or not you believe he is a significant historical figure.

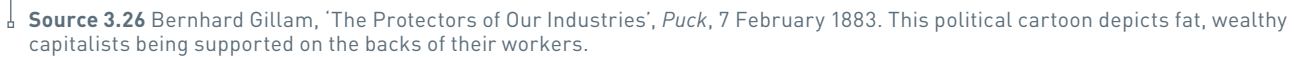
The ‘robber barons’

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 system.

Critics of the tycoons cited their corrupt business practices, and 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 great influence over the media and politics, and many at the time resented this. At the turn of the century, Theodore Roosevelt ran for the presidency in the USA on a platform of being against the rich industrialists of his time. He painted these men as highly unsavoury characters and called them ‘malefactors [evil-doers] of great wealth’. During the Great Depression, when there was public scorn for big business and the role it played in the economic crash, robber barons were not regarded favourably.



Source 3.25 Portraits of ‘captains of industry’ – from left, Cornelius Vanderbilt, John D. Rockefeller, Andrew Carnegie, J. Pierpont Morgan



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.

INTERPRET 3.5

- 1 Do these sources support or contradict each other in the perspective they present of American tycoons.
- 2 What point is Source 3.26 making? What is its likely purpose?
- 3 Theodore Roosevelt was a politician. Does this fact influence your assessment of the reliability of Source 3.27?

Wages and exploitation

Capitalism depends on labour but, in fact, these two elements of our economic system are very much dependent on each other. It is important to the employer to have a healthy and adequate labour force, and it is equally important to workers that jobs be available. Yet how fair was the wage system in the early days of capitalism?

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 were frequent. The conditions in which people worked often had dramatic effects on their health, and injuries 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, people earning low wages had few rights and limited opportunities for improvement. 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.

Living and working conditions of workers in the 19th century

SOURCE STUDY

INTERPRET 3.6

- 1 Explain the views of capitalism portrayed in Sources 3.28 and 3.29.
- 2 Outline the ways these sources could be useful as evidence to a historian. Do you think they are reliable and accurate representations of the situation at the time? Justify your response.



Source 3.28 *The Ironworkers' Noontime*, Thomas Anschutz, 1880

Source 3.29 *The Slums of London*, an engraving by Gustav Doré, depicting poverty in mid-19th-century London



REVIEW 3.7

- 1 Why did some people refer to rich industrialists as 'robber barons'?
- 2 Describe what life was like for poor people living in cities during the Industrial Revolution. In what ways were factory workers affected by their jobs?
- 3 How did capitalism create inequality in society?

OPPOSITION TO CAPITALISM

As we have seen, there was some opposition to the emerging capitalist system during the Industrial Revolution and beyond. Workers frequently felt exploited, and other members of society were disturbed by the growing inequality that resulted from the new economic structure.

The rise of socialism

Socialism arose in response to the effect of capitalism and the Industrial Revolution on society. Socialists argued that capitalism was not the best system for effectively distributing wealth. They felt that 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 – land, equipment and money – they had to invest. People who already had wealth could use it to create more wealth, while those without access to capital remained poor. Second, capitalism did not operate in the interests of the public or of society's needs. 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. In 1917, the Russian Revolution saw the overthrow of the Russian monarchy and the creation of the first socialist state.

Marx and communism

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 their book *The Communist Manifesto*, which proved to be hugely influential. They believed that wage earners (broadly speaking, 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 (government) required to oversee it.



Source 3.30 Marx and Engels in the pressrooms of *Rheinische Zeitung*, a socialist paper that they jointly edited

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 restraining chains of capitalism. They believed that the socialist stage would create an economy so efficient that an abundance of goods and services would be available. Society could then move to an ideal state of communism, where there was no state, 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, but 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.

Trade union movement

Strong trade unions arose 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 important 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 that women and children in England were granted a ten-hour working day.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In 1834, a group of six farm labourers, who became known as the Tolpuddle Martyrs, were sentenced to seven years' hard labour in Australia for taking an oath together to unite to fight for fairer wages from their employer.



Source 3.31 Trade union banners are held up as workers march in the 1889 London dock strike.

REVIEW 3.8

- 1 What is the central idea of socialism?
- 2 Karl Marx was repeatedly expelled from countries he lived in. What aspects of his ideas do you think governments at the time found dangerous?
- 3 The ideas of Marx and Engels were hugely popular. What do you think attracted people to their philosophy?
- 4 What are the differences between socialism and communism, according to Marx and Engels?

3.2

CHECKPOINT

WHAT IS CAPITALISM AND HOW DID IT DEVELOP?

» Outline and explain the origins of capitalism

- 1 Identify the origins of capitalism as a 'big idea.' (10 marks)
- 2 Explain why *The Wealth of Nations* could be regarded as a foundation text of capitalism. (5 marks)
- 3 Explain the role of the Industrial Revolution in the development of capitalism. (10 marks)

» Describe the main features of capitalism

- 4 In your own words, explain the role of each of the following in a capitalist system:
 - capital
 - supply and demand
 - competition
 - *laissez-faire*. (10 marks)

» Identify the ideas of supporters of and opponents to capitalism and explain their differences

- 5 Copy and complete the following table to identify the main supporters of capitalism in both Europe and the United States, and the opponents of capitalism. What were their main beliefs and activities? (25 marks).

	Supporters of capitalism	Opponents of capitalism
Significant individuals		
Main beliefs		
Activities		

- 6 Explain what you think the modern world would be like if trade unions had never been allowed to exist. (20 marks)

» Trace changes in attitude to the idea over the period

- 7 Outline the way attitudes to capitalism have changed during the 18th and 19th centuries. (10 marks)
- 8 Explain the birth of socialism as a 'big idea'. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASK

The working poor – capitalism's 'dark side'?

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 predicted 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. The resulting Mines Act of 1842 forbade employment in mines of all women, and of boys under thirteen. Read Source 3.32, 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.

- 1 As a class, discuss what these sources tell you about the practical application of capitalism during the Industrial Revolution. Do you think they support or challenge capitalism as an idea?
- 2 Individually, research the working conditions the poor endured during the Industrial Revolution, and find a source that supports the points you would like to make.
- 3 Combine the research gathered by the class into a digital sourcebook: 'The life of the poor under capitalism.'
- 4 Discuss the sourcebook and whether 'capitalism's dark side' is a fair and accurate description of life for the majority under 19th-century capitalism.

Source 3.32

My father has been dead about a year; my mother is living and has ten children, five lads and five lasses ... All my sisters have been hurriers [coal carriers], but three went to the mill ... 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 [coal carts] ... I hurry the corves a mile and more under ground and back; they weigh 300 cwt [150 kilograms]; 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 of a mine worker, aged 17, from the Lord Ashley's Mines Commission, 1842



LORD SHAFTESBURY VISITING THE COAL MINES OF THE BLACK COUNTRY, 1840-42

Source 3.33 This picture from the official report of the parliamentary commission shows Lord Ashley visiting the coal mines of the Black Country, 1840-42

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

3.3

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE SHORT- AND LONG-TERM IMPACTS OF CAPITALISM ON AUSTRALIA AND THE WORLD?

Capitalism, both as an idea and an economic system, arose at the same time as the Industrial Revolution. Both were responsible for bringing about 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. In addition to creating opportunities to move up the social ladder, capitalism created unprecedented opportunities to consume. People had purchased goods before the Industrial Revolution, of course, but capitalism created new ways for shopkeepers and entrepreneurs to adopt **consumerism** – the social and economic system that encourages and promotes the endless pursuit of new goods and services.

Urbanisation

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 (see Source 3.34). As cities expanded, a new class of urban poor developed, who frequently lived in miserable conditions in growing and crowded cities. Capitalism had made industrialists and entrepreneurs rich, but simultaneously it created a large divide between rich and poor.



Source 3.34 The people living in a 19th-century London slum. Conditions were often crowded and unsanitary.

Social mobility

Prior to the Industrial Revolution, well respected upper-class men 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 were believed to carry a lower social status or stigma (bad reputation) with them. Even physicians and lawyers were not as highly regarded as landowners, because they had to work for a living. For women, who did not generally inherit land (usually because it passed from fathers to sons), there were even fewer options. The only respectable paid work for women was to be a governess or teacher.

The Industrial Revolution created enormous changes in the way people earned money and produced food and other goods. Under capitalism, earning money (rather than inheriting land) lost its stigma. Professions such as lawyer, banker and pharmacist, once poorly regarded, 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.

The rise of consumerism and the department store

In Paris, in 1848, Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte – the nephew of Emperor Napoleon Bonaparte – was elected as the first president of the French Republic. 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.

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.



Source 3.35 Parisian streets (Rue Tirechape) before and after Napoleon III's modernisation



Source 3.36 The new staircase in Le Bon Marché, from *Le Monde Illustré*, c. 1875

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.

What was the result of the introduction 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.

APPLY 3.3

- 1 Consider the growth of consumerism in the 19th century. How do your shopping habits, and those of your family and friends, resemble a similar consumerist lifestyle?

Capitalism in Australia

Australia's history means that capitalism developed slightly differently here, compared with Europe and North 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 forced labour from convicts and agricultural capitalism. Settlers and freed convicts produced goods for a profit, assisted by the provision of government land packages. One of Australia's biggest industries in the 19th century was wool, which became an important commodity and a cultural icon.

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 (taxes), and also upheld rights for workers. These rights were championed by strong unions that supported workers' rights, such as the right to strike. 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 regulated by the state in order to ensure the system is balanced and fair. The state also provides social welfare and attempts to provide equal opportunities to all people through the provision of tax-funded health care and education, and other social policies.



Source 3.37 The wool industry was one of the foundations of the Australian capitalist economy.

Capitalism today

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 that pay wages to their employees. However, capitalist models are accompanied by government regulations. Smith's 'invisible hand' proved ineffective in terms of protecting less powerful members of society, 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.

REVIEW 3.9

- 1 What were the changes in Paris that affected the way people shopped?
- 2 Why was Boucicaut's department store so successful?
- 3 Why did capitalism allow a different group of people to become wealthy?
- 4 In what ways was the Australian economy different from Europe's during the Industrial Revolution?
- 5 Which elements of the Australian economy in the 19th century were not capitalist?
- 6 Explain why Australia's economy today is a mix of capitalism and socialism.

3.3

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE SHORT- AND LONG-TERM IMPACTS OF CAPITALISM ON AUSTRALIA AND THE WORLD?

» Assess the short- and long-term impacts of capitalism on Australia and the world

1 Copy and complete the following table in your notebook. (20 marks)

Short-term impacts of capitalism on Australia	Long-term impacts of capitalism on Australia	Short term-impacts of capitalism on the world	Long-term impacts of capitalism on the world

2 What do you think have been the most significant impacts of capitalism in Australia and internationally? (10 marks.)

» Discuss the relevance of the idea today

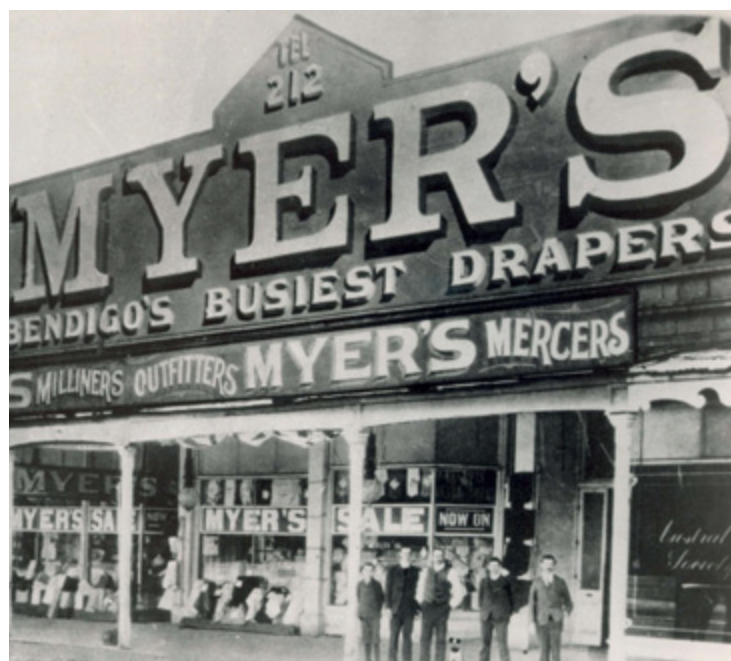
3 Explain what you think the role of capitalism is in the world today. Do you think it is as relevant as it was in the 19th century? What is its future locally and globally? (20 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Myer: a study of continuity and change

- 1 Conduct research on department-store owner Sidney Myer. To what extent do you think he could be described as an 'Australian success story'?
- 2 Examine the images shown here, which are representative of Myer stores over the last century or so. Using only the sources, explain what continuities and changes you can identify.



Source 3.38 Myer's original department store in Bendigo, established in 1900



Source 3.39 Myer's winter sale in Melbourne in 1920

- 3 Your teacher will divide the class into groups. Each group will conduct research about a different time in the history of Myer department stores. Have each group create a catalogue that represents a selection of Myer's key products for their period of research.
- 4 Revisit the discussion of continuity and change with the catalogues and see how much further you can expand on your understanding of it.
- 5 Discuss the suggestion that Myer represents the success of Australian capitalism.



Source 3.40 Myer's Adelaide store 1929



Source 3.42 Myer's Olympic advertising in Melbourne 1956



Source 3.41 Myer's Pacific Fair store on the Gold Coast, and Morley store in Western Australia



In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

PART

2



AUSTRALIA AND ASIA: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 2: AUSTRALIA AND ASIA

STUDENTS CHOOSE FROM ONE OF
THE FOLLOWING OPTIONS:

MAKING A NATION

4

CHAPTER

ASIA AND THE WORLD: CHINA

5

CHAPTER



This hand-painted Chinese bowl, made in 1820, features a panoramic view of Sydney Cove. Artefacts like this serve as a reminder of the close links between Australia and Asia.

AUSTRALIA AND ASIA: AN OVERVIEW

Historians understand that all historical events are interconnected. The options included in Depth study 2 – Australia and Asia – reinforce this idea and demonstrate that a complete understanding of our history is not possible if its study is limited by national borders.

The options *Making a nation* and *Asia and the world* provide opportunities to:

- understand how the Australian story is linked to Europe, the USA, the Pacific and Asia
- explore the connections between ideas, people and products from all of these places, and develop an appreciation of how these things have played a part in shaping our history and our heritage
- understand the culture and history of Asian societies, particularly their responses to European imperialism.

MAKING A NATION

APPLY 0.09

- 1 Read 'Terra nullius' and 'Australia's Indigenous communities' in Chapter 4. Why did British settlers perceive that Australia was *terra nullius* or 'empty land'?
- 2 Read 'Why Australia achieved Federation' in Chapter 4, then use a graphic organiser to summarise the key issues or arguments in favour of Federation.

Making a nation explores the story of Australia's transformation 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.

From the time the first British settlements in Australia were set up, the concept of **terra nullius** (a Latin term meaning 'empty land' or 'land belonging to no-one') was generally accepted by the colonists. 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 policies of removal to missions. Their culture and way of life were changed forever.

During the second half of the 19th century, colonists in Australia became increasingly aware of the fact that they 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 (votes) and colonial conventions led to the development of the Constitution of Australia in 1900. Following a positive vote from the majority of the people in each colony, the Australian nation was created in 1901.



Source 0.13 A tally board records the Western Australian results for the referendum on Australian Federation, 31 July 1900

ASIA AND THE WORLD

Societies and cultures across Asia emerged and developed as powerful and unique empires over thousands of years. Some of the most significant are China, India and Japan. These societies remained largely isolated from the West until the mid-18th century, when they were challenged by contacts with European powers. These contacts were made both directly (through military force and occupation) and indirectly (through trade and the exchange of ideas).

A clear understanding of the Asian world requires an understanding of its diversity – that is, the vast differences between and within Asian societies. The experiences of Chinese, Indian and Japanese people during this period were vastly different. This overview provides a starting point for the study of India and Japan from 1750 to 1918.

In Depth study 2, we have chosen to focus on an in-depth study of China from 1750 to 1918. In particular, we will be exploring China's response to contact with European powers from the 1750s onwards, as well as the impact of European imperialism on China up to the first decades of the 20th century.

Continuity and change in Asian societies

As you explore the history of Asian societies, 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 changes that took place in different Asian societies:

- *Transformation* – this concept relates to sweeping change that was often brought about by military action and, at times, occupation by Western powers.
- *Change within tradition* – this concept relates to situations where there have been changes in a society, but where existing leaders or traditional government, religious or cultural structures have been retained.



Source 0.15 King George V and Queen Mary, attended by young Indian princes in Delhi, 1903. British kings and queens were called emperors and empresses of India 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 Mughal *durbars* of earlier times, when emperors held court in great splendour.

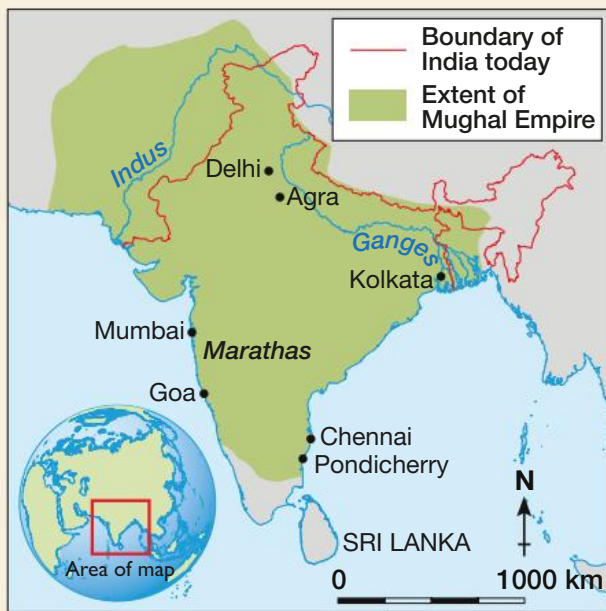
Source 0.14 Examples of transformation and change within tradition

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, who was 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 authority rested with the same powerful clans that had once dominated Japan.

Geographic extent of India and Japan

In 1750, most of the Indian subcontinent was part of a vast empire ruled by a series of powerful emperors called the Mughals. By the 17th century, the Mughal Dynasty controlled most of India, as the green shading in Source O.16 shows. They ruled 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. The Mughal Empire also ruled over parts of modern-day Pakistan, Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Nepal and Bhutan.

In 1750, Japan had slightly different borders from those it has today. Almost the entire population lived on the islands of Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu. The northern island of Hokkaido was also technically under Japanese rule, but most Japanese lived only on the southern tip of the island. 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 northwest.



Source O.16 The Mughal Empire at its greatest extent, c.1600 (note: present-day place names have been used on this map)



Source O.17 Japan and surrounding countries, 1750

Religious beliefs in India and Japan

The Mughal Empire was made up of many different religious and ethnic groups. Among those groups were Hindus, Sikhs, Jains and Buddhists. Hinduism was the most common religion practised on the Indian subcontinent, with approximately 75 per cent of the population being Hindu.

By contrast, three main influences on Japanese society during this period were the Shinto and Buddhist religions and Confucian philosophy. Shinto is Japan's native religion. Buddhism arrived in Japan in the 7th century. Over time, many Japanese people came to follow both Shinto and Buddhist beliefs. Confucius was a philosopher and teacher who lived from 551 to 479 BC 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.

APPLY O.10

- 1 Conduct research on one of the religions of India or Japan and prepare a brief summary of its origins, as well as the beliefs and rituals of its followers.
- 2 Buddhism, which began in India, spread and had a significant influence in other parts of Asia, including China and Japan. Conduct research to find out when and how Buddhism spread to China and Japan.

Key features of Indian society around 1750

The Mughal **emperor** was the all-powerful and absolute ruler of the empire. He had two key responsibilities for running the empire:

- to protect the state
- to expand the empire.

The Mughal 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 16th century, the emperor also became God's representative on Earth and interpreter of Islamic law.

The emperor had a *diwan* (government) to administer the empire, which was divided into provinces. Each province was managed by a *nawab* (governor). Provinces were then divided into districts, made up of small groups of villages or townships. Each group of villages was managed by *zamindars* who acted as tax collectors, administrators and law enforcers for the area.

Under the Mughal system, peasant farmers also had hereditary rights to the land. The right to live on and farm the 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.

In India, a **caste system** divided society into groups. The caste system was developed within the Hindu religion. As shown in Source O.19, the first three castes were the **Brahmins**, **Kshatriya** and **Vaishya**, known as the 'twice-born' because, in addition to actually being born, they could take part in a re-birth ceremony around the age of 12, when they would spiritually come of age. The fourth caste, the **Shudra**, did not have this privilege. Below the other castes were the **Untouchables**, who had no rights or privileges.

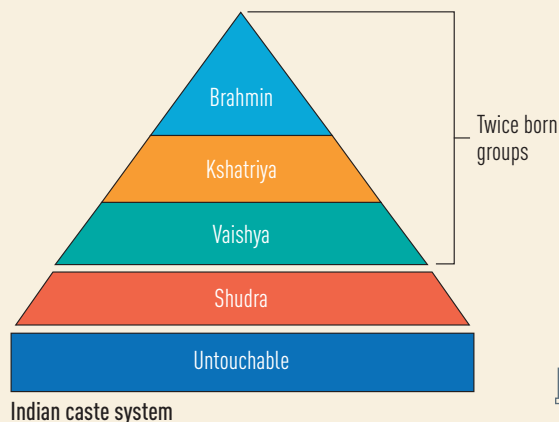
The members of the Brahmin caste were the priests and teachers who performed religious rituals. The nobility, traditionally the leaders and warriors in Indian society, came from the Kshatriya caste.



Source O.18 The Mughal emperors called themselves 'Kings of the World' and the 'Shadows of God'. They expanded their empire by being great warriors and diplomats. This painting, created c. 1750–1770, shows Mughal soldiers and their war elephant going into battle.

APPLY O.11

- 1 Draw a diagram that summarises the system of government under the Mughal Empire.
- 2 Conduct research to find out about India's caste system. Use a graphic organiser to summarise your findings, including:
 - a the roles associated with each caste
 - b the aspects of people's lives that were determined by the caste system
 - c whether the caste system exists in modern India.



Source O.19 The caste system in India

During the rule of the Mughals, India was a **patriarchal** society. This meant 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 without servants, tasks such as 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.

Key features of Japanese society around 1750



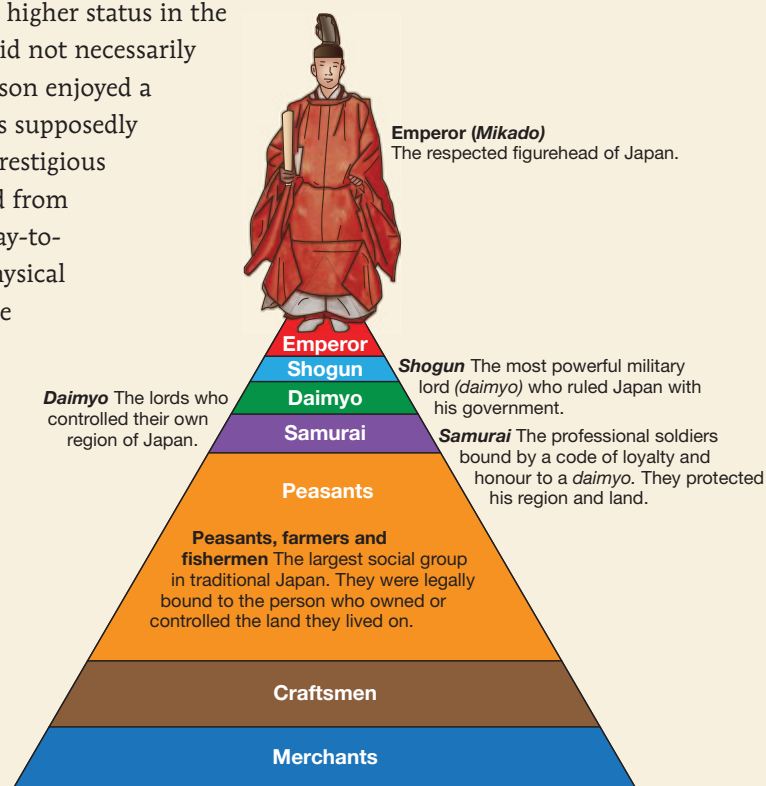
Source 0.20 A portrait of Shogun Tokugawa Ieyasu. The title 'shogun' was a shortened version of *Sei-itai Shogun*, meaning 'Barbarian subduing Commander'. In this phrase, the word barbarian refers to anyone who is not Japanese. In other words, a *shogun* was expected to protect Japan from foreign interference.

Japan was a feudal society organised by a system of obligations among the ruler, nobles and common people. At the top of the social hierarchy sat the emperor. The emperor commanded great respect, but real power lay with his military leader, the *shogun*. Since 1603, Japan had been ruled by *shoguns* from the Tokugawa family.

The nobles – the **shogun**, other **daimyo** and their families – were next in the social hierarchy. The *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. The rest of Japanese society was divided into four classes – *samurai* (warriors), peasants, craftsmen and merchants (see Source 0.21).

Peasant farmers worked on lands controlled by *daimyo* and paid taxes to them in the form of money or a percentage of their crops. Society was rigidly structured, and it was rare for a person to move between classes.

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 hard physical labour. The merchants at the bottom of the system were frequently much wealthier than some *samurai*.



Source 0.21 The class structure of Tokugawa Japan

Women in Tokugawa Japan occupied a subordinate position to men. They were normally dependent on men both financially and socially. Philosophers argued that women should submit themselves to the 'three obediences' during 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.

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. In very bad economic times, poorer peasant families might sell their daughters rather than starve.



Source 0.22 An 18th-century woodblock print of women in Japan

APPLY 0.12

- 1 Read 'China's traditional social structure' in Chapter 5.
 - a Compare the role of the emperor in India, Japan and China.
 - b In table format, outline the similarities and differences between the social structure of Japan and China.
 - c What aspect of India's caste system differs from the way society was organised in Japan and China?
- 2 Read 'The lives of women in Qing Dynasty China' in Chapter 5. Write a 150-word report to compare the role and lives of women in India, Japan and China.

India – the nature and effects of contact with European powers

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The British East India Company was given extraordinary powers by Britain's King Charles II in 1670. This powerful trading company had the right to claim territory, mint money, keep an army, declare war, sign peace treaties and rule any area it conquered.

The European powers – the Portuguese, the Dutch, the French and the British – were first attracted to India as a source of valuable trade items such as tea, silk and spices. In 1707, the last great Mughal Emperor, Aurangzeb, died, leaving his 17 sons, grandsons and great grandsons to argue about who would take his place. The European trading companies took advantage of the lack of unity among the local leaders to take more land and expand their control of trade. The Europeans also had the advantage of the growing industrial and technological power that was becoming available to them from the Industrial Revolution.

By the mid-18th century, European trading companies had been operating in India for more than 150 years. Around this time, the British East India Company had emerged as the most powerful of the trading companies in India, after an extended period of economic competition and warfare between the British, the French and the Spanish. By 1800, the Company had built up its private armies and taken political control over most of India. A key figure in this process was Robert Clive, a former clerk who rose to lead the Company.

The Indian Mutiny

The power of the Company was almost unchallenged in India until 1857, when there were uprisings by Indian *sepoys* – Indian soldiers employed by European powers, in this case the British East India Company. This was known as the Indian Mutiny, and is also referred to as the Great Rebellion or First War of Indian Independence. By the end of 1858, the rebellion had been crushed and the British regained control. However, reports of atrocities from 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 British parliament passed the *Government of India Act* in 1858, handing all of the Company's Indian territories, possessions and armies over to the British government. The Mughal emperor was deposed and a British governor general (or Viceroy) ruled India, reporting to the British government. This period of British rule, known as the British Raj, lasted for almost a century. The British East India Company existed for 16 more years, closing down in 1874, 274 years after it was founded.



Source 0.23 An officer of a British cavalry regiment poses with *sepoys* who fought with the British in the Indian Mutiny.

India now became the most important territory in the British Empire. Prime Minister Disraeli famously called it 'the brightest jewel in the imperial crown'. Trade with India remained important, but India was also a source of the Empire's land, money, employment and military strength. In the late 19th century, the Indian army made up around half of the British Empire's total troops. 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 Britain.

Modernising India

While the Industrial Revolution was taking place in Britain during the first years of British rule in India, life in India was also affected by the changes. India was a massive country that had until this time operated as a series of semi-independent provinces. New technologies 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 that linked all the major cities. The cable telegraph, a new device that could send electrical signals over long distances along an electrical cable, revolutionised communication within India. By 1870, an underwater cable had been laid on the seabed between Britain and India, allowing telegraphs to be sent between the two countries.

APPLY 0.13

- 1 Suggest why the Indian Mutiny is known by various names.
- 2 Use the information above and your own research about the Indian Mutiny to complete the following activities.
 - a Describe the events that sparked an uprising by Indian soldiers in 1857.
 - b Identify the long-term causes of the Indian Mutiny.
 - c Use a timeline to outline the key events and the outcome of the Indian Mutiny.
 - d Identify the consequences of the Indian Mutiny for India and explain why the uprising is considered to be a significant event in Indian history.
- 3 After the Indian Mutiny, the British Raj promised to rule with more respect for local customs and traditions. However, the British continued to have a profound influence on Indian institutions and to impose British values of Indian society.

In a group, conduct research about one of the areas below in which significant changes were made under British rule. Write a short report that outlines the changes or influences that British rule had in the chosen area.

- law and administration
- education
- agricultural economy
- industrial technologies and infrastructure.

Present your group findings. Then, as a class, discuss the positive and negative consequences of these changes for India. How would they have influenced the development of nationalism in India?

Japan – the nature and effects of contact with European powers

European traders had been visiting Japan since the mid-1500s. Then in 1635, the *shogun* issued the Closure Edict, banning all European ships from entering Japanese waters (except for Dutch ships which had limited access to islands off the mainland). The Edict was designed to stop foreign influence, particularly the influence of Christian missionaries who asked converted Japanese to give their loyalty to the Pope, a foreigner, before their loyalty to the *shogun*. As a result of the Edict, Japan was cut off from the influences of the outside world for more than two centuries.

One of the most dramatic changes in Japanese history came in 1853 with the arrival of a fleet of American warships commanded by Commodore Matthew Perry. The United States had been unhappy with the treatment of American sailors who had been shipwrecked on the shores of Japan (any shipwrecked sailors were killed), and they wanted Japan to open its doors to trade. After several weeks of negotiations, the Japanese reluctantly agreed to Perry's demands, signing the Treaty of Kanagawa in 1854 which granted some trading rights to the Americans. This signalled the beginning of the dramatic modernisation of Japan.

One factor that played a role in Japan's acceptance of modernisation and Commodore Perry's demands was its willingness to borrow and adapt ideas from other cultures. For example, the Japanese had borrowed freely from Chinese culture. This was very different from the attitude of China's rulers, who believed that Chinese ways were superior. In the 1850s, the Qing emperor was continuing to insist that China did not need any ideas, goods or technology from the West.



Source 0.24 To celebrate the signing of the 1854 treaty, the Americans and the Japanese exchanged gifts. The Americans brought champagne and whiskey, an electric telegraph system, and a working model steam train, depicted in this painting.

APPLY 0.14

- 1 What point do you think the USA was making to Japanese officials when they presented them with the gifts shown in Source 0.24?
- 2 Japan's decision in 1853 to modernise and open trade was influenced by its willingness to accept ideas from other cultures. Discuss how the following aspects may also have played a role:
 - a China's humiliating defeat by the British in the First Opium War (1839–1842), after which European powers took control of territories and key ports in China.
 - b Japan's feudal system, which was headed by military leaders, compared to the ruling class in China who came from the ranks of Confucian scholars.

The Meiji Restoration

Other 'unequal treaties' were signed between Japan and various Western powers over the next decade, causing many Japanese to recognise that there was little they could do to prevent the increasing influence of foreigners. It encouraged many Japanese to think about making changes to their system of government, in the hope this would lead to faster modernisation, and put Japan in a stronger position in dealing with foreigners.

In 1868, a brief rebellion by rival clans of the Tokugawa family ended 200 years of rule by the Tokugawa shogunate. This change of government was known as the **Meiji Restoration**, named for the Meiji Emperor, a 17-year-old who came to the throne in 1867 after the death of his father, the previous emperor. (Meiji means 'enlightened rule'.) Most of the power rested with the new emperor's advisers and officials, all from the Satsuma and Choshu clans who had caused the downfall of the Tokugawa *shogun*. The Meiji government modernised and Westernised Japan.

Key reforms:

- creation of a modern navy based on the British Royal navy
- creation of a new army, the Imperial Guard, following the German model; the Imperial army were equipped with modern firearms and bolstered by the introduction of nationwide military conscription
- use of the latest technologies in their local industries
- creation of a new Ministry of Education, which ensured that new schools and universities taught Western science alongside traditional Japanese subjects; the schools were based on the German model, taken from the German state of Prussia
- abandonment of the traditional class system, with government roles no longer being restricted only to the *daimyo* and *samurai* classes
- adoption of a constitution based on the German model, which introduced a limited form of representative government.

Source 0.25 Key reforms of the Meiji government

Not all Japanese were happy with the changes. Changes that opened up the military to all classes undermined the status of the *samurai*. The greatest insult was the prohibition against wearing the long and short swords that were symbols of a *samurai*'s honour and class. In 1877, *samurai* from the Satsuma clan rose in revolt – an event known as the Satsuma Rebellion (see Source 0.27). Although vastly outnumbered by the Imperial Japanese Army, the *samurai* forces fought so fiercely that the war lasted for eight months before they were surrounded and defeated. From a force of 15 000 *samurai* rebels, only 40 survived.



Source 0.26 The school uniforms often worn by Japanese students today, a military style jacket for boys and a kind of sailor suit for girls, are a legacy of the Prussian model of schooling introduced during the Meiji Restoration.



Source 0.27 A still from *The Last Samurai*, a film inspired by the events of the Satsuma Rebellion

In the last two decades of the 19th century, modernisation and reform continued in Japan. It had an army and a navy to rival many other modern powers. By 1893, Japan was in a position to negotiate an end of the 'unequal treaties' and became a full member of the community of nations. An example of this was the military alliance made between Britain and Japan in 1902. Both nations promised to come to one another's aid in the event of war. The treaty stayed in place for 20 years.

Wars with China and Russia

While Japan was negotiating the unequal treaties with the West, it also sought to increase its influence in Asia. In 1894, a quarrel with China over competing influence in Korea erupted into war. Traditionally, Korea paid tribute only to China, although Korea was geographically very close to Japan as well (see Source O.17).

Although China was a much larger country with many more soldiers and ships, Japan won nearly every battle. Japan's smaller force of troops was better equipped and organised. After destroying much of the Chinese fleet, Japanese troops captured the Korean city of Pyongyang and crossed into China.

In 1895, the Chinese were forced to accept defeat, signing the Treaty of Shimonoseki with Japan. Historians claim this was an 'unequal treaty', similar to the treaties Japan had been fighting to revise with the Western powers. Its terms included handing over control of Taiwan and the Liaodong Peninsula to Japan. The peninsula was strategically important, as it guarded the sea route to Beijing, the Chinese capital. China also agreed to open several ports to Japanese trade and pay vast sums of silver *taels* as compensation for war costs.



Source 0.28 Japanese soldiers landing in China during the Sino-Japanese War, 1894–1895.

APPLY 0.15

- 1 What evidence could Source 0.28 provide about Japan's efforts to modernise after the Meiji Restoration?

The Russo-Japanese War (1904–1905) was further proof of Japan's success in modernising its military forces. The eyes of the world focused on the dramatic success of the Japanese fleet when they destroyed the Russian fleet in a naval battle in the Tsushima Strait, located between Japan and Korea. Impressively, just 51 years earlier the Japanese had submitted to Commodore Perry's warships without firing a shot. Victory over the Russians showed that Japan had become a modern power.

The Russo-Japanese war had been caused by the conflicting interests over territories in East Asia, at a time when China's Qing Dynasty was in decline. The Russians had established a powerful naval base at Port Arthur (now known as Lüshunkou) on the Liaodong Peninsula, which Japan had been forced to give up after the Sino-Japanese War. Both countries wanted to control Korea. After negotiations broke down in February 1904, the Japanese navy under the command of Admiral Togo Heihachiro launched a surprise attack on Port Arthur, where Japanese torpedos and battleship fire badly damaged the unsuspecting Russian fleet. Two days later, Japan declared war.

In October 1904, Russia sent its eastern fleet, based on the Baltic Sea, on a 3000-kilometre journey westward to challenge the Japanese. The Russian fleet, made up of 42 warships, took six months to complete the journey. The Russians were hoping to reach Port Arthur without encountering the Japanese navy, to undergo repairs after the long journey. However Admiral Togo and his fleet intercepted them in the Tsushima Strait. The Russian fleet was forced to fight and the Japanese victory was decisive. The Russian Admiral was captured and the Russians lost most of their fleet.

The war went just as badly for the Russians on land. At this time, the beginning of a political revolution in Russia was challenging the rule of the Tsar, and news of the disastrous defeat and loss of Port Arthur stimulated further social unrest. Russia signed a peace treaty in which they ceded control of the Liaodong Peninsula and accepted Japan's dominant influence in Korea.



Source 0.29 Admiral Togo Heihachiro

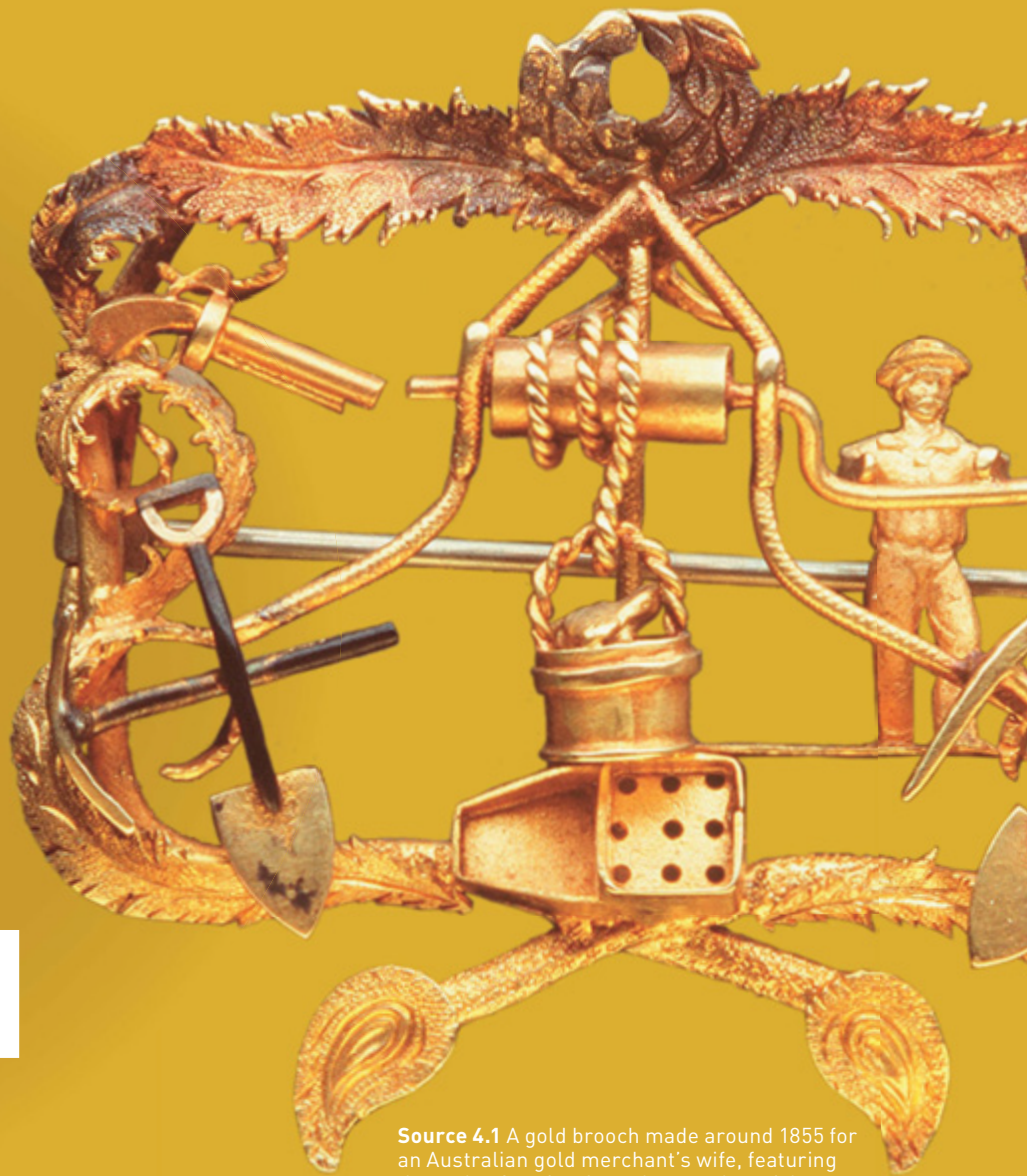
STRANGE BUT TRUE

As the Russian ships passed through the English Channel in 1904, they sighted a small fleet of boats. Thinking they were Japanese boats about to launch another surprise torpedo attack, the Russians opened fire. They sank a fishing boat, killing two of its crew, and creating an incident that brought Britain and Russia to the brink of war.

APPLY 0.16

- 1 What were the key factors that influenced the speed of Japanese modernisation?
- 2 Describe the changes in Japan that followed the Meiji Restoration.
- 3 What were the consequences of the Meiji Restoration for Togo Heihachiro?
- 4 Use the information above and your own research about the Russo-Japanese War to complete the following:
 - a Outline the events that led up to the Russo-Japanese War.
 - b Identify the long-term consequences of the Russo-Japanese War for Japan, and explain why it is a significant event in Japanese history.
- 5 Discuss how contact with Europeans and the Meiji reforms would have influenced the development of nationalism in Japan.
- 6 Conduct research to find out about Japan's role in World War I. On whose side did Japan fight and what did they propose during the 1919 peace conference negotiations that led to the Treaty of Versailles?

4



Source 4.1 A gold brooch made around 1855 for an Australian gold merchant's wife, featuring the tools of a miner's trade – spades, pickaxes, a winch and bucket, and a cradle for separating gold from river water

MAKING A NATION

From the 17th century onwards, European explorers started mapping a continent they eventually named *Terra Australis* (a Latin term meaning 'southern land'). This continent later became known as Australia.

Before European settlement, Australia was home to more than 300 separate Indigenous Australian communities, each with its own language and culture. Starting in 1788, people from around the world began arriving in Australia to establish settlements and explore the uncharted continent.

This chapter will explore European settlement in Australia, and analyse the impact of this on both the land and the original inhabitants. We will also examine the lives of European and non-European settlers in colonies within Australia. Finally, we will look at how and why Australia federated, and consider some of the key legislation passed by the new national governments between 1901 and 1914 that helped shape modern Australia.

SECTION

- » outline the expansion of European settlement on a map of Aboriginal Australia to 1900
- » describe the impact of European settlement on the landscape, and how the landscape affected European settlement
- » use a range of sources to describe contact experiences between European settlers and Indigenous peoples

4.2

- » describe how non-Europeans lived and worked in Australia
- » describe the contribution made by non-European workers to the development of Australia

4.3

- » use a range of sources to investigate the living and working conditions of men, women and children in Australia around 1900

4.4

- » explain how and why Federation was achieved in 1901
- » outline state and federal responsibilities under the Australian Constitution
- » discuss the consequences of the introduction of the Australian Constitution for the rights of women and Aboriginal people
 - » identify key features of the Harvester Judgement, pensions legislation and the *Immigration Restriction Act*
- » discuss what these reforms and legislation reveal about the kind of society the Australian government aimed to create
 - » assess the impact of this legislation on Australian society in this period

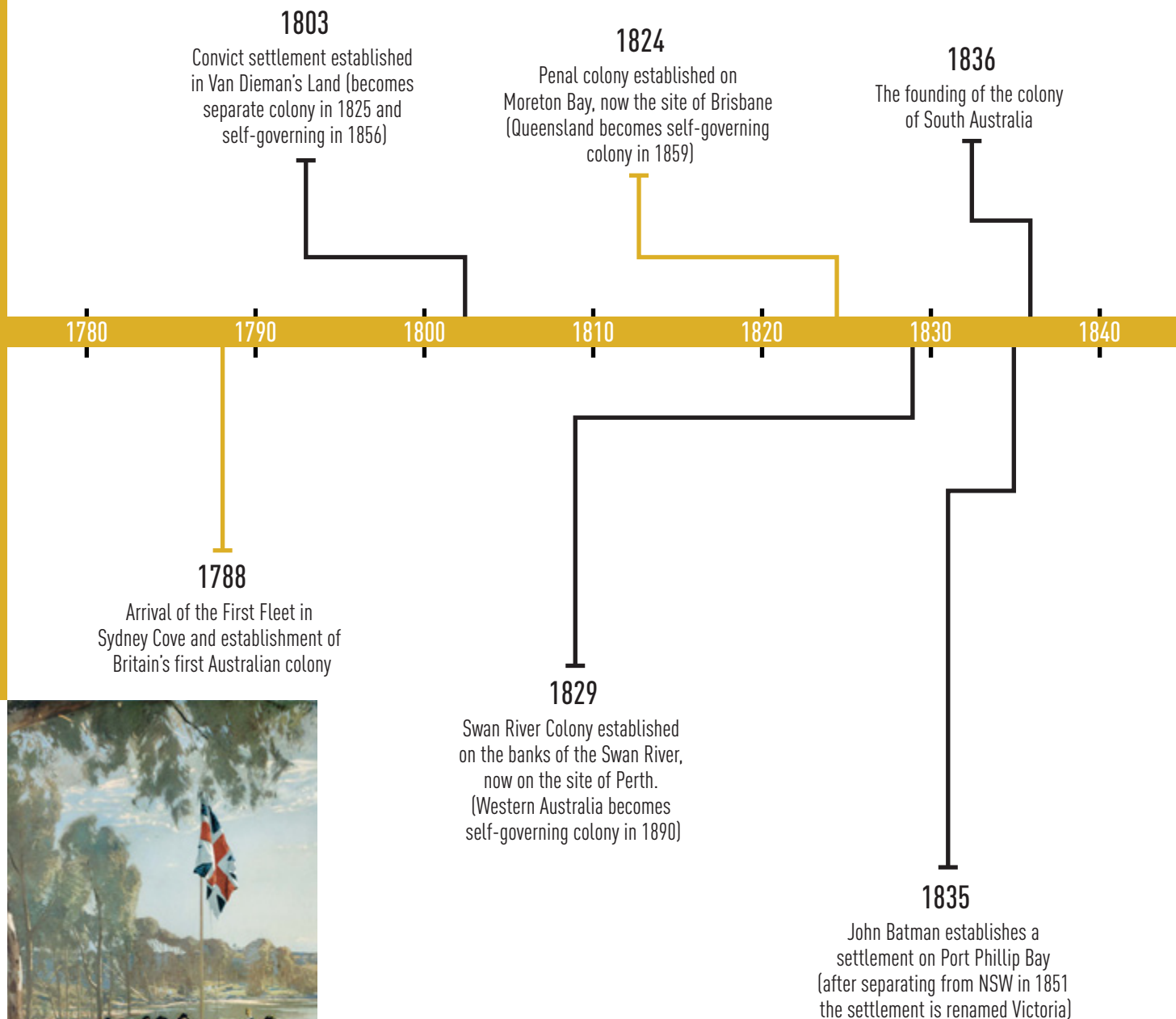
||||| CHECKPOINT 4.4

MAKING A NATION – A TIMELINE



Source 4.2 View of Moreton Bay penal colony, now the location of Brisbane

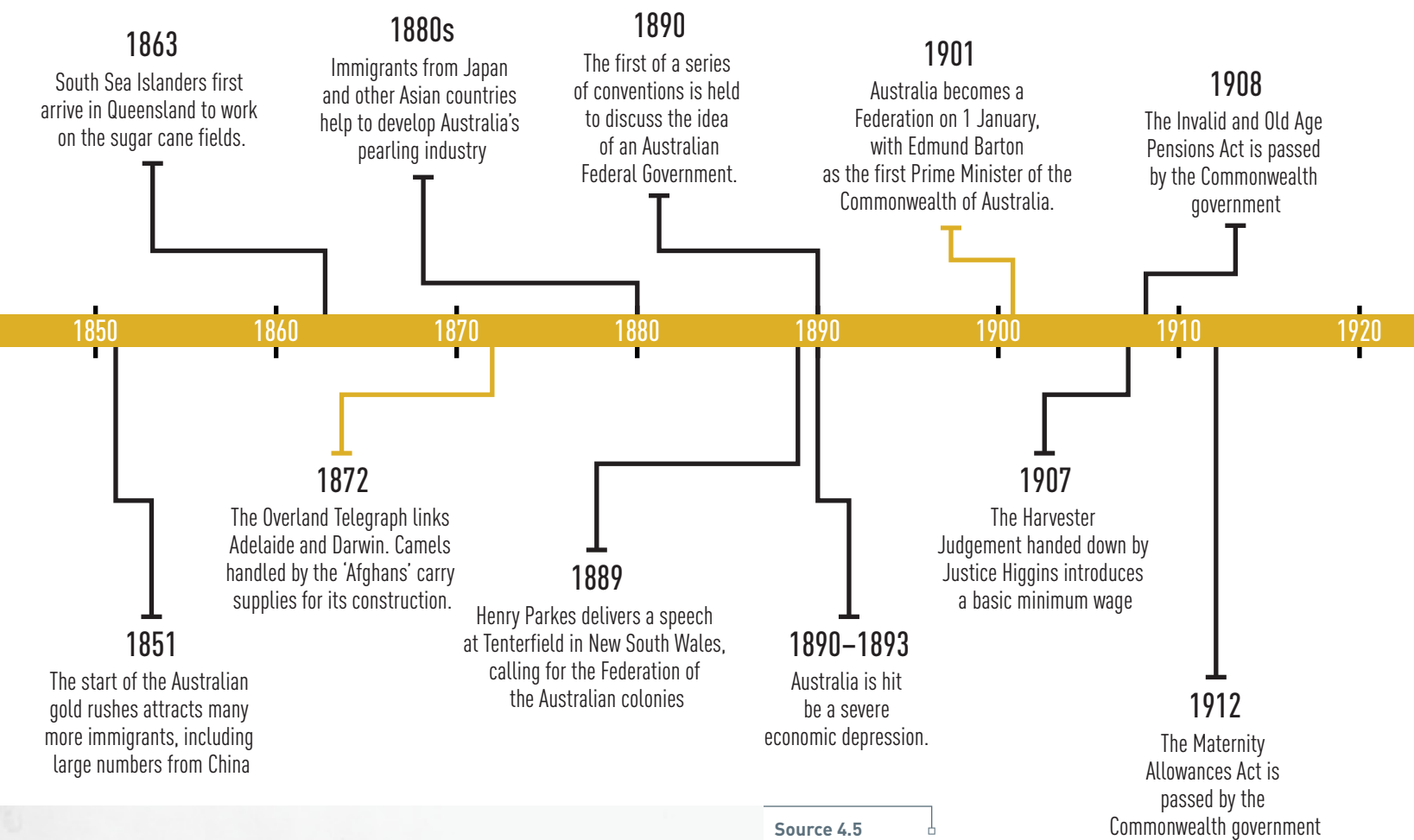
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Source 4.3 Detail from a painting depicting the founding of the first penal colony at Sydney Cove



Source 4.4 Detail from Tom Roberts' painting of the opening of the first Commonwealth Parliament



Source 4.5
Afghan cameleers



REVIEW 4.1

- 1 When were the colonies of New South Wales, Moreton Bay and Swan River established?
- 2 How many years were there between the initial settlement of Port Phillip Bay and Victoria becoming a self-governing colony?
- 3 Name two important pieces of legislation passed by the Commonwealth government in the early years of Federation.

4.1

SECTION

WHERE DID EUROPEANS SETTLE IN AUSTRALIA AND WHAT WERE THE EFFECTS OF CONTACT WITH INDIGENOUS PEOPLES?

In this section you will explore the patterns of European settlement in Australia and consider how this process affected Indigenous Australians. You will also be encouraged to think about how the actions of the settlers affected the landscape, and how the landscape affected both the settlers and the type of society that they established.

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT IN AUSTRALIA

APPLY 4.1

- 1 In your own words, briefly describe some of the main reasons why Britain chose to establish colonies in Australia.

The British government established colonies in Australia for a range of reasons. One was to provide a place of punishment for many of the convicts in Britain's overcrowded jails. The dramatic increase in the number of criminals was largely a consequence of Britain's changing economy and society during the **Industrial Revolution**. After Britain lost control of some of its colonies after the American War of Independence in 1783, it needed a new place to send its growing convict population. In addition to this, the Australian colonies would become a great source of wealth and raw materials for British government and industry, providing timber and flax for shipbuilding, and then wool, minerals and grains later on.

The process of European settlement in Australia was gradual. The first permanent European settlement was the penal colony at Sydney Cove, established after the arrival of the First Fleet in 1788. The fleet's commander, Captain Arthur Phillip, became the governor of Britain's first colony in Australia – New South Wales. Over the next century, other colonies were established around the continent. Settlers followed explorers, and convict societies gradually developed into free settlements.



Source 4.6 An artist's impression of the founding of the first Australian colony at Sydney Cove

The arrival of Australia's first European settlers

The First Fleet arrived in Sydney Cove on January 26, 1788 after an eight-month voyage. The 11 ships of the fleet brought over 1500 people to this new world. This number included more than 700 convicts, as well as officers, marines, ships' crew and their families. These first settlers found survival difficult. They had arrived in the height of summer and were unused to the harsh climate and conditions. Most had come from urban rather than rural backgrounds. In its first two years, the colony came very close to collapsing through starvation, inadequate shelter and a lack of appropriate equipment. The arrival of supplies with the Second Fleet in June 1790 saved the young settlement, but times remained harsh. Farms were almost able to support the New South Wales population after five years, with government farms established in the more fertile area of Rose Hill (later renamed Parramatta).



Source 4.7 A view of Government Farm at Rose Hill, New South Wales, 1791

Terra nullius

For most of the 20th century it was generally accepted, and taught in schools, that Australia had been a ***terra nullius*** before the arrival of Europeans. This concept of *terra nullius*, a Latin phrase which means 'land belonging to no one' or 'empty land', acted as a justification for the settlement of Australia. It was the belief of Europeans that, because the Indigenous people did not appear to have a concept of land ownership, they had no rights to the land. In fact, Australia had been occupied by Indigenous Australians for at least 60 000 years before the arrival of the first Europeans. In the 1970s, Henry Reynolds, and then other historians, challenged or contested the traditional view that Australia had been an 'empty land', inhabited with few people, and that British settlement had been peaceful. He pointed to the violence that had been a feature of the Australian frontier from Sydney to Perth and from Hobart to Darwin as Indigenous Australians fought to defend their homelands.

In recent times, non-Indigenous Australia has finally come to accept the fact that European Australians are the newcomers, who made their homes on land that originally belonged to someone else. European Australians are described by historian David Day as a 'supplanting society' (see Source 4.9); that is, a society that takes over the lands of another and supplants or replaces them as the group in control.



Source 4.8 A cartoon that reflects the reality of European settlement in Australia. The land did in fact already belong to Indigenous Australians.

APPLY 4.2

- 1 Outline what you think Source 4.6 says about British attitudes towards claiming Australia. What does it reveal about their view of the rights of Indigenous peoples? By comparison, how does Source 4.8 challenge these attitudes?

The claim of Europeans to the Australian continent

Source 4.9

There are three different layers to the claim of proprietorship [ownership] that European Australians have tried to establish over the continent. The first is a legal claim ... when, for instance, a flag is run up a pole by the discoverer of a new land ... or on the basis of conquest. The second is a claim of effective proprietorship ... by the physical occupation of that land, the dispossession of its original inhabitants ... The third is a claim of moral proprietorship, which ... comes into existence, usually over an extended period of time, as the supplanting society gradually develops links to the landscape and realises there is no other place it can call 'home' ... a claim of moral proprietorship requires the descendants of the original inhabitants ... to acknowledge that the supplanting society has established a legitimate claim to the land ...

Extract from David Day, *Claiming a Continent: A History of Australia*, Angus & Robertson 1996, pp. 2–3

INTERPRET 4.1

- 1 Outline the three layers to the claim that European Australians have tried to establish ownership of the continent of Australia.
- 2 Do you believe these three layers make Britain's claim to Australia legitimate? What other perspectives could there be?
- 3 Explain which layers Sources 4.6 and 4.7 represent.

APPLY 4.3

- 1 As a class, discuss how the Aboriginal perspective of the land compared with the European perspective. What implications did these differences have for future relations between the two groups?

Australia's Indigenous communities

It is important to note that the original inhabitants of Australia did not think of themselves in terms of one unified group or nation, but rather in terms of separate communities (see Source 4.10). Each of these communities had its own language and clearly defined territory. The first Indigenous communities faced with the British invasion and settlement of their lands in New South Wales in 1788 were the Eora or Dharug.

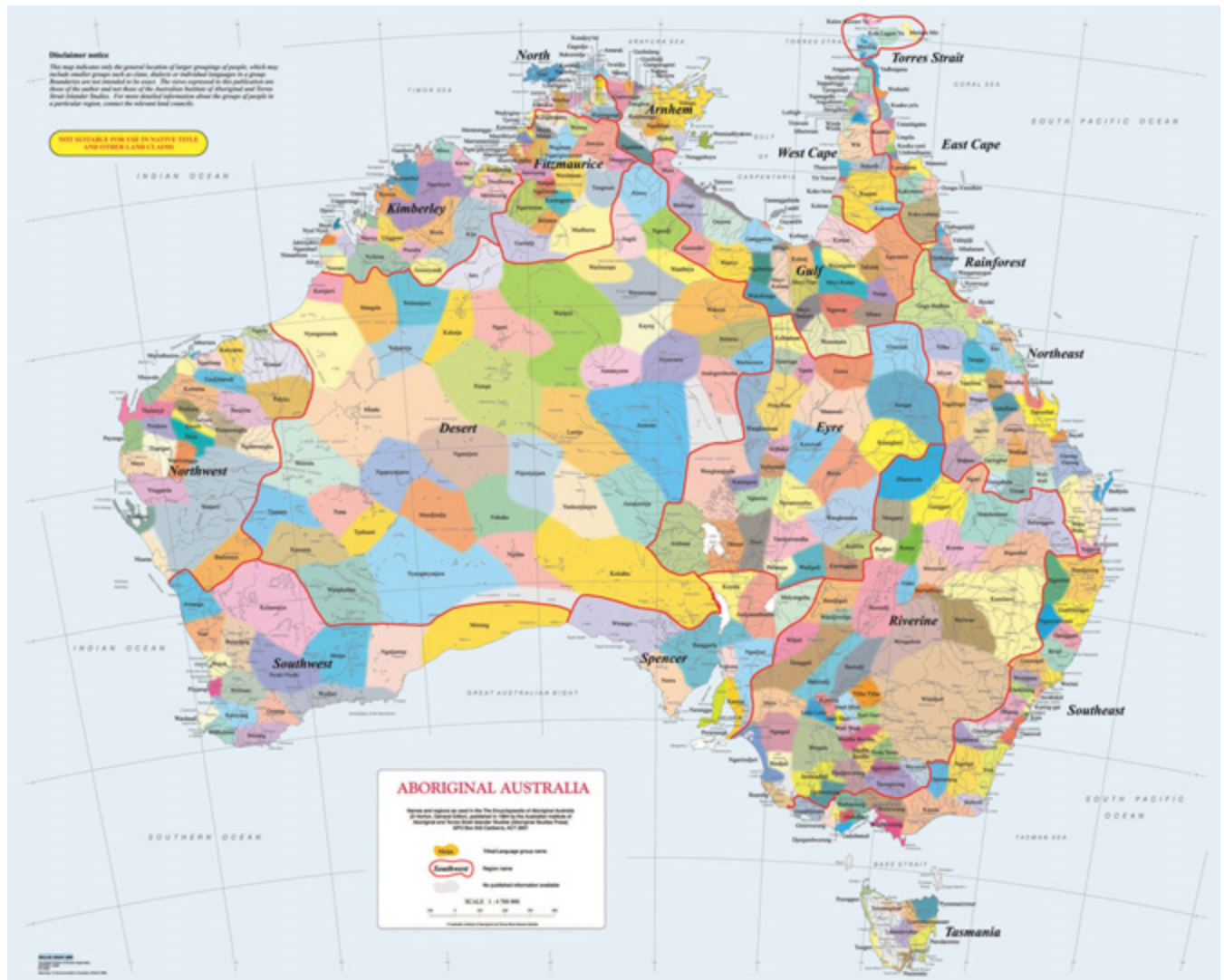
Indigenous Australians have a very strong bond with the land, which they saw as the source of their physical, social and spiritual needs. However, their relationship with the land was completely different to the European settlers' concept of land ownership, and they saw no necessity to show possession by fencing or building permanent structures.

Indigenous communities



Source 4.10

Photos taken in the 19th century showing people from Australia's diverse Indigenous communities



Source 4.11 The more than 300 Indigenous Australian communities that existed before European settlement

INTERPRET 4.2

- 1 Explain how Sources 4.10 and 4.11:
 - a challenge the idea of *terra nullius*
 - b highlight the difficulties associated with describing the original inhabitants of Australia in 1788 as 'Aboriginal' or 'Aborigines'.

REVIEW 4.2

- 1 When did the First Fleet arrive at Sydney Cove?
- 2 Outline the difficulties the First Fleet faced in establishing a settlement.
- 3 What does *terra nullius* mean?
- 4 According to the historian David Day, why can Australia be called a 'supplanting society'?
- 5 Identify the evidence that shows Australia was culturally diverse before 1788.

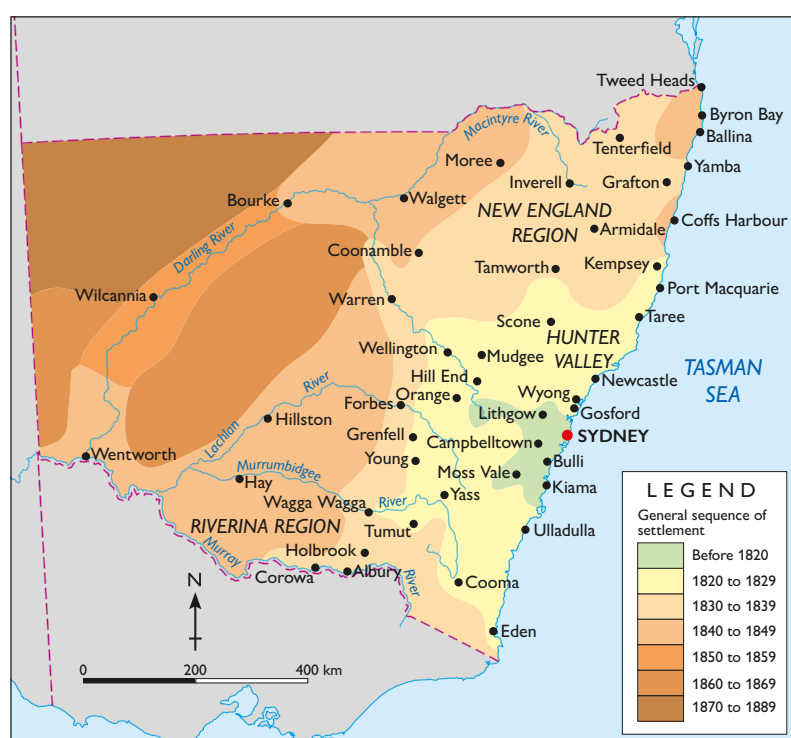
THE EXPANSION OF EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT

New South Wales

Until about 1810, the colony of New South Wales was confined to an area not much more than 100 kilometres in any direction from Sydney. The crossing of the Blue Mountains by explorers William Wentworth, Gregory Blaxland and William Lawson in 1813 enabled settlement to expand inland. Other explorers followed, and by 1850 most of modern-day New South Wales had been opened up for settlement. The land was cleared, and pastoral settlements and small towns were established (see Source 4.12).

SOURCE STUDY

Expansion of settlement in New South Wales



Source 4.12 The broad sequence of settlement of New South Wales from 1788 to 1870

Source 4.13

In some districts, settlement quickly followed European exploration, as the purpose of many explorations was primarily the search for grazing land ... In such cases, initial settlement was most frequently pastoral, often illegal, and certainly running ahead of the surveyors and other government officials, at least in the earlier periods. On the other hand, many coastal areas were first settled by cedar-getters, especially in the North Coast river valleys, where such activity both harvested valuable timber and made cleared land available for grazing or agricultural uses. Other localised areas were opened for settlement by miners, as at Kiandra in the Snowy Mountains, or by agriculturalists, although the latter almost always followed graziers as a second wave of more intense settlement ...

Extract from *Atlas of New South Wales*

INTERPRET 4.3

- 1 Use Source 4.12 to identify the period when these New South Wales towns were established: Albury, Bourke, Grafton, Hay, Lithgow, Moree, Mudgee, Newcastle, Port Macquarie, Wagga Wagga.
- 2 Identify the main reasons why European settlements expanded outwards from Sydney.
- 3 Explain why the north coast of New South Wales was originally settled. Why would it be important for these early settlements to be located on rivers?
- 4 What short- and long-term difficulties could there be for the government if searches for grazing land were 'often illegal, and certainly running ahead of the surveyors and other government officials'?

Expansion of settlement in other colonies of Australia

Between 1792 and 1803, the expeditions of George Bass and Matthew Flinders explored and mapped the coasts of Victoria, Van Diemen's Land (later named Tasmania), South Australia and Western Australia. The first **circumnavigation** of the continent by Flinders in 1802 to 1803 filled in the gaps in mapping Australia's coastline, and helped the British government in planning further settlements around the continent.

Van Diemen's Land

The first European settlement in Van Diemen's Land was made at Risdon Cove on the Derwent River. In September 1803, 50 convicts arrived from New South Wales and were joined in early 1804 by over 400 colonists and convicts from the abandoned colony at Sorrento (in Victoria). The settlement was moved to Hobart, which was to become one of the harshest of the convict settlements.

Over the next 20 years, the colony developed and prospered. Free settlers and ex-convicts helped to establish a sheep-grazing industry, sealing and whaling stations, and secondary industries such as milling, brewing and brick-making. In 1825, Van Diemen's Land, which had been part of New South Wales, became a colony in its own right. It achieved the right to self-government in 1854.

Queensland

In 1824, a convict settlement was established on the shore of Moreton Bay, which was later 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 it became increasingly difficult to stop them. The area offered fertile soil and good grazing pastures, and was very attractive to colonists from New South Wales. In 1838, the decision was made to allow free settlers into the area, and the following year the penal settlement was closed. The area remained part of New South Wales until the colony of Queensland was officially proclaimed in 1859.



Source 4.14 A hand-coloured etching showing a convict being flogged at Moreton Bay in 1836.

Western Australia

Western Australia's first European settlement at King George Sound in 1826 was prompted by a fear that the French were interested in colonising the area. In 1829, the Swan River colony was established and, unlike settlements in New South Wales, Hobart and Moreton Bay, the new colony was to be a free settlement. 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 so low that most free settlers became farmers, leaving few to work for wages.

Convicts were first sent to the Swan River colony in 1850 to provide a labour force, at a time when convict transportation was being phased out in the east. Nearly 10 000 convicts, all of them male, were transported there between 1850 and 1868. Convict labour was an important element in the economy of the west, most working on public buildings, roads and bridges. They then provided a much-needed labour force for the free settlers after they had gained their freedom.



Source 4.15 An artist's impression of the view at the Swan River Colony in Western Australia

The Port Phillip District (Victoria)

The colonisation of Victoria was driven by free settlers rather than convicts. Some convicts were brought from Van Diemen's Land and New South Wales, but they were never a significant part of the population.

The first attempt to settle what would become Victoria was made at Sorrento, near the mouth of Port Phillip Bay, in 1803. However, a lack of fresh water led to the settlement's abandonment after only a few months. In 1834, the Henty brothers settled illegally in the area around Portland. A year later, Melbourne (originally called Bearbrass) was founded. John Batman crossed Bass Strait from Tasmania and explored the area around the Yarra River. He claimed to have made a pact with the local Indigenous communities in 1835, purchasing the land from them.

From the late 1830s, assisted migrants were brought to the colony to provide a labour force. Such was the opportunity offered in the colony that by 1850, one in five of these assisted migrants had become landowners. The Port Phillip colony grew quickly, largely through the profits from wool. Many immigrants brought their flocks from Van Diemen's Land and New South Wales and took up pastoral leases in the Western District and Gippsland.



Source 4.16 John Batman's treaty with the Aborigines in 1835 (painted by JW Burt in 1885 to mark the 50th anniversary of the treaty)

Source 4.17 A description of the treaty by John Batman

I purchased two large tracts of land from them – about 600 000 acres, more or less – and delivered over to them blankets, knives, looking-glasses, tomahawks, beads, scissors, flour, etc. as payment for the land, and also agreed to give them a tribute, or rent, yearly.

Extract from Michael Cannon, *Australia: Spirit of a nation*, 1985

INTERPRET 4.4

- 1 If John Batman's description of the treaty in Source 4.17 is accurate, what implications might this have had for the concept of *terra nullius*?
- 2 Analyse Source 4.16 and explain the perspectives that are presented. How reliable do you think the source is? Explain your response.
- 3 Explain how the High Court of Australia might be able to rely on these sources during an investigation into native title claims on Australian land.

APPLY 4.4

- 1 At the time of Batman's treaty, the area around Port Phillip Bay was still part of the colony of New South Wales. Discuss why the governor of New South Wales at that time dismissed Batman's treaty, even accusing him of trespassing on 'the vacant land of the Crown'.

EXTEND 4.1

- 1 The question of exactly who founded the city of Melbourne would appear straightforward. Historians, however, have different perspectives. Analyse the evidence for the claims of John Batman, John Pascoe Fawkner and John Lancey. In a 200-word text, explain who you think deserves the credit, citing at least two historical sources.

Melbourne developed as a processing centre and port for the export of wool. By 1850, it was an impressive city of 22 000 people, with many fine streets and buildings, an art gallery, theatres, hospitals and schools, and beautiful botanical gardens.

In 1851, under the Australian Colonies Government Act, the colony of Port Phillip was separated from New South Wales and renamed Victoria after the reigning monarch. Following the discovery of gold in August 1851, Victoria was to become one of the richest and most progressive of the Australian colonies.

South Australia

South Australia was established by an Act of British Parliament in 1834 and settled in 1836 on the banks of Adelaide's Torrens River. The colony was based on a plan by Edward Gibbon Wakefield to create an ideal society. It was to be convict free; land was to be sold at a reasonable price and the revenue was to be used to bring out emigrants who would become a labouring class.

Adelaide was one of the first towns built. Its design, with a regular grid of streets and the border of parklands surrounding the city, makes Adelaide one of the best-planned cities in the world.

The early economy of the new town relied primarily on sheep farming. During the 1840s, the South Australian colony spread further inland when deposits of copper were discovered at Burra in 1845. In the 1840s, the foundations of the wine industry were laid, by German immigrants in the Barossa Valley and Irish settlers in the Clare Valley.

Unlike the other colonies, South Australia was not based on the doctrine of *terra nullius*. Britain's Colonisation Commission acknowledged the existence of the Indigenous people and stated that no settler could interfere with their enjoyment or use of the land. However, this proposal was not taken into consideration by South Australia's governors when regulating land sales in the new colony.



Source 4.18 Rundle Street, Adelaide, c. 1865

EXTEND 4.2

- 1 Select *ONE* of the following aspects of convict life to investigate:
 - The journey to Sydney
 - Life in the colony of New South Wales for a convict
 - Life in the colony of New South Wales for a free settler.
- 2 Create an audio-visual presentation to deliver the findings of your research. This can take the form of a PowerPoint presentation or a short video. Your presentation should be 2 or 3 minutes in length and include at least one primary and one secondary source.

APPLY 4.5

Use the information in the text and your own knowledge or research to complete this activity.

- 1 Label a blank map of Australia as shown in Source 4.19 to show:
 - a areas first settled in each state
 - b the years of initial settlement.
- 2 Identify the names of the Indigenous communities that lived in the areas first settled in each state.
- 3 Write a brief description of first settlement and the spread of settlement across each state, including the roles played by convicts and settlers.
- 4 Locate and label on the map:
 - a the main city in each state
 - b the first national capital in 1901
 - c the present national capital and the year it was established.
- 5 Create a timeline that shows:
 - the year of first European settlement in each state
 - the year in which the original colony was established
 - the year in which the colony became independent or self-governing.

For each colony, use your timeline to identify the number of years between self-government and Federation in 1901.

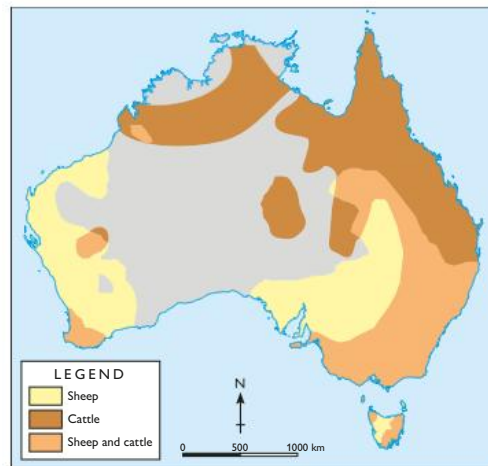


Source 4.19 Australia and its state borders

Establishing Australian agriculture

Settlers such as the Henty family in Victoria, who occupied land without official ownership, were known as **squatters**. They occupied the land with their sheep and cattle, and laid claim to thousands of square kilometres of prime grazing land, with access to the best water sources. Squatters lived on the frontiers, out of the reach of government regulation, and were often the first to explore unmapped areas of inland Australia. By the 1830s, sheep stations stretched for 1600 kilometres from southern Queensland to South Australia.

In 1836, the New South Wales colonial government legitimised squatting by charging a pound an acre. Large landholdings developed, and wheat and wool became two crucial products that generated much of Australia's wealth. The farms of squatters developed rural Australia, and squatters could become very wealthy. Modern rural Australia still reflects many of the settlement patterns and family histories of the squatter period.



Source 4.20 The main sheep and cattle grazing areas of Australia. European settlement patterns were influenced by the search for new grazing lands for sheep and cattle.

REVIEW 4.3

- 1 Which journey of exploration allowed the original colony of New South Wales to expand inland?
- 2 Who first circumnavigated Australia? When was this? Explain why it was significant.
- 3 Which is the only Australian state that can claim to have been founded completely by free settlers, not convicts?
- 4 Explain why a British settlement was established in Western Australia.
- 5 What was a squatter? Describe the contribution that squatters made to the development of Australia.

AUSTRALIA'S LANDSCAPE AND EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT

First settlements

The natural features of Australia's coastline were key factors in determining where settlements were first established. The main settlements in each colony were founded at places that provided fresh water for drinking and sheltered ports for ships bringing new settlers and supplies.

Settlement patterns and Australia's rivers

In coastal and inland Australia, the rivers influenced settlement patterns. Areas through which major rivers flowed attracted settlement earlier (see Source 4.22). The rivers and their tributaries provided a water supply for settlers and livestock. They were also an essential transport route for sending produce, such as wool, to trading centres and for sending food and other supplies inland. Settlements located on river mouths became centres of maritime trade, and some grew into Australia's major cities. Later, river geography influenced where railways and roads were developed, which itself influenced where towns and cities, as centres of commerce, were located.

Settlement patterns and the search for new grazing lands

The location of grasslands and sparsely treed woodlands also influenced the pattern of European settlement in Australia. Areas such as the Cumberland Plains, west of Sydney, and the Werribee Plains, to the west of Melbourne, were particularly attractive to graziers. Published accounts from the early 19th century indicate that the Werribee Plains, a vast expanse of natural grasslands, existed before European settlement (see Source 4.12). Regular burnings by Indigenous peoples helped to create this grassy landscape. John Batman and some other Europeans made note of the practices by Indigenous peoples to manage the environment in their territories, but other settlers may not have been as aware of them.

EXTEND 4.3

- 1 Investigate why the suburb, town or local area you live in is located where it is. Use the types of factors discussed in this section as the starting point for your research.

Source 4.21 Early settlers in Australia's interior depended on river transport for supplies, and to send their products to markets. These days, rivers are used for leisure. This photo shows houseboats moored along the Murray River.



'A land half won'

Up until the 1840s, European settlement still clung to the fertile coastal regions of the continent (see Source 4.22). Historian Geoffrey Blainey described the nature of settlement in Australia up to 1901 as 'a land half won'. In other words, the settlement of Australia was a gradual process, and Europeans took a long time to adjust to their new home. In 1901, most of the non-Indigenous Australians were still strangers in their new land. According to Blainey, many settlers still wanted to re-create parts of Britain in Australia. They planted European trees and brought in European animals in an attempt to turn Australia into something more familiar.



Source 4.22 The limits of settlement and frontier in Australia in 1840

The Australian landscape and European settlement

SOURCE STUDY

Source 4.23

While failing at first to notice the abiding attachment the Aborigines had to their land, the Europeans also looked upon the alien landscape without appreciating the ways in which it had been fashioned over the millennia to meet Aboriginal needs. They described the relatively fertile Cumberland Plain west of Sydney, with its widely spaced, tall trees and luxuriant grasses, as being like an English deer park without acknowledging the part Aborigines may have played with their use of firestick farming ... they seized upon the lightly treed grasslands for their livestock and crops.

Extract from David Day, *Claiming a Continent: A History of Australia*, Angus & Robertson 1996, pp. 51



Source 4.24 A recent photo taken by research scientists in the Werribee Plains area shows how the landscape is likely to have appeared before European settlement. These parts of the Werribee plains are now 'rare relics' as most of the area is now used for agricultural or urban purposes.

INTERPRET 4.5

- 1 Argue whether Aboriginal modification of the environment made it more or less difficult for Europeans to settle the inland part of Australia. Make sure you can support your response with evidence.
- 2 Do Sources 4.23 and 4.24 support or contest the view of Australia as *terra nullius* in 1788? Explain your point of view.

Impact of European settlement on the landscape

The agricultural practices of squatters and other settlers since 1788 had ongoing impacts on Australia's landscape and ecology. The clearing of native vegetation for agriculture, logging, and industrial and urban developments has not only changed the appearance of the

landscape across Australia, it has destroyed much of the natural habits of native

animals and plants. According to the State of the Environment report

(1996), vegetation cover in Australia has dramatically changed

since 1788. Over 40 per cent of forests have been cleared,

as well as 75 per cent of rainforests, and 90 per cent of

scrubland. In south-eastern Australia, more than 60 per

cent of coastal wetlands and more than 90 per cent of

grassland has been lost. In New South Wales, it has

been found that since 1788 around 60 per cent of

the original vegetation has been cleared, thinned or

substantially disturbed; and in some areas this has

exceeded 90 per cent.

Over-grazing and over-cropping has resulted in soil erosion, and the introduction of plant and animal species from Europe has led to the decline and extinction of many native animals. Rabbits, feral horses, goats, cats and pigs are some of the introduced species that still compete with Australia's native wildlife.



Source 4.25 Rabbits along a dingo fence in rural Australia. European rabbits were brought to Australia so they could be hunted for sport, but are now considered to be pests because of the damage they do to the environment and native animal populations.

APPLY 4.6

- 1 Conduct research to locate a definition of soil erosion, and find out how over-grazing and clearing contribute to this. Why is soil erosion bad for the environment?
- 2 Conduct research to find out how introduced species have affected the environment, including their impact on vegetation and native animals. Use your findings in a poster that would be effective in telling people how introduced species can harm the environment.

REVIEW 4.4

- 1 Identify the main requirements for the location of the first European settlements in Australia.
- 2 Explain the pattern of European settlement in the 19th century.
- 3 Why did the historian Geoffrey Blainey describe Australia in 1901 as a 'land half won'?
- 4 Describe the impact of Indigenous Australians on the environment up to 1788.
- 5 Describe the impact of Europeans on the environment since 1788.

AUSTRALIA'S DEVELOPMENT FROM THE MID-19TH CENTURY

Opening up the interior

By the 1860s, much of inland Australia had been mapped by explorers and the drier inland areas increasingly used as pasture for cattle and sheep. The land closer to the coast was used largely for agriculture. As settlers cleared more land, small towns were established and roads were built back to the main settlements to use for transporting wool and supplies. Ironically, the Europeans were unaware that they were benefiting from Aboriginal knowledge of the areas, even while they were taking over Aboriginal lands. Indigenous trails had been operating along the most accessible routes for thousands of years. Sheep farmers moved their livestock along these routes, and they often became the basis of the newly built roads.

Initially, inland travel was on horseback, by stagecoach or cattle cart. Over time, more efficient modes of transport were introduced. The first passenger railway, linking Melbourne and Sandridge (Port Melbourne), opened in September 1854. By 1860, all the colonies boasted busy ports in their capital city and colonists enjoyed regular communication through the network of steamships, railways and telegraph services that linked the eastern capital cities by the late 1850s.

The gold rushes

The population and prosperity of the Australian colonies were strongly boosted by the discovery of gold in the 1850s. Gold discoveries tripled the population of the colonies, particularly Victoria, attracting 622 000 people to Australia in the 10 years after 1851. Gold made Melbourne one of the richest cities in the British Empire and helped lay the foundations for the democratic nation that was to be established in 1901.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

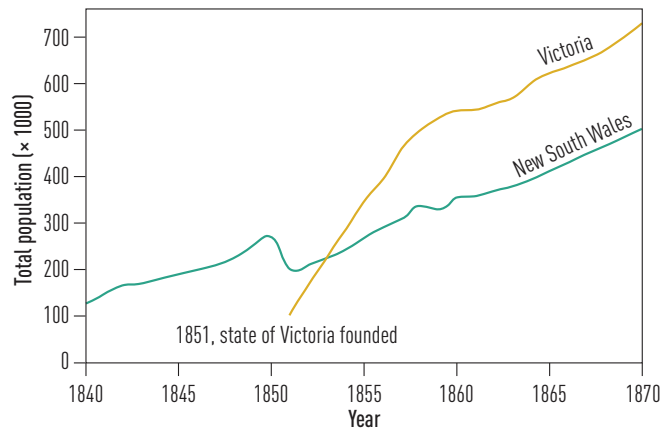
The gold exported from Melbourne in 1860 accounted for 5 per cent of the revenue for the entire British Empire.



Source 4.26 This painting created in 1851 shows a view of the goldfields in Ballarat, in the colony of Victoria.

APPLY 4.7

- 1 Read the section under the heading 'Impact of the gold rush settlers' in section 2.4 of Chapter 2 Movement of Peoples. In a written report of about 200 words, assess the impact of the gold rushes on Australia's development in the 19th century.



Source 4.27 The dramatic jump in the population of New South Wales and Victoria in the 20 years following the discovery of gold in Australia. Victoria's population continued to surpass the population of New South Wales until 1884.

SOURCE STUDY

Impact of the gold rushes

Source 4.28 An illustration of Melbourne in 1838 as it was before the gold rush



Source 4.29 An illustration of Melbourne in 1860 as it was after the start of the gold rush



INTERPRET 4.6

- 1 In your notebook, complete the following table based on your observations of these two sources.

Continuities	Changes

- 2 Explain how these sources help you understand the way Europeans impacted on the Australian environment.
- 3 What evidence do these sources present to support the suggestion that the Gold Rushes made Melbourne Australia's richest city?
- 4 What other evidence would be required to come to firm historical conclusions?

REVIEW 4.5

- 1 Explain the difference between pasture and agriculture.
- 2 Identify the means Australians had to communicate with each other by the 1850s.
- 3 Explain how the gold rushes changed Australia.

CONTACT EXPERIENCES BETWEEN EUROPEAN SETTLERS AND INDIGENOUS PEOPLES

The advance of pastoralists with their sheep and cattle into the inland invaded the home lands of Indigenous Australians in all states and territories. The results were violence, frontier conflict and **dispossession**.

Dispossession meant more to Indigenous Australians than the physical loss of land and homes, or the loss of livelihood. For Indigenous Australians, it meant the destruction of a way of life and an attack on their spiritual and cultural heritage.

The response of the Indigenous Australian communities to the advancement of European settlement varied across the continent, but it is possible to identify certain stages:

- 1 The first stage was often shock. The Europeans had pale skin, they wore strange clothes, brought new and unusual animals – and had powerful weapons.
- 2 Initial shock then often gave way to a second stage of curiosity as some of the Indigenous Australians tried to learn more about the newcomers.
- 3 The third stage was almost always hostility. Violence often broke out when it became clear to the Indigenous Australians that the Europeans were here to stay.
- 4 The fourth stage was more complicated. Some dispossessed Indigenous communities simply moved away – although this meant moving on to the lands of another Indigenous community. Other Indigenous Australians adapted and learned to live with the Europeans. They managed to stay in contact with their country by working for the Europeans as stockmen. The historian Henry Reynolds has pointed out that the success of European settlement depended on the skills of Indigenous Australians as trackers and guides for explorers and early settlers. Few of the vast cattle stations established in inland Australia, for example, could have succeeded without the skills and cheap labour of Indigenous stockmen.

Violence on the Australian frontier

During the 19th century, the reality of frontier violence was widely acknowledged in almost all the country newspapers and other publications. The passage of time and the overwhelming numbers and resources of the Europeans meant that most Indigenous Australians had to compromise, blend in and adjust to European ways. The result was that, by 1901, the Indigenous Australian part of the national story was neglected. Australia developed a national forgetfulness about the violence that had existed on our frontiers.

Contact experiences: violence on the frontier

SOURCE STUDY

Source 4.30

[In an article published in the *Townsville Herald* on 2 February 1907] an old pioneer, using the [false name] 'H7H', boasted of his part in a punitive expedition [to punish a group of Indigenous Australians for stealing some cattle].

'In that wild yelling rushing mob, it was hard to avoid shooting the women and babies and there were men in that mob of whites who would ruthlessly destroy anything possessing a black hide.

'It may appear cold-blooded murder to some to wipe out a whole camp for killing perhaps a couple of bullocks, but then each member of the tribe must be held equally guilty and therefore it would be impossible to discriminate.'

Extract from Henry Reynolds, *Why Weren't We Told?*, 1999, pp 106–108

Source 4.31

A rare eyewitness account of an 1840s attack on a group of Indigenous men, women and children by white squatters on Queensland's Darling Downs has been acquired by the National Library of Australia ... Believed to be the only one of its kind, the pencil drawing depicts 11 squatters firing on a group of 25 Indigenous people of whom three appear to have been shot.

'Domville Taylor's documented presence in the precise area of battle and his own role as a squatter, together with the "presence" of the drawing, strongly suggest it is an eyewitness account of the attack,' Dr Ayres said. 'Eyewitness accounts of attacks by white settlers on Indigenous people are extremely rare.'

Extract from National Library of Australia, media release, 22 October 2010

Source 4.32

Occasionally bush-gossip let out that the 'black fellows were going to get a dose': and indeed, in more than one notorious instance, damper, well 'hocussed' with arsenic or strychnine, was laid in the way of the savages, whereby many were killed. Some attempts were made to bring to justice the perpetrators of this cowardly as well as barbarous act; but, in the bush, justice is too often deaf, dumb and lame, as well as blind. The damper indeed was analysed, and poison detected therein; but of course no White evidence could be obtained; Aboriginal testimony is by the law of the land inadmissible; the bodies of the poisoned were too far decomposed for a lucid diagnosis; and, in short, these deliberate murderers escaped the cord.

Extract from Godfrey Charles Mundy, *Our Antipodes or, Residence and Rambles in the Australasian Colonies, with a Glimpse of the Goldfields*, 1852

Source 4.33 Thomas John Domville Taylor's drawing of the massacre of a group of Aboriginal men, women and children by white squatters at One Tree Hill near the road from Moreton Bay to Darling Downs, Queensland



INTERPRET 4.7

- 1 The writer Keith Windschuttle has said: 'The colonial authorities wanted to civilise and modernise the Aborigines, not exterminate them. Their intentions were not to foster violence towards Aborigines but to prevent it.' Do you believe that the sources here support or contradict Windschuttle's assertions?
- 2 Do any of these sources provide *evidence* of violence towards Indigenous Australians?
- 3 In your own words, explain what you think Source 4.33 shows. Does the evidence suggest that this was an eyewitness account?

Location and date	Europeans involved	Cause	Casualties
Pinjarra WA, 1834	Mounted police led by Governor Stirling	Expedition to arrest an Aborigine for the murder of a soldier	15–35 Pinjarup killed in open battle. One soldier speared.
Waterloo Creek NSW, 1838	Five officers and 20 mounted police	Spearing of five stockmen who had taken prime Kamilaroi land for grazing	Five Kamilaroi killed in an initial attack. The survivors were chased to Waterloo Creek where 40–50 were killed as they tried to escape the armed pursuit.
Myall Creek NSW, 1838	Nine ex-convict stockmen and one native-born station manager	The group wished to complete the Waterloo Creek reprisals and went 'hunting some blacks'.	The resident group of 28 Kwaimbal Aborigines at Myall Station were shot and hacked to death. They were mainly women and children, and some old men.
Butcher's Creek VIC, 1841	Pastoralist Angus McMillan and his men	Retaliation for Aboriginal aggression	An estimated 30–35 Aborigines were shot by settlers.
Hornet Bank QLD, 1857	Billy Fraser, native police and a force of armed squatters	A reprisal for the rape and murder of 11 whites at Hornet Station. The motive for the Aborigines' attack was the rape of young Aboriginal women by boys from the Fraser family.	150 Yeeman killed over a year.
Cullin-la-ringo QLD, 1861	Native police	The killing of Horatio Wills, 10 other men, three women and five children.	The number shot is unknown, but was several times higher than the number of whites that were originally killed.
Coniston NT, 1928	Punishing raid by police	The death of a white dingo-trapper	Constable George Murray admitted to 31 killings, 17 in an initial patrol and 14 in a patrol three weeks later. Also, two ceremonial gatherings were dispersed. Murray bragged that the first figure of those killed was 70 not 17. He was cleared of wrongdoing by a board of enquiry, which found he had acted in self-defence.

Source 4.34 Key dates of conflict and resistance

APPLY 4.8

- 1 Discuss what the information in Source 4.34 tells us about the pattern of contact on the Australian frontier.
- 2 Based on the information provided in Source 4.34, decide whether you think police involvement would affect the availability of evidence.
- 3 Use the sources in this unit as a starting point for your own investigation into the pattern of contact experiences as the European frontier expanded across Australia in the 19th century. What evidence is there that this contact was violent?

EXTEND 4.4

- 1 Contrast the frontier history of Australia with that of the United States. There, Native American warrior chiefs such as Sitting Bull, Crazy Horse and Geronimo, and warrior tribes such as the Sioux and the Apache are well known. Conduct research to work out why so few Indigenous figures are well known in Australian frontier history.

Government policies towards Indigenous Australians

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Indigenous Australians were not counted in the 1901 census and until 1967 so-called 'Aboriginal affairs' were managed under the Flora and Fauna Act (laws governing the administration of plants and animals). In the Australian War Memorial cloisters, stone carvings of Indigenous people's faces are included in the section 'Australian Native Fauna'.

The exclusion of Indigenous Australians from Australia's national story is demonstrated by many government policies from the time. At first, laws in all states isolated Indigenous Australians by moving them onto reserves and missions, away from European communities. Later, many Indigenous Australians were forced to integrate into British society. During this period, many Europeans assumed that the Indigenous Australians would simply die out over time and disappear from the Australian population.

Paternalism, protection and assimilation

Once British colonies were well-established, government officials began devising policies to regulate and administer the Aboriginal populations in those areas. Many of these policies were based on the assumption that Europeans were superior to Aborigines in every way and that Aborigines were incapable of looking after themselves. Under this approach – known as **paternalism** – Europeans took the role of a father looking after a child. As a result, most policies took away any rights Aboriginal people had to control their own lives and stripped them of their traditional beliefs and customs.

From the 1850s onwards, Indigenous Australians were subjected to a policy known as **protection**. Under the policy, a number of **reserves** and **missions** were established around Australia and many Aboriginal people were forced to move and live there (see Sources 4.35, 4.36 and 4.37). These areas were designed to keep Aboriginal people separate from the white population and teach them the ways of 'civilised' society.

From the 1920s onwards, criticism of protection grew and many argued for a different approach. In the 1950s, a policy of **assimilation** was adopted. Assimilation was based on the idea that Aboriginal people should be integrated into white society. In order to do this, they were required to give up their traditional beliefs, languages and cultures. Under this policy, many Aborigines living on reserves and missions were moved into towns. Aboriginal children were also taken from their parents by force in order to be taught the white customs and language. Almost all Australians of European decent at the time shared the view that Indigenous Australians should become Christian, give up their traditional culture and language, and blend into European society. The last Aboriginal mission in Queensland, on the Cape York peninsula, closed in 1987.

SOURCE STUDY

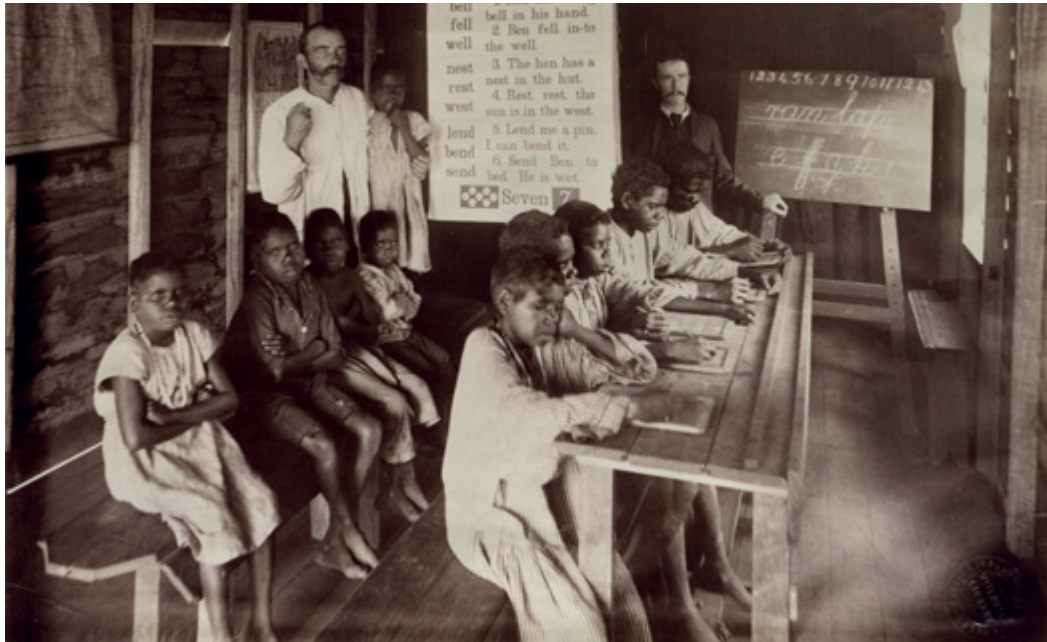
Contact experiences: paternalism, protection and assimilation



Source 4.35 Receiving flour at Barambah Aboriginal Settlement, 1911



Source 4.36 Food distribution at Barambah Aboriginal Settlement, 1911



Source 4.37 This photo, taken in 1893, shows children at school at the Mission Bay Aboriginal Reserve and Church of England Mission. Many children from Indigenous families throughout Cape York and western Queensland were taken there.

INTERPRET 4.8

- 1 Explain how Sources 4.35 to 4.37 could be used as evidence of paternalism, protection or assimilation.
- 2 Discuss the reliability of photos such as these as historical evidence. In your discussion consider the following questions:
 - Who owned the camera?
 - Were the photos official or unofficial?
 - Were the photos posed?
 - Does the camera give a complete view?
 - What could be excluded from the photos?

REVIEW 4.6

- 1 What is meant by the term 'dispossession' and why did it have such a serious impact on Indigenous Australians?
- 2 What were the four parts to the general response of Indigenous Australians to the arrival of the Europeans?
- 3 With reference to the treatment of Indigenous Australians, what was meant by the terms *paternalism* and *protection*?

4.1

CHECKPOINT

WHERE DID EUROPEANS SETTLE IN AUSTRALIA AND WHAT WERE THE EFFECTS ON CONTACT WITH INDIGENOUS PEOPLES?

» Outline the expansion of European settlement on a map of Aboriginal Australia to 1900

- On a map of Australia (or a photocopy of Source 4.22), mark the following towns to give an indication of how far settlement expanded in the period between 1840 and 1900. Describe the pattern formed by this expansion. (10 marks)

Broome (1883)	Toowoomba (1852)
Alice Springs (1872)	Cobar (1870)
Rockhampton (1855)	Nyngan (1883)
Broken Hill (1883)	Murwillumbah (1840s)
Cairns (1876)	Lightning Ridge (1860)

- Create a table in your notebook that lists the six states of Australia today. For each, add the year in which it was first settled by the British and the year in which it was recognised as a separate colony. (12 marks)
- What evidence is there that Australia was *terra nullius* when Captain Arthur Phillip established a settlement in Sydney Cove in 1788? (20 marks)

» Describe the impact of European settlement on the landscape, and how the landscape affected European settlement

- Copy and complete the following table in your notebook. From what you have learned, provide examples of events or practices that demonstrate the positive and negative impacts that Indigenous and European Australians had on the environment during the 19th century. One example has been provided for you. (10 marks)

Event/practice	Indigenous or European	Impact
Introduction of rabbits	European	Negative (destroyed land, helped erosion)

- Compare and contrast the views of Indigenous peoples with the views of European settlers with regard to the Australian environment in the period before 1900. (8 marks)
- Explain the pattern of European settlement in Australia before 1900. (10 marks)

» Use a range of sources to describe contact experiences between European settlers and Indigenous peoples

- How would you describe contact experiences between Indigenous peoples and European settlers on the Australian frontier in the period 1788–1900? (10 marks)
- Explain how sources have helped you understand the nature of Indigenous/European contact on the Australian frontier. Do they provide evidence that would allow you to come to a clear conclusion about the nature of that contact? (10 marks)
- Copy and complete the following table in your notebook. In the left-hand column, record five positive aspects of European contact and colonisation in Australia. In the right-hand column, record five negative aspects. (10 marks)

European contact and colonisation in Australia	
Positive aspects	Negative aspects

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASK

The History Wars – you decide

Read Sources 4.38 and 4.39, then complete the following activities.

- 1 Divide the class into two groups to research 'The History Wars' – the debate in Australia about the nature of the British colonisation of Australia and its impact on Indigenous Australians. One group should investigate the perspective put forward by Henry Reynolds, and the other group should investigate the perspective put forward by Keith Windschuttle.
- 2 In your group, create a concept map of the main arguments put forward by your historian to support his perspective.
- 3 As a class, compare both concept maps and discuss the two perspectives.
 - a Which perspective do you support?
 - b Have you developed your own position on the History Wars? Share your perspective with the class.

Source 4.38

There I was, a lecturer in Australian history with a Master's degree in the subject, and yet I had no idea about what had gone on all around the frontiers of Australia for well over a century ... The reason is that certainly by the beginning of the 20th century, much of this violence had been written out. It had been written out because it didn't fit in with the sort of favourable picture that historians wanted to create of the new nation.

It also was a consequence simply of writing the Aborigines out overall and if you wrote them out, you wrote out much of the violence, and you could say that Australia was a very peaceful place ... I mean I've never suggested I'm objective in the sense that I'm not committed, that I don't have political commitments in the present, but I do think that I ... try to behave according to professional standards ... That is, I check evidence, I try and find more examples, I throw away the evidence I don't think's sound enough. I scrutinise what I'm doing and I take a long time to make my mind up. I suppose that I do write with political ends in mind. There's no question about that. But in terms of the evidence I use, I challenge anyone to find fault in it.

Extract from an interview with historian Henry Reynolds by Kerry O'Brien on the *7.30 Report* in 1999

Source 4.39

For most of my adult life I was a true believer of the story of Australian frontier warfare, Aboriginal genocide and Stolen Generations. I had never done any archival research in the field but nonetheless used the principal historical works of Henry Reynolds, Lyndall Ryan, Peter Read and others in lectures I gave in university courses in Australian history and Australian social policy.

However, in 2000 I was asked to review a book by Perth journalist Rod Moran about the infamous Forrest River Massacre in the Kimberley in 1926. Moran convinced me that there had been no massacre at Forrest River. There had never been any eyewitnesses and no bodies were ever found. The charred remains of bones at first thought to be of Aborigines shot and cremated turned out on later forensic examination not to be of human origin. They probably belonged to kangaroos and wallabies. So-called 'massacre sites' were nothing but old Aboriginal camp sites. A list of Aborigines gone missing from the local mission, and suspected to have been murdered, turned out to be a fake, concocted by the white clergyman running the mission. Many of those on his list were recorded alive and well years later ... Since then I have found a similar degree of misrepresentation, deceit and outright fabrication.

Keith Windschuttle in an address to HSC History Extension students in 2010

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

4.2

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE EXPERIENCES AND CONTRIBUTIONS OF NON-EUROPEANS IN AUSTRALIA BEFORE 1900?

In this section, you will learn about the non-European people who came to Australia before 1900. Over the centuries, Australia has attracted people seeking riches and new opportunities, and looking for a place to trade and to live. Among them were Macassans from Indonesia, Afghans from the Middle East, South Sea Islanders from across the western Pacific region, the Japanese and the largest group of all, the Chinese.

NON-EUROPEAN PEOPLES IN AUSTRALIA

The Macassans

Among the very earliest non-European visitors to Australia were the Macassans from the islands of Indonesia. In the 1700s, Macassan traders made the journey to the north coast of Australia, a 10- to 15-day journey on boats called *prau*, fishing for *trepang* (a marine animal also known as sea cucumber or sea slug). *Trepang* were eaten in soups, and they were also dried and ground into a powder that was exported to China where it was highly valued as a medicine. Macassan settlements were seasonal, rather than permanent, and were established regularly for almost a century.

The Afghans

Experienced camel handlers or cameleers started arriving in Australia in the 1830s. They managed the camels that had been imported to help explore and settle the country's dry and inhospitable interior. Camels – famously known as 'ships of the desert' – could survive and work in conditions too harsh for horses, donkeys and bullocks. Although the cameleers were known as 'Afghans', they came from various parts of the Middle East, Turkey and India. Many were employed under short-term contracts that required them to return to their homelands after a few years. By 1900, it is estimated that there were around 2000 cameleers in Australia.

The Afghans faced hostility and suspicion because of their race and rarely mixed with Europeans outside of work. Many Afghans were Muslim and this only increased the prejudices of many of the Europeans. They were usually housed on the fringes of settlements, with outback towns typically segregated into sections for whites, Indigenous Australians and the cameleers (see Source 4.5).

The Afghans made a major contribution to exploration and development of Australia's interior. From the 1860s until the expansion of railways around 1900, camels were vital for moving people and property. The inland railways and the Overland Telegraph were two of the great projects that depended on the cameleers.

With Federation and the *Immigration Restriction Act* 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'.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Construction on the railway linking Adelaide to Darwin began in 1878. It reached Oodnadatta, South Australia, in 1891 and extended to Alice Springs in 1929. The track to Darwin was completed in 2003, and the first freight and passenger trains left Adelaide for Darwin early the next year – a journey of 2970 kilometres.

South Sea Islanders

From the 1860s, the growing of sugar cane dramatically increased in Queensland's tropical north. Harvesting, or cane cutting, was backbreaking work, and at this time 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 (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 from the islands. Though many were legitimately employed in Australia, many thousands of others were exploited by unscrupulous employers and worked under conditions that resembled slavery.

Living and working conditions of South Sea Islanders

SOURCE STUDY

Source 4.40

The Queensland sugar industry was literally built on the backs of South Sea Islanders. Men, women and children had to work long hours and in harsh conditions akin [similar] to slavery. They were required to clear heavy rainforest and scrub, and to plant, maintain and harvest the cane ... South Sea Islanders usually lived in some kind of barracks style housing on the sugar cane farms. Some preferred to live in traditional grass hut style accommodation. In their new home of Queensland, South Sea Islander men, women and children were exposed to people who carried diseases that the Islanders would have had little or no prior contact with in their home islands. As a consequence Islanders caught European diseases. Combined with a culturally and nutritionally inadequate diet of beef or mutton, potatoes, bread, tea and sugar, this was a recipe for an Islander health disaster. The Islanders had to work while sick and because there was little or inadequate health care, many died in the paddocks or at the farms.



Extract from *Queensland Historical Atlas*

Source 4.41 Pacific Islanders loading sugar cane, c. 1890

INTERPRET 4.9

- 1 Compare Source 4.40 and Source 4.41. List any similar information that can be drawn from each source.
- 2 What evidence is there in either source that South Sea Islanders in Queensland lived and worked in 'harsh conditions akin to slavery'?
- 3 Do you think one of these sources is more reliable than the other? Explain your answer.

Although historians acknowledge the importance of South Sea Islanders to Queensland's economic development, their treatment of South Sea Islanders 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 who 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 adequately fed, housed or clothed. Islanders were also vulnerable to European diseases, such as tuberculosis and influenza, which also 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.

Islanders were gradually deported as the *Pacific Islander Labourers Act 1901* was phased in. Amendments to the legislation over the years meant that by 1906, it was decided that Pacific Islanders who had come to Australia before 1879, those who had been in Australia for more than 20 years, those who were too old to return home or who owned land in Australia could stay. At present, it is estimated that there are around 20 000 descendants of the original Pacific Island labourers living in northern New South Wales and Queensland.

The Japanese

In the 1880s, the Japanese (together with smaller numbers of immigrants from other Asian countries) came to Australia to work in pearl diving areas such as Darwin, Broome and Thursday Island. 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 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. The government had attempted to replace them with divers recruited from the British Navy, but almost all 12 British divers were killed while diving.



Source 4.42 A Japanese pearl diver in full diving suit, waiting to begin his dive for pearls

The Chinese

By far the largest group of non-Europeans to travel to and settle in Australia were the Chinese. For most, the motive was the search for gold – Australia was known to the Chinese as ‘Xin Jin Shan’ or the ‘New Mountain of Gold’ during the 1850s. Many were also political refugees who left China following the failed Taiping Rebellion that involved a massive and destructive civil war that raged across China between 1850 and 1864.

By the late 1850s, there were 42 000 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 in Victoria, where 60 per cent of miners were Chinese immigrants. They were part of a mass migration of people from all over the world during this period. The Chinese did not blend in like the newcomers from Europe and the Americas. As a result, they were regularly the victims of prejudice and racial abuse.

Anti-Chinese feeling

The main reasons for anti-Chinese feeling in Australia were:

- *Racism* – It was assumed that the culture and religion of white, European peoples was naturally superior. As is the case with almost all examples of racial prejudice and hatred, the Europeans did not understand the Chinese, and ignorance fuelled fear.
- *Fear of being overrun* – Many Europeans feared that the arrival of the Chinese in ever growing numbers might result in white people being replaced as the largest racial group. In other words, the Europeans feared they would be dispossessed by the Chinese, just as Europeans had dispossessed Indigenous Australians of their land.
- *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.

There were a number of serious anti-Chinese riots across the Australian goldfields at Daylesford and on the Buckland River in Victoria, and at Lambing Flat near Young in New South Wales. As the gold began to run out, many of the Chinese, just like the other miners, moved on and set up new businesses. Some became market gardeners, and others went into trade and opened shops.

APPLY 4.9

- 1 Investigate the methods of mining used on the Australian goldfields. In what ways was the Chinese way of mining and living different to other miners? What other work did they undertake around the fields?



Source 4.43 A Chinese gold miner outside a hut on the Australian goldfields

REVIEW 4.7

- 1 List the main groups of non-European migrants to Australia in the period before 1900. Explain why these groups came to Australia.
- 2 Outline the contribution that Afghans made to Australia’s development in the 19th century.
- 3 Explain why South Sea Islanders were deported from Queensland after Federation.
- 4 What did the Chinese call Australia in the 1850s, which explains a ‘pull’ factor for Chinese immigration to Australia? What was a ‘push’ factor?
- 5 What happened to the British Navy pearlers that the government employed to try and replace Japanese divers?

4.2

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE EXPERIENCES AND CONTRIBUTIONS OF NON-EUROPEANS IN AUSTRALIA BEFORE 1900?

» Describe how non-Europeans lived and worked in Australia

- 1 Rearrange the entries in the following table so that the industry and the group of people involved in it are correctly matched. (5 marks)

Industry	Group
Trepang	Afghans
Cameleering	Japanese
Sugar cane	Chinese
Gold mining	South Sea Islanders
Pearling	Macassans

- 2 Select one of the non-European groups that arrived in Australia in the 19th century. Explain why sufficient numbers of these people arrived in Australia for them to be recognised as a distinct social group. (10 marks)
- 3 Select one of the non-European groups examined in this chapter and describe:
 - a the main work they were engaged in in Australia
 - b where in Australia this work was carried out
 - c the conditions under which they were expected to live and work
 - d the reasons why European Australians didn't do this work themselves (if relevant)
 - e how European Australians treated this group of non-Europeans. (10 marks)

» Describe the contribution made by non-European workers to the development of Australia

- 4 Copy and complete the following table in your notebook. List the key contribution to the development of Australia made by each group before 1900. (25 marks)

Non-European group	Key contribution to Australian development
Macassans	
Afghans	
Chinese	
South Sea Islanders	
Japanese	

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

The riotous goldfields

The Australian goldfields were often wild, lawless places where the frustration of living in close quarters coupled with the frustration of not finding much gold led to riotous outbreaks. Two famous riots reveal a lot about the origins of debates that continue in Australian life today.

- 1 As a class, discuss:
 - a what you think the main characteristics of being 'an Australian' are and any major debates in Australia that you are aware of about who can be considered an 'Australian'. Make a list of these characteristics and debates.
 - b whether anyone has heard of the Eureka Stockade and/or Lambing Flat Riots and what they know about these two events.
- 2 Divide into two groups. One group is to research the Eureka Rebellion (including the Eureka Stockade) and the other will research the Lambing Flat Riots. Each group could split into smaller subgroups and choose one of the following areas for research:
 - when and where the riot was
 - what happened
 - why it happened
 - what sources are available
 - whether the riot brought about any changes.Discuss your findings and prepare a summary to present to the other group that outlines:
 - what happened at your event and why
 - whether you think the riot contributed to Australia's social and political development
 - whether it reflects any issues or debates that still exist in Australia today.
- 3 As a class, revisit your list of characteristics and debates from Question 1. Discuss whether the riots were purely a reflection of 19th-century conditions or whether they can help us to understand modern Australia.



Source 4.44 An artist's impression of the Lambing Flats Riots

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

4.3

SECTION

WHAT WERE LIVING AND WORKING CONDITIONS LIKE IN AUSTRALIA AROUND 1900?

In this section, you will learn about the living and working conditions for men, women and children in Australia around 1900. You will have the opportunity to learn about their homes, where they lived and what they ate. You will also learn about their education, health and common forms of transport, communication and entertainment. Finally, you will have the chance to look briefly at some of their values, hopes, dreams and fears.

OVERVIEW OF AUSTRALIAN SOCIETY AROUND 1900

The period from 1850 to 1890 was a boom time for the Australian colonies, a time of increasing wealth for workers and increasing investment brought about by the gold rushes. However, in the years after 1890 a severe economic downturn saw an end to this period of prosperity. Banks went broke, people lost their savings and their jobs, merchants went out of business, and people on the land lost their properties and their homes.

The 1890s depression and social reform

In 1900, many Australians could still clearly remember the pain of hunger and the fear of poverty that came with the 1890s **depression**. The Australian Labor Party with its trade union connections grew out of these depression conditions.

When the economy did gradually begin to recover in 1894, many politicians in Australia were committed to reform and to building a fairer, more equitable society. It meant that there was a strong move for workers' rights, and in the first decade of the 20th century, Australia led the world in social justice reforms.

The key social justice reforms in this period are outlined below.

- The judgement by Mr Justice Higgins in the Harvester case in 1907 gave Australian workers a guaranteed basic wage, an amount considered enough to support a man and his family. This became known as the Harvester Judgement.
- The *Invalid and Old Age Pensions Act 1908* provided a pension for men over 65 and financial assistance if they were unable to work.
- The *Maternity Allowances Act 1912* provided financial assistance to mothers and families.
- Disputes between workers and employers could be referred to the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration, which was established in 1904.

These reforms are explored in more detail later in the chapter under the heading 'Legislation that shaped a nation'.

Although there were still differences between the lives of the rich and the poor, public education and social reforms meant that poorer people in Australia had reason to be positive. The Australian climate and the abundance of farm land and fresh ingredients meant that even poorer people's diets included fresh meat, fruit and vegetables.

EXTEND 4.5

- 1 Investigate the economic depression of the early 1890s in Australia. Explain why the Australian economy went from boom to bust at this time, and the impact that had on working Australians. Present your findings in a 250-word report and include at least two historical sources.

As parents worked and planned for the future, they had reason to believe that things would be better for their children. This determination can, however, only really be understood by understanding the history of hunger that came with the economic hardship of the 1890s.

The egalitarian spirit

Egalitarianism is not based on the belief that all people are equal. Instead, it is based on the belief that all people (in theory) should be offered equal opportunities. As Australia was forming as a country, it was seen as a nation in which all had an equal chance to prosper. Although, unlike Britain, there was no strict class system, class differences still existed. There were still large gaps between the wealthy, the middle class and the poor. There was also a distinction between white people of British origin and non-whites. A wealthy and successful Chinese merchant usually had less social acceptance than a white person on a low wage in an unskilled occupation.

However, this egalitarian spirit did mean that the children of convicts or poor immigrants might rise to positions of importance in politics, business and the arts. What counted in Australian society were hard work, risk-taking and an ability to make the most of the land's opportunities. It also meant that people were more inclined to mix with those of other classes. Relations between bosses and workers, pastoralists and shearers, politicians and voters were far more informal than they were in Britain.

The bush myth and suburban society

One of the most striking and distinctively Australian characteristics of society around 1900 was the development of the suburbs. Australia was becoming a suburban rather than a bush society. Around this time Australia began to identify itself with the bush and the outback, as part of the development of the 'bush myth' associated with the paintings of Tom Roberts, Frederick McCubbin and other members of the Heidelberg School.



Source 4.45 A poster depicting the fight for the eight-hour day



Source 4.46
Frederick McCubbin (Australia, b. 1855, d. 1917)
On the wallaby track 1896
oil on canvas, 122 × 223.5 cm
Art Gallery of New South Wales
Purchased 1897



Source 4.47 A family poses in front of their suburban home, c.1890.

APPLY 4.10

- 1 Compare Sources 4.45 and 4.46. Which do you think is a more accurate depiction of Australia around the time of Federation? Justify your response using evidence from both sources.

The Heidelberg School, named after a Melbourne suburb, was a group of Australian artists who specialised in painting bush scenes and the Australian landscape. Writers and poets in the late 1880s also celebrated – and romanticised – the difficult and dirty work of drovers, shearers and selectors (farmers given small landholdings selected for growing crops).

EXTEND 4.6

- 1 On the Internet, locate the following examples of Australian literature:

- 'Clancy of the overflow', a poem by Banjo Patterson
- 'The Drover's Wife', a short story by Henry Lawson.

What message does each give about life in the bush?

- a In which year was each piece written?
- b How is life in the Australian bush portrayed in each piece of writing? Outline their similarities and differences.

SOURCE STUDY

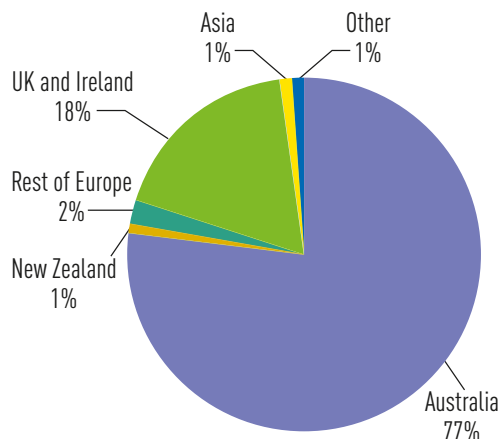
A snapshot of Australian society around 1900

Source 4.48 The Australian population in 1901

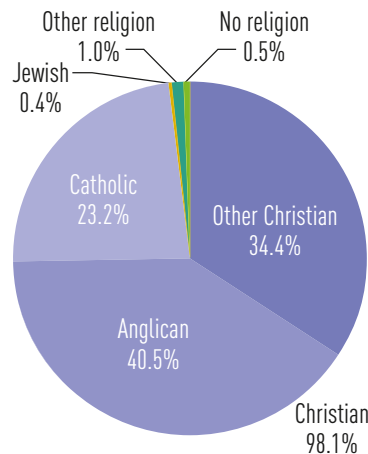
Total population	3.8 million
Indigenous population (estimated)	93 000
Fertility rate	3.8 babies per woman
Life expectancy	A girl born in 1901 – 58.8 years A boy born in 1901 – 55.2 years
Infant mortality rate	1 in 10 babies died in their first year of life

Source 4.49 Proportion of the population living in rural and urban Australia in 1901

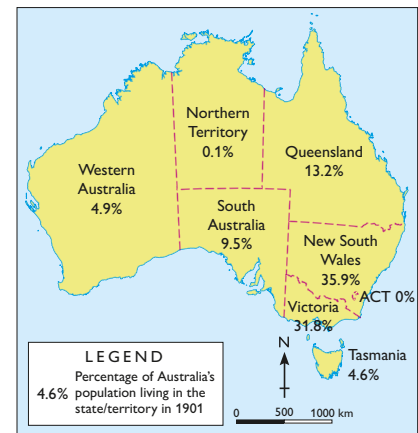
Rural	41.3%
Urban	58.7%



Source 4.50 Birthplace of the Australian population in 1901



Source 4.51 Religion of the Australian population in 1901



Source 4.52 Distribution of the population by state in 1901

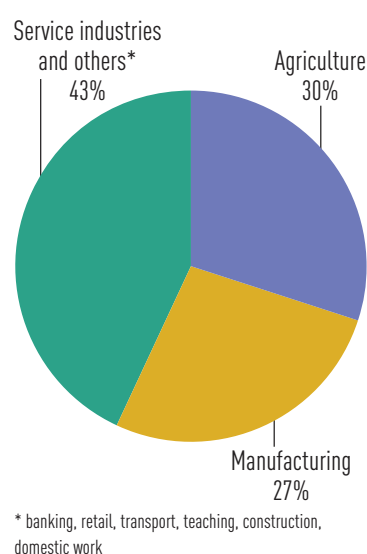
Source 4.53 Education levels of young people in 1911

Participation (%) in education by age groups, 1911	
> 6	9.1
6–11	92.5
12–13	85.2
14–15	31.2
16–17	8.7
18–19	3.3
20 and over	0.2
Percentage of 5–14 year olds who could read and write	
1901	80%
1911	90%

Source 4.54 Participation (%) in the workforce by age and sex, 1911

Age	Males	Females
15–19	90.0	43.5
20–24	97.7	40.2
25–34	98.0	22.9
35–44	97.3	16.7
45–54	95.8	15.5
55–59	92.7	14.6
60–64	85.8	13.1
65 and over	55.3	7.9

All statistics in these tables are taken from the *ABS Yearbook 2001*.



Source 4.55 Occupations of Australian workers in 1901

INTERPRET 4.10

- 1 Use Sources 4.48 to 4.55 to create a description of Australia around 1901 that could be included in an 'Encyclopaedia of the World's Nations – 1901'.
- 2 Explain why the Indigenous population of Australia is only estimated. What percentage of Australia's total population in 1901 was Indigenous?
- 3 How would you explain any links between the information in the birthplace and religious affiliation charts?
- 4 Where did over three-quarters of Australians live in 1901 according to the information above? Why did no one live in the Australian Capital Territory in 1901?
- 5 At what age did most Australians leave school in 1911? Does the figure for 1901 indicate continuity or change?

REVIEW 4.8

- 1 What happened to the economies of the Australian states around 1890?
- 2 What evidence would you use to support the assertion that, 'in the first decade of the 20th century, Australia led the world in social justice reforms'?
- 3 What does 'egalitarian' mean?
- 4 What was the 'Heidelberg School'? What did it contribute to Australia's sense of national identity?

WORKING IN AUSTRALIA AROUND 1900

One-third of all Australian workers were still employed in primary industry from 1891 to 1911 and manufacturing remained a small part of the economy. Most of Australian manufacturing was for the local market, supplying items used by the graziers and farmers, or domestic items such as clothing, carriages and leather goods – boots and shoes, saddles and harnesses. This remained the case until the emergence of the Broken Hill Proprietary Company (BHP). The company began mining silver and lead at Broken Hill in western New South Wales in 1885, opened smelting works at Port Pirie in South Australia in 1897, expanded into iron and steel production in 1899, and opened other steel plants near the coalfields of New South Wales.

Despite the new social justice reforms, life for factory workers and miners, especially those in the coal mines, was hard. Despite the growth of the trade union movement and its fight for workers' rights, there were many workplaces that were unhealthy and dangerous. There were no safety regulations for people working on often poorly maintained machinery and injuries were common. Environmental pollution from factories was also a common occurrence, on land and on the waterways. Sydney Harbour, Botany Bay and the Parramatta River in Sydney, the Hunter River in Newcastle and the Yarra River in Melbourne were all polluted by industrial waste during this period.



Source 4.56 An Australian factory c. 1900–1920 with several chimney stacks surrounded by denuded trees



Source 4.57 A farmer harvesting a crop c. 1900



Source 4.58 The interior of a 'grocery emporium', c. 1910



Source 4.59 Men and women working in a factory c. 1890–1900, feeding flax or yarn into a press



Source 4.60 Three domestic servants, c. 1890. The first is peeling potatoes, the second is cleaning a boot, and the third appears to be using a pestle in a metal tub. Domestic work was the most common way for girls and women to make a living around this time.

INTERPRET 4.11

- 1 Explain what these sources tell you about the type of work people did in Australia at the start of the 20th century.
- 2 What impression do these sources give you about working conditions at this time? Could you rely on these sources to draw conclusions about working conditions in Australia? Explain your response.
- 3 What conclusions can you draw about the gender division of work in Australia at this time?

REVIEW 4.9

- 1 Explain why BHP is a significant company in Australia's history.
- 2 What impact did the emergence of mining and manufacturing have on the Australian environment around 1900?

LIVING CONDITIONS IN AUSTRALIA AROUND 1900

EXTEND 4.7

- 1 Investigate the history of Sydney's railway system.
 - a Create a list of the areas serviced by rail before Federation in 1901.
 - b List the suburbs that developed as a result of these train lines.

Housing

Despite egalitarian ideals, all Australians did not live equally. In the cities, the wealthy lived in large homes with beautiful gardens, and had servants to attend to their needs. Meanwhile, the working poor lived in cramped and unhealthy inner-city slums. These were often small terrace houses or cottages built alongside factories. Families would often sleep in one room, and buildings were usually shoddily built from cheap materials providing little insulation.

In the late 1800s, improvements in transport and communication and the availability of land saw the development of suburban sprawl, as members of the middle class, business people and professionals moved outside the centre of capital cities and built their homes surrounded by gardens and lawns. The great Australian dream was the freestanding home on a quarter-acre block of land (about 1000 square metres).

Health and sanitation

While the middle and upper classes could afford proper sewerage and plumbing in their homes, these facilities were not provided in the workers' cottages. The toilet was generally a can with a seat resting on the top of it. It was situated in a small shed outdoors near a back alley. The waste would be taken away by collectors called 'nightmen'.

These poor housing conditions often led to serious illnesses among the working class. The lack of sanitation encouraged the spread of infectious diseases such as whooping cough, tuberculosis and diphtheria. These diseases often hit the young, and infant mortality rates were high.

The domestic scene

At the turn of the century, men were known as the 'breadwinners'. They made up the vast majority of the paid workforce and generally were not expected to take part in domestic tasks. Domestic work, such as cooking, cleaning and clothes washing, would have been almost exclusively the domain of the women in the household.

In the late 1880s, innovations such as the washing machine were introduced to save time spent on domestic work, for those who could afford it. Clothes washing was a particularly time-consuming and laborious task, taking an entire day. It involved making a wood fire to heat up a large basin of water, known as a 'copper'. Clothes were scrubbed by hand on a wooden board, boiled in the copper and then hung out to dry. The 1880s washing machine shown in Source 4.61 was operated by sealing dirty clothes, soap and water in the drum. The drum was then rocked from side to side, agitating the clothes against the corrugated surface inside.

Before refrigeration, a Coolgardie safe was widely used to keep perishable food fresh in summer, particularly in country areas. The safes were made either of a metal or wooden frame covered in hessian (a rough fabric), and worked on the principle of evaporation. Around 1900, households in cities or country areas that had ice works would use an ice chest, in place of a Coolgardie safe. Ice chests could be seen in households up to the 1950s, when refrigerators became a common rather than luxury item.



Source 4.61 A washing machine from the late 1880s



Source 4.62 A Coolgardie safe c. 1915

Housing and sanitation around 1900

SOURCE STUDY



Source 4.63 This photo of a poor family in Paddington, an inner Sydney suburb, gives a clue to how hard life could be for the poor. The corrugated iron shanty has no floor, no electric light or running water.



Source 4.64 An outdoor lavatory in the backyard of a typical working-class home in Sydney



Source 4.65 Rippon Lea House in Melbourne in 1903, then the home of the Sargood family

INTERPRET 4.12

- 1 Explain how these sources help you to understand the types of housing that differences in wealth had created in early 20th-century Australia.
- 2 Use Sources 4.63 and 4.64 to describe living conditions for working-class Australians around 1900.

A working class kitchen



INTERPRET 4.13

- 1 What evidence can you find in Source 4.66 to indicate that this is a kitchen?
- 2 List the continuities and changes between the kitchen shown here and your own.
- 3 Explain how the painting helps you to understand the domestic duties of working-class women in late-19th-century Australia.

Source 4.66

Frederick McCubbin
 Australia, 1855–1917
Kitchen at the old Kind Street Bakery
 1884, Melbourne
 oil on canvas
 50.6 × 61.2 cm
 M.J.M. Carter AO Collection 1992
 Art Gallery of South Australia, Adelaide

Transport and communication



At the time of Federation in 1901, 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 or track widths had been used across the country.

During this period, rail services were starting to replace coastal shipping for the transport of goods and passengers, beginning the decline of the great river ports. Railways themselves faced competition from another mode of transport from 1900, with the importation of the first motor car from Europe (a Benz). The first Australian-made motor vehicle, the Thompson steam car, was manufactured in the same year. Although motor cars were the province of the rich until the 1920s, the Australian public was fascinated by events such as the Motor Car Reliability Trials starting in 1905.

The birth of aviation also began in this period. Inventors, including Lawrence Hargrave, were experimenting with flying models in the 1880s. This led in time to the first powered flights from Europe to Australia in the 1920s.

Source 4.67 Mrs Thompson, the only woman entrant in the first Motor Car Reliability Trial from Sydney to Melbourne, 21 to 25 February 1905, celebrates at the finishing line.

Transportation in Sydney around 1900

SOURCE STUDY

Source 4.68

Even before there were motor cars, large cities had to deal with transport-related pollution. The horses that powered most of Sydney's transport vehicles produced tonnes of manure each day. On the far right of this photo of Pyrmont Bridge, Sydney, you can see a person in a white shirt sweeping the gutter. The council paid boys, nicknamed 'sparrow starvers', to collect manure because it was a marketable commodity. As late as the 1930s, horse manure was collected from Sydney's streets and sold as garden fertiliser.

Sandra McEwen, Curatorial, Powerhouse Museum, 2008



Source 4.69 Pyrmont Bridge Rd, c. 1902–1917, looking back towards the city



Source 4.70 A similar view in 2001. Pyrmont Bridge was closed to traffic in the 1980s and redeveloped as a pedestrian bridge in the Darling Harbour precinct.

INTERPRET 4.14

- 1 Use Sources 4.68 to 4.70 as the basis of a description of the continuities and changes Sydney has undergone during the 20th century.
- 2 Closely examine Source 4.69 and list the features that you could use as evidence in a description of life in Sydney at this time.
- 3 Explain why these sources could be useful to a historian. Think carefully about what makes any source useful.

Education around 1900

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In 1901, Sydney and Hobart schoolboys were surveyed in relation to their height. It was found that they were taller than English boys of the same age but had smaller chests.

In 1901, there were 9353 schools in Australia with a total enrolment of 887 137 pupils. Most were one-teacher state schools with 10 to 30 students enrolled. Compulsory attendance laws for children aged between six and 13 years were in place in all Australian colonies by 1900. However, these laws were not strictly enforced, particularly in isolated communities, and did not apply to Indigenous peoples. Many children from poorer families were expected to work as soon as possible to support the family. Roman Catholic parish schools and private schools established from the 1880s were stricter in maintaining student attendance.

Children from affluent families attended private schools, where education for girls tended to focus on subjects such as literature, music and French. As well, they were prepared in how to run a household. Boys were encouraged to continue with their education and to attend university to be trained in a profession.

SOURCE STUDY

Schooling in Australia around 1900



Source 4.71 The classroom of a state school in 1910, with two teachers and 35 students



Source 4.72 Most schools in Australia around 1900 were small, one-teacher schools. This photo taken c. 1900 shows students at the Scottsdale Public School in Tasmania posing with their awards on the school's presentation night. Awards include Curiosity, Persistence, Selfish Scholar, Quarrelsome Scholar and Tardy Scholar.

INTERPRET 4.15

- 1 Explain how these sources could be used to provide evidence of the differences between modern-day education and education at the start of the 20th century.
- 2 Closely examine Source 4.71. How does it appear that lessons were conducted? Using this source as evidence, what could you infer about the style of teaching that was common a century ago?
- 3 Look at the awards given out in Source 4.72. Check the meaning of any awards you are unfamiliar with. Are these similar to awards given out at your school assemblies or speech nights?

APPLY 4.11

- 1 In groups, conduct research on an aspect of life in Australia around 1900. Your research should draw on both primary and secondary sources, and include a bibliography that will help other students locate your original source material if they wish to research more deeply.

Your group should select one of the following aspects of Australian life around 1900:

- Food preparation and menus
- Leisure, sport and entertainment
- Clothing and fashion
- Education
- Health, diseases and medical treatments
- Transport and communication
- Work – both paid and unpaid
- Social differences between rich and poor.

Combine the group research to create an audio-visual resource that tells the story of typical life in Australia at the start of the 20th century. It should cover all aspects of life, and make it clear where you have gathered your information from.



Source 4.73 Summer bathing at Bondi, c. 1880–1890

REVIEW 4.10

- 1 What emerged as the 'great Australian dream' by the start of the 20th century?
- 2 Explain what 'nightmen' did for a living. Why were they a necessary part of urban living?
- 3 Explain why poor and working-class people usually suffered more health problems than wealthier Australians.
- 4 Outline the main differences between the working lives of Australian men and women at this time.
- 5 What was impractical about the initial development of Australian railways?

4.3

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE LIVING AND WORKING CONDITIONS LIKE IN AUSTRALIA AROUND 1900?

» Use a range of sources to investigate the living and working conditions of men, women and children in Australia around 1900

- 1 Explain how the economic depression of the 1890s ultimately led to an improvement in living and working conditions in Australia in the decade after Federation. (10 marks)
- 2 What evidence is there to suggest that Australia was an egalitarian society in the period immediately after Federation? (10 marks)
- 3 Identify the role gender played in Australian education at the start of the 20th century. (5 marks)
- 4 Discuss the accuracy and validity of the claim that by 1910 Australia was a 'working man's paradise'. (25 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

What did Australia taste like at the time of Federation?

Just as fashions change over the course of history, so too do cooking and eating habits. Source 4.74 outlines the content of a 21-week 'Plain Cooking' course designed to be taught to public schoolgirls around the time of Federation in Australia. Its writers claim it was designed specifically to 'meet the wants of every home as a good plain cooking course'.

- 1 As a class, discuss Source 4.74. Identify the strengths and weaknesses of this cooking course as the basis of a healthy modern diet.
- 2 In pairs or small groups, take responsibility for researching and presenting one week of the course in class.
- 3 Investigate the contents of your week. Research typical ways of presenting that type of food around 1900. Make a note of any ingredients that are now difficult to find and indicate what you can use as a substitute.
- 4 On the nominated day, have each group bring in their 1900 meal, and have a 1900 banquet comprising all of the foods mentioned in the 1897 *Educational Gazette*.
- 5 Write a food review of each meal commenting on its:
 - taste
 - health benefits or risks
 - cost
 - ease of preparation
 - ease or difficulty of cooking and any preparation hints.

N.S.W. Educational Gazette, January 1st, 1897

Cookery Instructions – The Minister of Public Instruction has decided, on the recommendation of the Chief Inspector, that from the commencement of this year, the instructions in the Schools of Cookery shall consist of a course of twenty-one lessons, extending over each school half-year, and thus making two terms in the year instead of three as at present. The existing plans do not fit in well with the school arrangements, and much difficulty is experienced in keeping up full classes for the whole course in consequence of the breaks caused by vacations. As most children leave school at June and December the proposed arrangement will suit. In order to improve the instruction and to make it better adapted to the requirements of ordinary families, several new dishes have been included that are not in the present course of lessons, but ought to be; for instance, the preparation and cooking of poultry, which in this country is a common article of food, particularly in city and suburban households. Other additions have also been made to the list, and the programme now arranged, of which an outline is given herewith, will be found to meet the wants of every home as a good plain cooking course.



PROGRAMME



COOKERY CLASSES FOR PUBLIC SCHOOL PUPILS. COURSE OF TWENTY-ONE LESSONS IN PLAIN COOKERY.

LESSON

1. Practical cleaning.
2. Roasting and baking meat, Yorkshire pudding, clarified fat and caramel.
3. Grilling: Chop and steak. Boiling: Mutton, corn beef.
4. Vegetables: Potatoes, cabbage, peas, beans, cauliflower, &c.
5. Stewing: Tripe and onions, Irish stew, stewed steak, stewed ox-tail.
6. Puddings: Urney, currant, rice, boiled fruit, steak and kidney.
7. Pastry: Meat and fruit pies, turnovers, jam tart, Cornish pasties.
8. Soups: Stock, vegetable soup, pea soup, cottage broth.
9. Tea, coffee, porridge, toast, boiled eggs, poached eggs, eggs and bacon, steak and onions.
10. Cakes: Plain, sponge, currant cakes, scones, milk loaves.
11. Fish: Boiled, baked, fried, and stewed fish.
12. Mutton broth, beef tea, gruel, arrowroot, rice water, toast and water.
13. Liver and bacon, pancakes, cutlets (piquante sauce), fritters.
14. Blanc mange, custard, apple dumplings, stewed fruit-custard.
15. Tomato, onion, ox-tail soups.
16. Gingerbread, seed cake, jam roll, buns, Yorkshire tea cakes.
17. Boiled fowl, egg sauce, roast fowl, bread and celery sauce, grilled chicken.
18. Date, lemon, bread and butter, plum puddings.
19. Braised steak, rissoles, brawn.
20. Salads: Mixed, potato, tomato, chicken, fruit.
21. Bottled fruits, tomato sauce, pickles.



In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

Source 4.74 A cooking course from an article in the *NSW Educational Gazette*, 1 January 1897

4.4

SECTION

WHAT KEY EVENTS AND IDEAS LED TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF AUSTRALIAN SELF-GOVERNMENT AND DEMOCRACY?

In this section we will explore the processes towards self-government that took place in the separate colonies of Australia from the 1850s. We will also investigate how and why Australia's colonies federated in 1901, and discuss the key legislation and reforms introduced by the new Commonwealth government.

HOW AND WHY FEDERATION WAS ACHIEVED IN 1901

Generations of Australian students have often complained that Australian history is not as exciting as the stories of other nations. The most common comparison is often with the American story, with its dramatic war for independence and then civil war. Like everything in the study of history, however, the more you know about the movement to self-government and democracy, and the better you understand the people involved and what might have been, the more interesting the Australian story becomes.

Australia votes to become a nation

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Even after Western Australia had finally agreed to join the Commonwealth there was still a strong movement in Western Australia to leave the Federation and form its own country. In a special referendum in 1933, 68 per cent of voters in Western Australia supported leaving the Commonwealth.

On 1 January 1901, Australia became a nation when the separate, self-governing colonies set up by Britain on the Australian continent united in a process known as Federation. Federation was achieved as a result of two **referendums**, one in 1898 and another in 1899. In the second referendum, a majority of people in most of the colonies voted to support the new Constitution that would create the Commonwealth of Australia (see Source 4.75).

It is perhaps easy for Australians 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.

Colony	First vote (1898)		Second vote (1899, 1900 in WA)	
	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

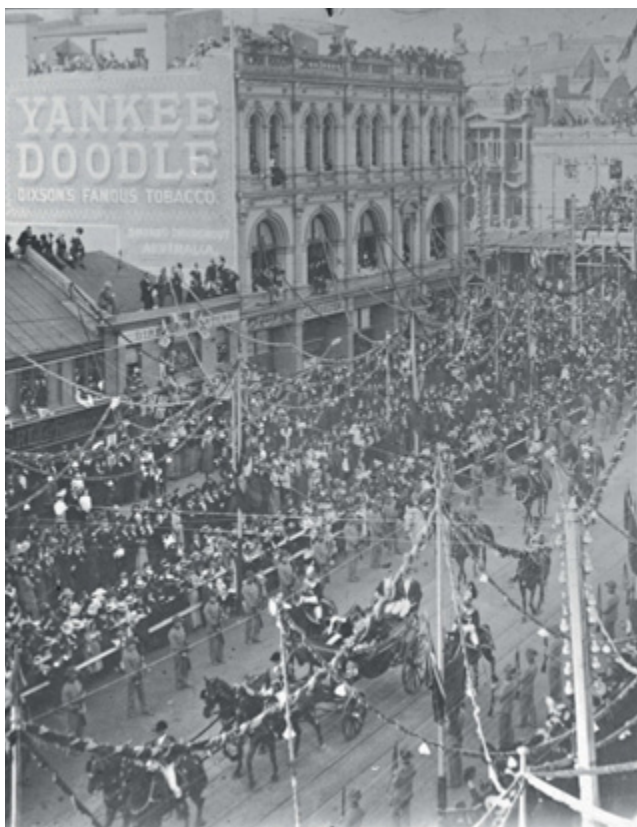
Source 4.75 Votes for and against Federation, Australian colonies

Notes: The first referendum failed in New South Wales as its Parliament had increased the minimum number of affirmative votes required to 80 000; Queensland and Western Australia did not take part. In the second referendum Western Australia voted later, in 1900.

Scott Bennett, Department of the Parliamentary Library, *ABS Year Book Australia 2001*

Consider the fact that there may easily have been an Eastern and a Western Australia. In the preamble of the current Australian Constitution all of the states except for Western Australia are mentioned. This is because of the initial reluctance of the Western Australian government to support the idea of joining the Commonwealth. By the time the people of the west voted 'Yes' in 1900, the Constitution had already been completed.

Consider that there might have been an Australasia that included Australia and New Zealand in the Commonwealth. Representatives from New Zealand, in fact, attended the 1890 Federation Conference and the 1891 Federation Convention which worked to draft an Australian Constitution.



Source 4.76 This photograph shows the procession of the Duke and Duchess of Cornwall, on the way to open the first Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia in Melbourne, 9 May 1901

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Six of the radial roads leading out of the centre of Canberra are named after state capitals. Another was named 'Canberra Avenue', and it leads to a suburb with a New Zealand name – Manuka. In fact, the road's proposed name was Wellington Avenue, as it was assumed by many Australians that New Zealand would one day become the seventh state of Australia.

Australia's gradual movement towards self-government and democracy

The process of self-government for the Australian colonies was a gradual process of evolution and reform. Changes came over a relatively long period of time and the changes made towards self-government and democracy were gradual, unlike the revolutionary political changes that took place in France or the United States (see Source 4.77).

Australian self-government was influenced by:

- the end of convict transportation and by the growing proportion of free-born members of the population
- many of the ideas that had inspired both the American War of Independence and the French Revolution, as well as other events and movements in Europe and America. Political convicts and the great movement of gold-rush settlers in the second half of the 19th century brought these ideas and values to the Australian colonies.

It is also fair to say that Britain had learned from the experiences of losing the American colonies and was not going to make the same mistakes again. In 1850, the British Parliament passed the *Australian Colonies Government Act*, which provided all of the Australian colonies with the right to govern themselves. Each colony could write and pass its own laws, provided that those laws did not contradict any existing British laws. From this time on there was a growing acceptance of the principles of popular democracy.

APPLY 4.12

- 1 Perhaps the most significant group to influence the course of Australian democracy was the Chartists. Research what the Chartists believed, and why many of them ended up in Australia. How many of the Chartists' main demands can you find in Australia's political system today?

Why Australia federated

In the minds of many Australians, by the 1890s federation of the colonies to form a single nation was an idea whose time had come. The example of the United States loomed large. From the mid-1800s, the United States had become a model for Australia's idea of itself and its future, including its constitution. 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. The issues of defence, fears of the non-white races, and economic arguments were also important.

Increasing recognition of an Australian identity

By 1901, almost 80 per cent of the people in the 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 its culture, customs and way of life. In the leadup to Federation, many appeals were made to the native-born (which did not include the Aborigines) to support the idea of a new nation.

EXTEND 4.8

- 1 As a class, discuss what was meant by the term 'Australian' in the lead up to Federation. How much has that changed today? Why do you think it has changed?

The White Australia ideal

The White Australia ideal was an important element in Australia's developing sense of national identity, and a key reason why Australians accepted federation was to enable a nationwide immigration policy to restrict the entry of non-white immigrants. Alfred Deakin, who became Australia's second prime minister, was one of many politicians and campaigners for federation who expressed a desire to preserve Australia as a white nation (see Source 4.78). The very first law passed by the new parliament in 1901 was the Immigration Restriction Act. This act used a complicated dictation test to ensure that only 'desirable' immigrants could enter the country.

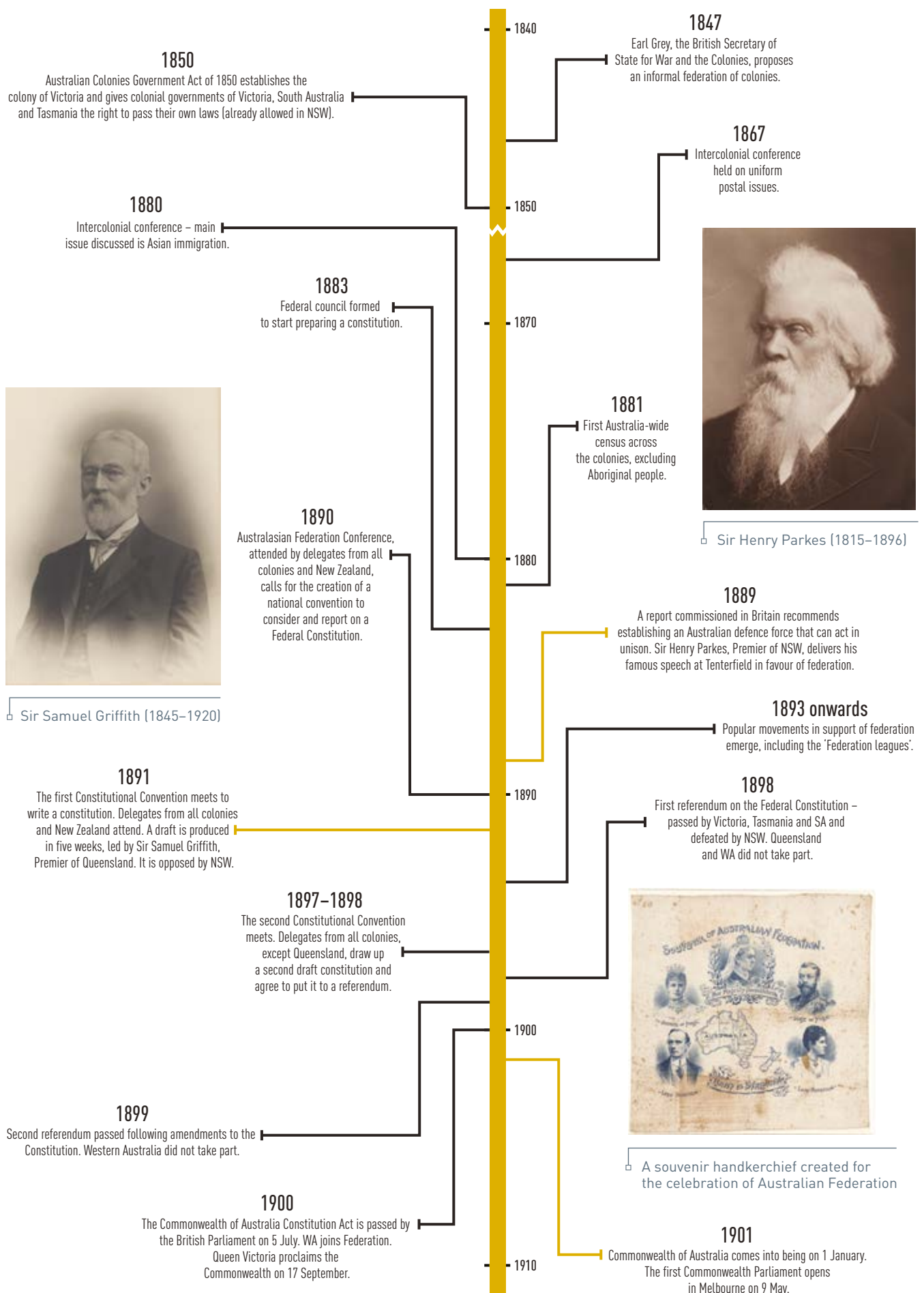
Defence concerns

In the early 1880s, a number of European countries were adding to their **empires** in Africa and Asia, and some were interested in setting up colonies in the Pacific region. Some colonists feared that this imperialist frenzy might lead to a takeover of some Australian territory. A number of colonial leaders saw that the colonies could better defend themselves if they united.

Economic influences

Many historians argue that the main driver for federation was economic. Federation would allow banks, import and export merchants and manufacturers to develop across colonial barriers. It was also thought that one of the main obstacles to economic progress was the two different customs systems that operated between the colonies. In Victoria, **tariffs** (taxes) were placed on all goods entering the colony from interstate or overseas in order to protect local industries. This made the imported products more expensive 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 cost the same as 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.

Another economic influence on federation came from the 1890s depression. Many in the eastern colonies argued that a centrally managed economy could prevent future depressions or allow them to be better managed.



Source 4.77 Key events in the achievement of Federation

Influences towards Federation

Source 4.78

The unity of Australia is nothing, if that does not imply a united race. A united race not only means that its members can intermix, intermarry and associate without degradation on either side, but implies one inspired by the same ideas and an aspiration towards the same ideals, of a people possessing the same general cast of character, tone of thought, the same constitutional training and traditions. Unity of race is an absolute essential to the unity of Australia.

Speech by Alfred Deakin on the Immigration Restriction Bill, Commonwealth Parliamentary Debates, 12 September 1901

Source 4.79

... Australian federation was thus partly to do with emotion, but there was also a practical side ... One of the major Australian concerns was the increase in Chinese immigration which many people saw as a threat ... Australian governments also became worried about their vulnerability to outside attack, and were also uneasy about the possibility of European nations establishing colonies close to their shores. Queensland was particularly concerned about German designs on New Guinea. On 4 April 1883 Queensland annexed eastern New Guinea, but this was disallowed by the British Government. When Germany annexed a portion of New Guinea in December 1884, this highlighted Australia's lack of independence.

Immigration and defence were not the only issues bothering the Australian colonies. Since the 1850s, trade and movement between the colonies were restricted by the existence of tariff barriers. The train trip between Sydney and Melbourne,

for example, was held up by the need for passengers' luggage to be checked by customs officers at Albury.

Extract from Scott Bennett, Australian Parliamentary Library
Canberra, *ABS Year Book 2001*



Source 4.80 The front cover of sheet music for the 'White Australia' song and the opening lyrics

Australia! Australia!
Sunny south of Old Britannia's sons,
Australia, the white man's land,
Defended by the white man's guns,
Australia! Australia!
For Anglo Saxon race and Southern Cross,
God bless and help us to protect
Our glorious land Australia.

INTERPRET 4.16

- 1 Examine the lyrics of Source 4.80 closely. Explain how these words could help a historian to understand the values and attitudes of Australians at the time it was published. Is there anything that helps understand how popular the song was?
- 2 What arguments does Alfred Deakin advance for the Immigration Restriction Bill in 1901?
- 3 What arguments for Federation does Scott Bennett identify in Source 4.79? Does his position make him qualified to comment?
- 4 Describe the values and attitudes that these sources suggest Australians had in common around the time of Federation.
- 5 Explain what makes each of these sources reliable historical sources.

Influences and arguments against Federation

The main 'enemies' of Federation were:

- the fears of the smaller colonies that they would be dominated by Victoria and New South Wales
- different economic ideas of some colonies. New South Wales, for example, wanted free trade between all the colonies, while Victoria wanted to retain tariffs
- the natural conservatism of some people who just did not like change
- the petty inter-state jealousies that had contributed to the colonies having different railway gauges and the dispute over the location of the Federal capital.

Consequences of the constitution for women and Indigenous people

Under the Federal Constitution in 1901, many of the rights extended to citizens of the new nation 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 constitution allowed all people who already had the right to vote in their colonies to exercise this right in Federal elections. In other words, 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 1901*, which extended the vote to all Australian women over 21 and denied the vote to all Indigenous Australians. Although women were in no way equal to men, for example, in terms of wages and property rights, in Australia they now had greater political rights than women in most parts of the world. Indigenous people, however, had no Federal voting rights. It was not until 1962 that Indigenous Australians in all states were given full voting rights.

APPLY 4.13

- 1 As a class, divide into two groups to identify the competing viewpoints for and against Federation at the start of the 20th century. Each group is to research and represent their viewpoint as the class holds your own constitutional convention.
- 2 Discuss this statement from the Australian Human Rights Commission: 'The Australian Constitution has failed to protect Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander rights as the first peoples of this country.' Is this a valid statement?

REVIEW 4.11

- 1 What actually happened when Australia federated? When did this take place?
- 2 Which was the last state to decide to join the Federation?
- 3 Which other country was briefly considered to be part of Federation?
- 4 What did the British Parliament's 1850 *Australian Colonies Government Act* do?
- 5 Outline the major arguments that successfully convinced Australians to federate.
- 6 Who were specifically excluded from citizen rights under federation?

AUSTRALIA'S CONSTITUTION AND SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT

Australia's Constitution

The Constitution outlined the structures through which Australia would be governed, and the roles and responsibilities of the prime minister and each state. The characteristics of the new government reflected the values of Australians at the time. Australians wanted to govern themselves. However, they still believed that they were a part of the British Empire and so retained the British style of government, the parliamentary system and the monarch.

Source 4.82

The Australian Constitution established the Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia, created with a House of Representatives and a Senate. The Constitution also established the High Court of Australia, which has the power to apply and interpret the laws of Australia.

The Australian Constitution can only be changed through a special vote called a referendum. In a referendum, there needs to be a double majority for the Australian Constitution to be changed. This means that the majority of voters in a majority of states and a majority of voters across the nation must vote for the change.

Extract from the Australian Constitution

Source 4.83

How is the power of government controlled?

The Australian Constitution divides power between three arms of government. This is to stop one person or one group of people taking over all the power to govern Australia.

Legislative power: Parliament has the power to make and change the laws. Parliament is made up of representatives who are elected by the people of Australia.

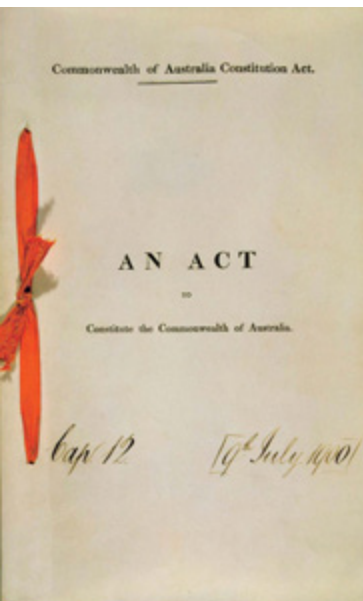
Executive power: Executive power is the power to put the laws into practice. The Executive includes Australian Government ministers and the Governor-General. Each minister is responsible for one or more government departments.

Judicial power: Judges have the power to interpret and apply the law. Courts and judges are independent of parliament and government.

Extract from Commonwealth of Australia 2012, *Australian Citizenship: Our common bond*, p. 24

Australia's federal system of government

The Australian government is a federal system, made up of a group of states and territories – the former colonies. Each state has its own constitution and parliament. Each state and the Northern Territory are divided into local government areas, with councils responsible for planning and delivering services in their local areas. The areas of responsibility under Australia's three tiers of government are outlined in Source 4.84.



Source 4.81
The Australian Constitution

The Australian 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.

Some responsibilities are shared between the various levels of government. The Council of Australian Governments (COAG) has been set up to encourage cooperation between the levels of government.

Extract from Commonwealth of Australia 2012, *Australian Citizenship: Our common bond*, p. 24

The government was established as a bicameral system. This means it was made up of two houses of parliament: the House of Representatives and the Senate. The system of government is largely based on the British or Westminster system, but the two-house system is modelled on the American government. This was because there was some anxiety about uneven populations in the different states.

The House of Representatives (also 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. The most populous state, New South Wales, has the largest number of seats in the House of Representatives and Tasmania has the smallest. The lower house is responsible for the formation of the government. The government is formed by the party or parties that have the majority of elected delegates. The prime minister is leader of that party and is responsible for the overall governing of the nation.

The Senate (also called the upper house) represents all 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.

APPLY 4.14

- 1 Create a flow chart that shows clearly how laws are made in Australia's federal system of government. Show the interaction of the legislative, executive and judicial branches of the government. Research what happens if someone challenges a law, so you can also include that process.

REVIEW 4.12

- 1 Why does Australia have a constitution?
- 2 How can the Constitution be changed?
- 3 What does it mean when Australia is described as a 'federal system'?
- 4 Which two countries specifically influenced our form of government?
- 5 Explain the difference between the Senate and the House of Representatives.

LEGISLATION THAT SHAPED A NATION

APPLY 4.15

- 1 Many people argue that Australia has still to accept its origins as a white nation in 1901. Discuss the statement that, 'Australia began its life as a racist nation.' Is this a valid discussion in the 21st century?



Source 4.85 The Chinese community in Melbourne celebrates Federation in 1901.

As we have seen, the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1901* took away the voting rights of Indigenous Australians, while extending voting rights to all non-Indigenous women for the first time. Soon after Federation, the Commonwealth government also introduced some of the most progressive social justice and industrial legislation in the world, for the benefit of white Australians. One of its first priorities, however, was the introduction of the Pacific Islanders Act and Immigration Restriction Act in 1901, which defined the racial boundaries of the new nation.

The *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*

The *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* was the foundation of what became known as the '**White Australia policy**'. In practice, it banned all non-European immigrants from settling in Australia. Along with this new law came the *Pacific Islander Labourers Act 1901*, which ordered the deportation of non-whites, mostly from the Pacific islands, who had been brought to Australia during the 19th century to work on Queensland's sugar-cane fields.

The Immigration Restriction Act did not specifically state that non-whites were excluded from entering the country. It simply stated that a prospective immigrant could be given a dictation test in any European language chosen by an immigration official. Unwanted immigrants were given the test in a language they did not understand. The result of this system was that very few non-whites were admitted to Australia and, after a few years, non-white immigrants were less and less likely to apply to enter Australia. The phasing out of this policy did not begin until the 1960s.

Ironically, there was still a strong Chinese presence in Australia during this period. Many were gold immigrants or their children, and some had developed successful businesses and had positive feelings about the country. At Federation, the Chinese communities in the capital cities and former gold towns enthusiastically celebrated the occasion with street arches and parades (see Source 4.85).

SOURCE STUDY

A white Australia

NULLA-NULLA

"AUSTRALIA'S WHITE HOPE,
THE BEST HOUSEHOLD SOAP"



Source 4.86 Popular advertising campaigns like this one promoting soap represented the view that white things and white people were good while anything else was inferior. The Indigenous Australian woman in the advertisement wears a sign that labels her as 'dirt'.

Source 4.87

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, editor of the labour newspaper *Tocsin*, 25 April 1901. O'Dowd was one of the few people willing to argue against the racism of the majority.

Source 4.88

We must take steps to prevent any Aboriginal from acquiring the right to vote. Surely it is absolutely repugnant to the greater number of the people of the Commonwealth that an Aboriginal man or Aboriginal lubra or gin [woman] – a horrible, degraded, dirty creature – should have the same rights that we have decided to give to our wives and daughters ... The honourable gentleman fails to recognise that we have taken this country from the blacks, and made it a white man's country, and intend to keep it a white man's country, so that there is no earthly use in the honourable gentleman saying that 100 years ago this was a black man's country ... We are aware of the fact that it is very regrettable, and the only consolation we have is that they are gradually dying out.

Western Australian Senator Alexander Matheson,
Commonwealth Parliamentary Debates,
Senate, 22 May 1901



Source 4.89 A cartoon from *The Worker*, Brisbane, shows what looks like an Italian, a Chinese, and two South Sea Islanders on the 'outside' of the fence and Australian labour on the inside. It highlights arguments over immigrant workers at the time with employers wanting access to cheap labour but unions wanting jobs to be kept for 'white' Australians.

INTERPRET 4.17

- 1 Examine each of these sources carefully. Outline how each would be received in modern Australian society. Explain how these sources help you to understand the importance of context when examining sources.
- 2 Using your knowledge of Australia in 1901, how do you think Source 4.88 would have been received?
- 3 What evidence can you produce that could show the success of Alexander Matheson's argument?
- 4 Explain how Source 4.86 could be used as evidence of widespread Australian values around 1901.
- 5 Explain how Source 4.89 helps you to understand white Australian fears of foreigners in 1901.

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' minimum wage was brought to the attention of Justice Higgins in 1907. The owner of the Sunshine Harvester Company of Victoria applied to the Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Court for permission to sell his farm machinery without paying the required **tariff** (tax). The owner, HV Mackay, had to show that he was paying his workers a fair wage to avoid the tariff. The Court itself had been established by the *Conciliation and Arbitration Act 1904* as a forum to settle industrial disputes.

APPLY 4.16

- 1 Use Source 4.90 to help you create your own table comparing prices in 1907 with prices today. In the first column, list the minimum wage and the price of the nine common goods. In the second column, put the heading *1907 prices allowing for inflation*, and multiply each figure by 50. In the third column put the actual prices today, including today's minimum wage. Use this table to argue whether it was easier to live in 1907 or today.

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 (approximately \$4.20) was enough to support a man, his wife and three or four children in basic comfort. This was an increase from the weekly wage paid by Sunshine Harvesters of 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.

The Harvester Judgement was ruled to be unconstitutional by the High Court when HV Mackay appealed the decision. Higgins, however, ignored the High Court's ruling, and the judgement became accepted as an example to be followed in labour relations from then on.

Source 4.90 The minimum weekly wage from 1907 and prices of common items around this time. Amounts have been converted from pounds (£), shillings and pence (the currency used in Australia until 1966) to dollars (\$) and cents for clarity.

Minimum weekly wage, adult male	\$4.20
Loaf of bread	\$0.02
Milk (1 litre)	\$0.03
Rump steak	\$0.15
Men's cotton shirt	\$0.85
Women's shoes	\$1.45
Rent of 3 bedroom house per week	\$1.30
Daily newspaper	\$0.01
Theatre ticket	\$0.35
Game of football	\$0.10

APPLY 4.17

- 1 As a class, discuss the sort of society the Australian government appeared to be trying to create based on the legislation enacted between 1901 and 1914. How does it compare to what governments are trying to do today?

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 in the population at this time. The period 1891–1902 saw the number of old people increase by 60 per cent. The act was recognition of the fact that many invalids and elderly people had no means of supporting themselves. They had worked hard to build the country, paid their taxes and they deserved some help in return.

Maternity Allowances Act 1912

In 1912, the Labor government introduced the Maternity Allowances Act. The aim was to reduce infant mortality rates by improving access to medical services for pregnant women. The government also agreed to pay five pounds to the mother at the birth of every child. This lump sum was known as the 'baby bonus' and was designed to encourage women to have more children to build a stronger Australia with a bigger white population. Women who preferred to work rather than marry and have children were accused of selfishness and of putting their own desires before the needs of the nation.

The 'baby bonus' was not available to 'Asiatic', Pacific Islander or Aboriginal women.

REVIEW 4.13

- 1 Explain how the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* enabled Australia to keep out potential migrants from non-white countries.
- 2 Explain why Chinese communities in Australia would have celebrated Federation in 1901.
- 3 Outline what the Harvester Judgement of 1907 actually did.
- 4 Explain why the Invalid and Old Age Pensions Act was passed in 1908.

WHAT KEY EVENTS AND IDEAS LED TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF AUSTRALIAN SELF-GOVERNMENT AND DEMOCRACY?

» Explain how and why Federation was achieved in 1901

- 1 Outline the basic arguments for and against Federation. (10 marks)
- 2 Argue whether Australia's progress from separate colonies to self-government to Federation was evolutionary or revolutionary. (5 marks)
- 3 Outline the steps Australia went through to legally become a federation. (10 marks)
- 4 Discuss the claim that Federation introduced a new, inclusive, peace-loving, diverse and democratic country to the world. Do you believe it to be an accurate statement? Provide reasons for your response. (5 marks)
- 5 Explain what the introduction of the Immigration Restriction Act – one of the first major pieces of legislation to be passed in Australia – reveals about the new country's attitude and values. (5 marks)

» Outline state and federal responsibilities under the Australian Constitution

- 6 Explain what COAG is and why it is necessary in Australia. (5 marks)
- 7 In your notebook, copy and complete the following table by adding the level of government responsible for each activity: *Federal, State or Local*. (10 marks)

Activity	Level of government
Drains	
Schools	
Public transport	
Taxation	
Police	
Defence	
Hospitals	
Immigration	
Social security	
Rubbish collection	

» Discuss the consequences of the introduction of the Australian Constitution for the rights of women and Aboriginal people

- 8 'The Australian Constitution was intended to unite Australia under the original and continuing agreement of the Australian people, but the first peoples of Australia were not included in this agreement.'
 - a Identify the sections of the Australian Constitution that this statement by the Australian Human Rights Commission refers to.
 - b Explain how these sections of the Australian Constitution excluded Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. (5 marks)
- 9 How did the introduction of the Australian Constitution affect the voting rights of women across Australia? (5 marks)

4.4

CHECKPOINT

» Identify key features of the Harvester Judgment, pensions legislation and the *Immigration Restriction Act*

10 In your notebook, copy and complete the following table, providing key facts about significant Federal legislation passed into law in the first decade of the Australian parliament. The first example has been done for you. (15 marks)

Legislation	Date	Reason	Outcome
Immigration Restriction Act	1901	Restrict non-white entry into Australia	White Australia Policy
Commonwealth Franchise Act			
Conciliation and Arbitration Act			
Invalid and Old Age Pensions Act			
Maternity Allowances Act			

11 Explain the most important ways in which the Harvester Judgement changed Australia. (5 marks)

» Discuss what these reforms and legislation reveal about the kind of society the Australian government aimed to create

12 Taking into consideration all the legislation and judgements discussed in this section, describe the type of society the Federal government seemed to be trying to create in Australia. What evidence supports your conclusion? (10 marks)

» Assess the impact of this legislation on Australian society in this period

13 How successful was the Australian government in creating a society in which everyone could prosper before World War I? (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASKS

Who's your daddy?

If you type 'Father of Federation' into any search engine, chances are you will quickly be directed to a website about Sir Henry Parkes. Many countries around the world bestow similar titles on people (generally men) they consider to have made significant contributions to the establishment of their nation. George Washington, for example, is often referred to as the 'Father of his country' in the United States. But given that so many people in Australia contributed to Federation at all levels, why is Sir Henry Parkes referred to as the 'Father of Federation' so often? Is this merely a form of propaganda, or does his contribution stand out above all others?

Let's examine the contributions of all possible candidates for the title in order to decide:

- Henry Parkes (New South Wales)
- James Service (Victoria)
- Samuel Griffith (Queensland)
- Charles Cameron Kingston (South Australia)
- Edmund Barton (New South Wales)
- George Reid (New South Wales)
- Alfred Deakin (Victoria).

- 1 Divide the class into seven groups, and allocate one of the names listed to each group.
- 2 Conduct research to learn more about the specific contribution towards Federation made by the person you are investigating.
- 3 As a class, discuss the findings. Each group should present its research and make a case for whether the person it has investigated deserves to be recognised as the 'Father or Federation'.
- 4 Based on your discussions, does anyone deserve the title of 'Father of Federation'? If so, as a group decide on a suitable monument or tribute to this person. Would something similar to the Citizen's Arch in Bourke Street, Melbourne (see Source 4.91) be appropriate?
- 5 How has the process helped you understand Australia's journey to Federation?
- 6 Why isn't there a 'Mother of Federation'? Has your research uncovered any possible candidates?



Source 4.91 The Citizen's Arch in Bourke Street, Melbourne

Who really had a say?

- 1 Analyse the Commonwealth Franchise Act of 1902, outlining who could vote in Federal elections.
- 2 Draw up a list of who could vote, and a list of who was excluded.
- 3 As a class, discuss how democratic you think Australia was in 1902.
- 4 In 1902, Sir Edward Braddon argued in parliament that if women were given the vote, 'the married man, happy in his family, whose wife's vote is one which he can command' would 'have two votes'.
 - a Discuss the statement made by Sir Edward Braddon. What do you think he was implying when he said this? Do you think it was an accurate assumption to make at the time? Justify your answer.
 - b Compare Braddon's statement about giving women the vote with the opinion expressed by Senator Alexander Matheson in Source 4.88 about giving Indigenous Australians the vote. In what ways are their viewpoints similar and in what ways are they different?
- 5 Argue the case for or against the claim that Australia was the birthplace of modern democracy.

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

5



Source 5.1 These wooden, silk and gold shoes, designed for the tiny bound feet of a Chinese woman, were made in the last half of the 19th century. The ancient practice of foot binding was officially banned in 1912, but continued for many years after that date.

ASIA AND THE WORLD: CHINA

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, and Chinese society was largely cut off from the Western world. The emperor and his court saw China as a superior civilisation with little need for foreign contact. In 1760, in order to limit foreign contact, the emperor commanded that foreign merchants were only permitted to trade from one Chinese port.

By the end of this period, China was divided and weak. Foreign nations such as Britain, France and Japan had 'spheres of influence' within China that included key trading ports and much of the countryside. New ideas had spread into China from the West, such as the need for modernisation and the emergence of nationalist movements that challenged traditional Chinese beliefs about the right of the emperor to rule.



WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF CHINESE SOCIETY AROUND 1750?

5.1

SECTION

In this section you will:

- » identify key physical features and the geographic extent of China
- » describe the structure of Chinese society and the role of its leaders
 - » outline key features of the Chinese economy
- » describe China's main religious beliefs and cultural features
 - » discuss the lives and work of men, women and children

||||| CHECKPOINT 5.1

TO WHAT EXTENT DID CHINESE SOCIETY CHANGE AS A RESULT OF CONTACT WITH EUROPEANS?

5.2

SECTION

In this section you will:

- » outline the nature of the contact between China and European powers
- » assess the significance of a key event involving China and a European power, using sources to identify different perspectives of the event
- » explain how China was changed by its contact with Europeans
- » identify features of Chinese society that were unaffected by contact with Europeans
- » discuss the positive and negative consequences of contact between China and European powers during this period
- » using a range of sources, compare Chinese society to other nations around 1900

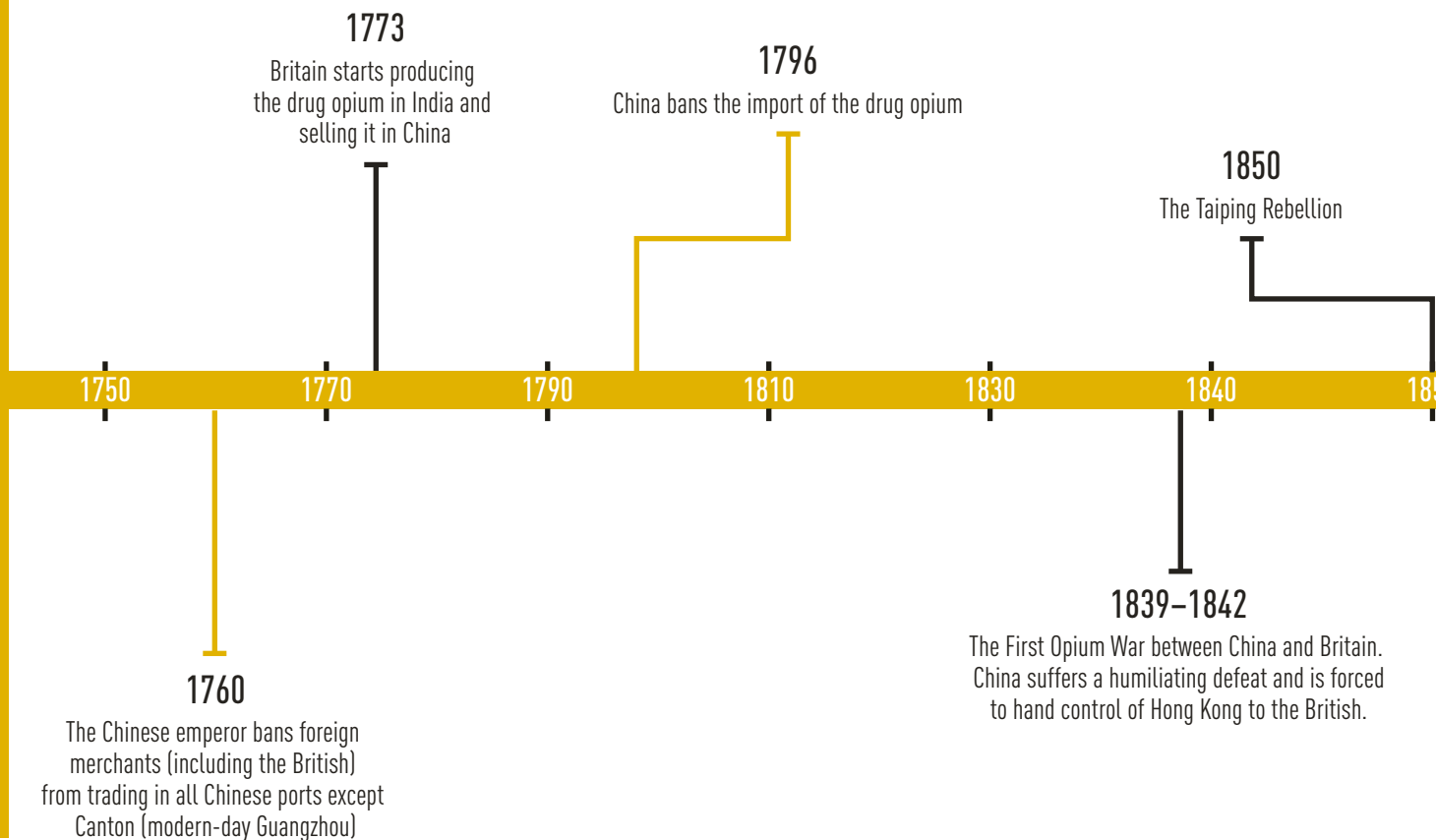
||||| CHECKPOINT 5.2

ASIA AND THE WORLD: CHINA – A TIMELINE



Source 5.3 A Chinese opium den

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Source 5.2
Foreign 'factories' or warehouses in Canton

Source 5.4 A Japanese print from 1895 shows the surrender of Chinese admiral Ding Ruchang and his foreign advisers (right) to officers of the Japanese navy (left).

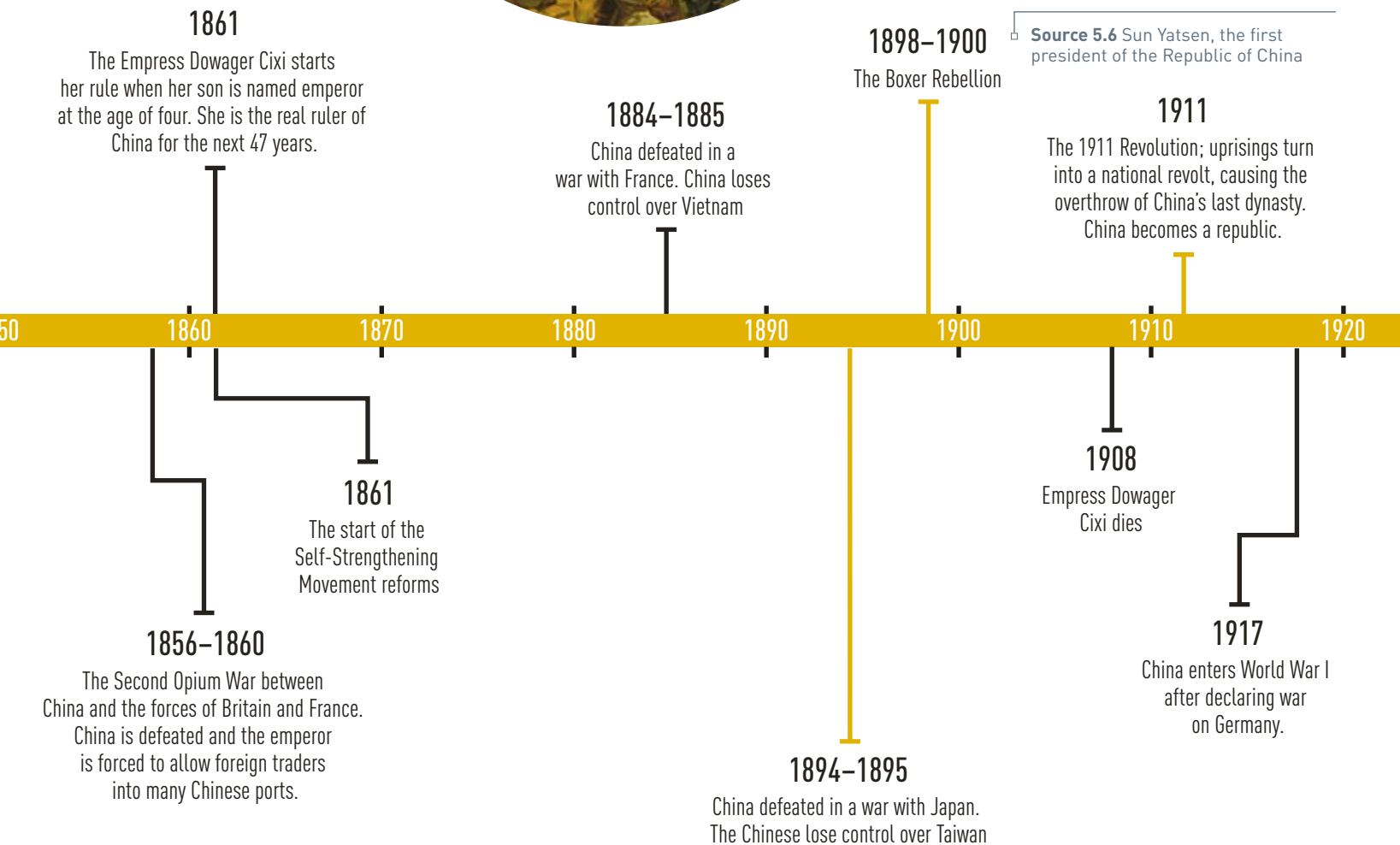




Source 5.5 Fighting between Boxers and international forces in Beijing during the Boxer Rebellion



Source 5.6 Sun Yatsen, the first president of the Republic of China



REVIEW 5.1

- 1 What was Britain's first interest in China? How did China react?
- 2 What were the outcomes of the two Opium Wars?
- 3 Why is Empress Dowager Cixi a significant individual in this period of Chinese history?
- 4 What was the result of the 1911 Revolution?
- 5 Which country did China declare war on in World War I?

5.1

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF CHINESE SOCIETY AROUND 1750?

In the 18th century, China was largely cut off from the rest of the world. The Chinese **emperor** and his court saw China as a superior **civilisation**, with little need of foreign contact. China had a strict social **hierarchy**, and the dominant belief system, **Confucianism**, encouraged respect for one's ancestors, as well as a sense of duty and loyalty between the people and their ruler.

THE PHYSICAL FEATURES AND GEOGRAPHIC EXTENT OF CHINA

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.

At this time, the Chinese Empire was ruled by the Qing **Dynasty**, which had come to power in 1644 and would rule China for the next 268 years. Under the Qing Dynasty, China became one of the largest empires in world history. It covered almost 10 per cent of the total land area on Earth.



Source 5.7 The extent of the Chinese Empire under the Qing Dynasty

Larger than China today, the Chinese Empire in the 18th and 19th centuries included territory that now belongs to Russia, Japan, Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan (see Source 5.7). All of Mongolia sat within the empire, as did the Qing rulers' homeland in Manchuria. The Qing had also conquered both Tibet and the distant western desert provinces of Xinjiang, a huge area of land mainly occupied by a Muslim people called the Uyghurs.

China's territories contained fertile farmland and rich river-systems, particularly the Yellow and Yangtze Rivers and their tributaries. The Yangtze is Asia's longest river, flowing 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, Wuhan 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 waterway in the world, with a length of almost 1800 kilometres (see Source 5.8). It connected Beijing in the north to Hangzhou in the south.

The Chinese Empire also contained some much harsher landscapes. Much of Mongolia was made up of a vast grassland with poor soil and an extreme climate (known as a **steppe**). 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 plateau, a high, flat area of land rising to the Himalayas 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.

APPLY 5.1

- 1 Create a digital scrapbook of images that convey the range of landscapes found across China. Label each of these landscapes with its location and mark it on a blank map of China.



Source 5.8 A modern-day view of a bridge over the Grand Canal – the longest artificial waterway in the world – at Jiangsu, China

REVIEW 5.2

- 1 How wide was the Chinese Empire from west to east in 1750?
- 2 When did the Qing Dynasty come to power, and in which year did its rule come to an end? How many years did it control China?
- 3 Which countries now control land that used to be part of China under the Qing Dynasty?
- 4 Identify China's two major river systems.

KEY FEATURES OF CHINESE SOCIETY AND ECONOMY



Source 5.9 The Qing Dynasty Emperor Qianlong who ruled China from 1735 to 1796

APPLY 5.2

- 1 Create a diagram that shows China's traditional social structure.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The government examination system was introduced in the year 605 – it was over 1000 years old by the time the Qing came to power. Competition was fierce, and by the mid-19th century, over a million candidates from all over the empire sat the examinations each year. Only 25089 places were available.

The ruling Qing Dynasty originally came from an area to the north-east of the empire known as Manchuria. Known as the Manchus, they conquered China in 1644 in a bloody takeover, looting cities and driving out members of the ruling Ming Dynasty. 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. They communicated in Chinese as well as Manchu. However, 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. Important government posts were reserved for Manchu people and marriage between Manchus and Chinese was forbidden.

China's traditional social structure

Social order and harmony were highly valued in traditional Chinese society. Social status depended on your occupation, as well as other aspects such as whether you were male or female. Generally people accepted their place in society and the expectations of how they should behave.

China had a strict social hierarchy, with the emperor and the nobles of the ruling dynasty at the top. The emperor had total authority. He personally directed the army and could overrule any judgement made by any court. Next came the government officials, the scholar-gentry who achieved their positions by performing well in the government examination system. Other classes, in order of wealth, were the merchants, artisans and craftsmen, and the farmers and peasants. However, in terms of the social structure, merchants were considered to be at the bottom because they did not make or produce anything and only worked for their own gain. This social order remained unchanged from the time of the first emperor of a unified China, Qin Shi Huang Di in 221 BC, to the late 1800s.

The emperor

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 and was also known as the 'Son of Heaven'. 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 and the rule of his dynasty.

Government officials

Beneath the emperor, trained officials looked after the day-to-day running of the empire. In theory, most males could sit for the government examination 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 or join the imperial court in Beijing.

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 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' (see Source 5.10).

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 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 (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 (known as bannermen) and were elite forces (see Source 5.11). Over time, these military ranks became hereditary as the army chose to recruit the sons of existing officers.

The other major military force was the Green Standard Army. This mainly consisted of non-Manchu 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.



Source 5.10 A group of Chinese government officials, referred to by Europeans as mandarins



Source 5.11 Qing Dynasty bannermen

EXTEND 5.1

- 1 Sporting coaches have been known to quote Sun Tzu's *The Art of War* to their players. Research the book and explain why the writings of a 6th-century Chinese general can be useful in modern-day sport.

Like government officials, military officers also sat examinations. The military examinations tested the same philosophical and literary knowledge as the regular government examinations. However, government scholars often looked down on the military 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*.

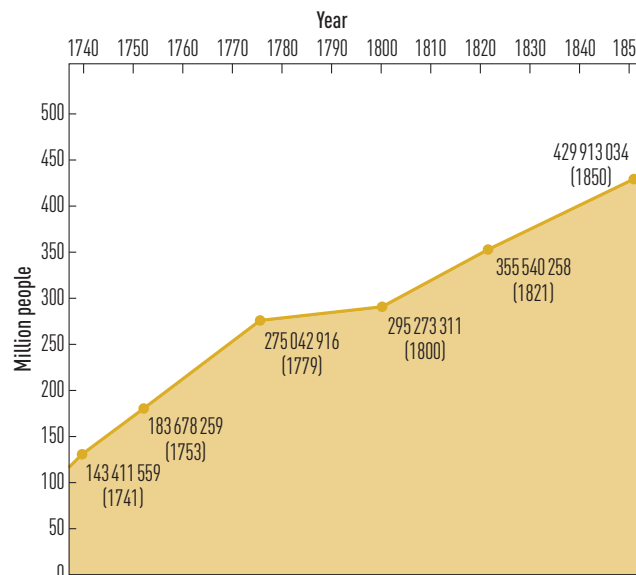
China's economy in the 19th century

During the 19th century, China was predominantly an agricultural society, with more than 90 per cent of the population living and working in the countryside. Many households boosted their income by weaving silk or cotton, or making handicrafts for sale at local markets. Other industries included growing tea and making porcelain.

China had once led the world in the arts and sciences, but by the start of the 19th century those days were in the distant past. When the Qing rulers (originally from Manchuria) first came to power in 1644, they adopted the Chinese arts and sciences and were reluctant to change or reform anything. In fact, in the court of the Qing Emperor – the accepted slogan became, 'all change equals decay'. This meant that the innovation that had made China great in the past was replaced by a reluctance to try anything new.

China did not have advanced industries like Britain or the United States, however, some industrialisation did occur in the 19th century in large cities such as Beijing, Shanghai and Canton (modern-day Guangzhou). Basic iron foundries, for example, employed up to 3000 men in some places. By the late 1800s, a small proportion of workers could be classed as industrial workers. However, as China did not have modern, large-scale industries, a significant industrial working class did not develop in China. The majority of people throughout the period 1750–1918 remained peasant farmers.

One enormously important crop was tea, grown by peasants for sale at the market and bought by tea merchants who shipped it to other countries. By 1800, Britain in particular bought huge amounts of tea from China in exchange for millions of pounds worth of silver every year. Most of this, though, went to the merchants – very little of it made it back to the farmers who grew the leaves.



China struggled economically in the second half of the 19th century. Its population more than doubled, swelling to over 400 million between 1750 and 1850. This increase in population size, together with a lack of new ideas, meant that China's food production was only just keeping up with the needs of the population. Large numbers of people began moving across the country in search of work and food, unsettling the empire.

Source 5.12 China's population growth from 143 million in 1741 to 430 million in 1850. Population pressure put increasing demand on production and China's ability to feed its people.

China's economy in the late 19th century

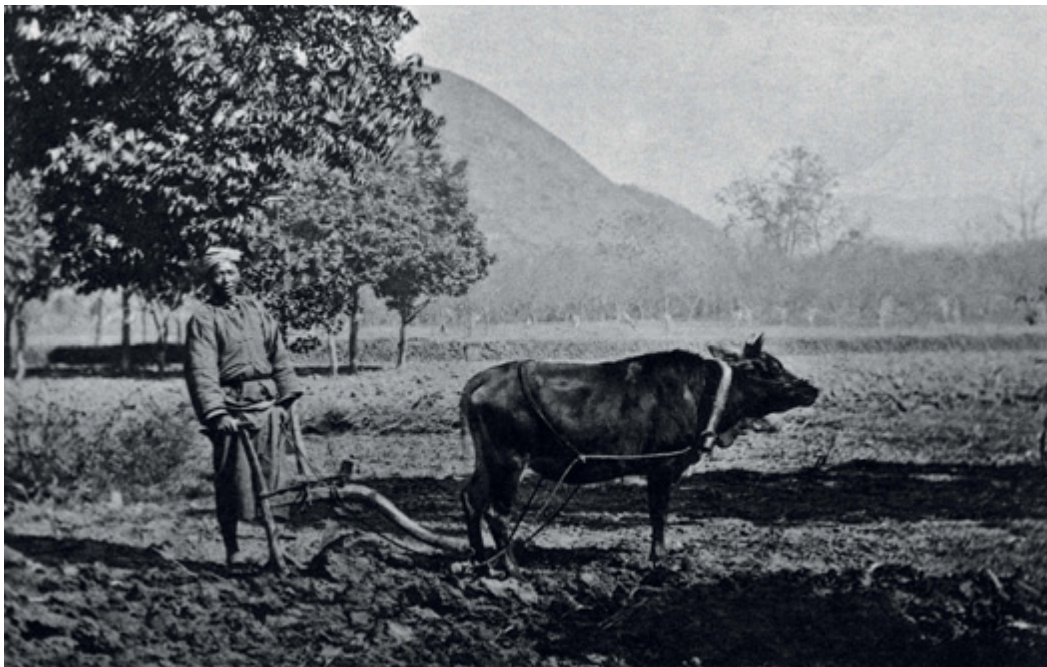
SOURCE STUDY



Source 5.13 Workers processing tea in Canton in the late 19th century



Source 5.14 Destitute people in China were forced to move around the country looking for food and work.



Source 5.15 A farmer with his ox and plough, c. 1870s

INTERPRET 5.1

- 1 Describe the impression of China you get from Sources 5.13 and 5.15.
- 2 What does Source 5.13 reveal about the impact of the Industrial Revolution on China in the 19th century? What are the risks of relying only on this single source to come to any conclusion?
- 3 Look at the caption that has been given to source 5.14. Does that influence the way you interpret the source? What caption would you give it to describe the way you interpret it?

Reforms from the 1860s

From the mid-1860s, after military and naval defeats by Britain and France, the Qing government realised that China needed to improve its military forces. 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.

In this period, known as the 'Self-Strengthening Movement', China started 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'.

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 producing modern rifles, initially 12 a day. In 1877, the first steam engine was used to power a wool mill. Other industries included shipyards and coal mines.

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.



Source 5.16 A silk factory in Shanghai, c. 1900

Government under the Qing Dynasty

APPLY 5.3

- 1 Create a diagram or graphic that explains the government system developed under the Qing Dynasty.

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. The emperor had the final say in all matters of government.

Below the emperor there were the government officials known as the 'Grand Council'. They kept the emperor informed about important events and helped him to make significant decisions. Reporting to the Grand Council were six groups, known as boards, who took responsibility for different tasks within the governments: the Board of Civil Appointments, the Board of Finance, the Board of Rites, the Board of War, the Board of Punishments and the Board of Works.

Beyond the capital, China was divided into 18 provinces (administrative regions). Eight powerful men called governors-general (or viceroys) ruled over these 18 provinces, and they also reported to the Grand Council. Under the viceroys 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 government officials who reported to the province's governor. Local officials were responsible for collecting taxes from the people, passing judgements and managing building projects.

The emperor ruled from his palace in Beijing, known as the Forbidden City. The Grand Council also met here, as did some other important officials. The palace contained 980 separate buildings, as well as gardens, courtyards and an artificial river. As the name suggests, entry to the Forbidden City was highly restricted. 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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

When responding to letters or writing down his decisions, the emperor used vermillion (scarlet red) ink – a colour that was forbidden to all others.



Source 5.17 The Forbidden City in Beijing was the centre of power for the empire.

REVIEW 5.3

- 1 Explain why it was an advantage to be a Manchu if you wanted a position in government.
- 2 Who had ultimate power in both social and political organisation in Qing Dynasty China? What was the source of this power?
- 3 Explain why government posts were highly sought after.
- 4 What were the main knowledge areas tested for in the examination system?
- 5 Name the two separate military forces that existed during the Qing Dynasty.
- 6 How much of China's population was involved in agriculture in the 19th century?

RELIGIOUS BELIEFS AND CULTURAL FEATURES

Chinese beliefs and practices in the 19th century

Three main religions or philosophies existed together in Chinese society from ancient times: **Confucianism**, **Daoism** and **Buddhism**. At different periods in China's history, they varied in their influence and popularity, often depending on the ruling dynasty's attitude or preferences towards them. Chinese people often combined elements of these different religions and philosophies in their daily lives, rather than committing to one set of beliefs.

Confucianism

The main belief system in China during the Qing Dynasty was Confucianism. Confucianism is not a religion, but a code of behaviour or set of guidelines that influence how people conduct themselves in daily life.

Confucius was a philosopher and teacher who lived from 551 to 479 BC 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 towards their superiors. Confucius taught that if everyone followed these rules, 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.



Source 5.18 A statue of Confucius at the Confucius Temple in Beijing

APPLY 5.4

- 1 Investigate Confucius' philosophies. Suggest how his teachings and beliefs influence the Chinese way of life to this day.

Daoism and Buddhism

Daoism is said to have begun with the teachings of the Chinese philosopher Laozi (600–531 BC). In contrast to Confucianism, Daoists value the spiritual links with nature. They endeavour to become one with the life force (the Dao or 'the Way'), which requires constant change to balance the yin (female) and yang (male) forces within oneself. Meditation is one way to help in this spiritual struggle.

Buddhism was founded in India and is based on the teachings of Gautama Buddha, who was born in India in the 6th century BC. Gautama Buddha taught that life is characterised by suffering and that all people are trapped in a cycle of birth and rebirth, or reincarnation. To escape this cycle, an individual has to achieve enlightenment, or freedom from desire.

Arts under the Qing Dynasty

Chinese porcelain

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 porcelain made by Chinese artisans.

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 of Chinese porcelain was the growth of the trade in Chinese tea. By 1800, exporting tea was so profitable that cargo space in ships was given to tea rather than porcelain.



Source 5.19 A porcelain vase from 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. The elements of water, hills, trees, temples, walkways and palace buildings were placed carefully in relation to each other to create a single impression of completeness.

The Qianlong Emperor began the building project in 1749 by expanding existing gardens to create a summer retreat. 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, 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. The lake's islands, bridges and side-streams deliberately echoed the landscape of the famous West Lake near the city of Hangzhou in the south. In this way, the Qianlong Emperor's garden demonstrated a connection between northern and southern China.

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.



Source 5.20 Now a major tourist attraction, this modern-day photo of the Summer Palace shows paddle boats on Kunming Lake.

Literature

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Dream of the Red Chamber is said to be the fourth-highest selling book in history, with more than 100 million copies sold. The other highest-selling books ever are *The Hobbit* in third place (more than 100 million copies) and *The Lord of the Rings* in second place (more than 150 million copies), both by JRR Tolkien. The highest selling book of all time is *A Tale of Two Cities* (more than 200 million copies) by Charles Dickens.

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.

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).



Source 5.21 A scene from the Chinese opera *Farewell My Concubine*, a story from 200 BC, still performed in modern times

REVIEW 5.4

- 1 Identify the three main religions or philosophies that underpinned Chinese society.
- 2 What evidence is there that Chinese porcelain was highly regarded in Europe? Why did it lose popularity? What evidence supports this loss in popularity?
- 3 Explain how culture was used to support tradition under the Qing Dynasty.
- 4 Outline the ways in which the Summer Palace reflected the Emperor's dominance.
- 5 Identify how Beijing opera performers conveyed emotion or indicated an action.

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.

Life on farms and rural villages

Only around 6 per cent of the population lived in cities with more than 50 000 people. The rest of the population lived in small farming 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.

Craftsmen and peasant farmers still used simple technology in their day-to-day lives. People and animals, rather than machines, did nearly all the physical work. Farmers used tools such as ploughs, and carts for transporting goods. Weavers used spinning wheels or hand spindles to make silk or cotton thread, and porcelain makers used the same hand moulding techniques that had been used for centuries.

Tradition in daily life

Source 5.22

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.

American missionary Arthur Smith writing about China in 1899

SOURCE STUDY



Source 5.23 A
painting from the 19th century depicting the manufacturing of porcelain in China using hand modelling and moulding techniques

INTERPRET 5.2

- 1 Explain how these sources help you understand continuity and change as a historical concept.
- 2 Outline what these three sources have in common.
- 3 Explain how a historian would use these sources.



Source 5.24 Chinese peasants in Southern China planting rice, an activity that required the labour of peasant men, women and children

The extended family

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 themselves.

The lives of women in Qing Dynasty China

Women in Chinese society occupied a much lower position than men. They could not inherit property and 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.

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 activities. 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 were free to remarry as soon as their wives died. They were also free to seek the company of **concubines** (women kept for the entertainment and pleasure of men) even while they were married. Women, by contrast, were expected to be completely faithful to their husbands. Many people in Chinese society even believed that widows should commit suicide rather than remarry if their husbands died.



Source 5.25 An 18th-century illustration shows an idealised domestic scene in a wealthy family. The woman is arranging flowers for the home.

Foot binding

Foot binding was a widespread practice that affected millions of girls and women in China during the Qing Dynasty. Both men and women saw small feet as a sign of beauty, and many families regarded bound feet as essential 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 the feet of their children. For the next 10 years these girls 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 trouble sleeping at night because of the pain and would ask 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 would not smell. They also had to watch out for pus caused by infections. Girls and women with bound feet walked with difficulty. As a consequence, their leg muscles also often wasted away from lack of use.

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.



Source 5.26 A woman with bound feet, c. 1900

Growing up in Qing Dynasty China



Source 5.27 A group of elite school boys from China who learned English and were taken to study in the USA in 1872, as part of a Chinese government program

Children of peasant farmers were required to work long hours alongside their parents. They tended to livestock and took part in planting and harvesting crops. Girls would also learn household tasks, such as cooking and weaving cloth. Girls were not usually formally educated, although schools established in Buddhist temples did teach boys and girls the basics of reading and writing.

Schools for boys were established throughout China's provinces. There was no such thing as compulsory education. However, if families could spare their sons from work, they were often willing to pay the school tuition so their sons could sit the government examination. The school year generally ran from the end of January to the middle of December, with a break in the summer if the teacher himself went away to sit the government examinations.

The school room was occupied by boys aged from 6 to 17, all studying individually. As well as rote learning the Chinese characters, students learned to recite and analyse the writings of Confucius and other classics. They wrote literary essays and poetry. Science and mathematics were not taught.

Many women in wealthy households were literate, studying at home. However, there were differing views about educating women during the Qing Dynasty. Some scholars viewed education for women as necessary only if it was to help educate their sons or to manage household finances.

SOURCE STUDY

Education during the Qing Dynasty

Source 5.28

INTERPRET 5.3

- 1 How does this source help you describe the Chinese attitude to education?
- 2 Using this source and your own experience, compare the Chinese experience of education with your own.

Preparation for the exams was protracted and arduous. It is said to have begun with pre-natal conditioning: A pregnant woman wishing for a gifted son would sit erect; would avoid clashing colours and strange food; and would hear poetry and the classics read aloud. Boys age 3 began learning characters at home, and began the study of the classics at school at age 8. By age 15, boys learned and memorized the Confucian classics, in preparation for the exams. They also practised writing poems and eight-legged essays, and calligraphy. From ancient times, many poems were composed on the theme, 'If you study while young, you will get ahead.' Here is [a portion of] one written by a Song emperor:

To enrich your family, no need to buy good land:
Books hold a thousand measures of grain
For an easy life, no need to build a mansion:
In books are found houses of gold
A boy who wants to become a somebody
Devotes himself to the classics, faces the window, and reads.

Extract from Insup Taylor and M Martin Taylor, *Writing and Literacy in Chinese, Korean and Japanese*. p. 150

Qing Dynasty fashion

The new Qing rulers established a dress code for the imperial court to distinguish 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 such as 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 such as hemp cloth and sheepskin.

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 queue (plaited ponytail) at the back. Anyone who refused to change his hairstyle 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 like the Qing. Growing one's hair long at the front or cutting off one's queue were seen as symbols of rebellion against the Qing.

This hairstyle lasted until the fall of the Qing Dynasty in 1912, when many men were safely able to cut off their queues (see Source 5.29).



Source 5.29 Men having their queues (plaited ponytails) cut off after the fall of the Qing Dynasty

REVIEW 5.5

- 1 Identify ways in which Chinese peasants could make money.
- 2 Outline the differences between the housing conditions of rich and poor Chinese.
- 3 Identify the ways in which women had fewer opportunities in Chinese society than men.
- 4 Why did Chinese men shave the front of their heads?

5.1

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF CHINESE SOCIETY AROUND 1750?

» Identify key physical features and the geographic extent of China

- On a copy of the map below, label the following features:
 - the main countries bordering China in the period 1750–1918
 - Yellow and Yangtze Rivers
 - Mongolian Steppe
 - Xinjiang desert
 - The Himalayas (10 marks).
- Use the scale on the map below to identify the approximate length and breadth of China during the 19th century. (5 marks)



» Describe the structure of Chinese society and explain the role of leaders

- Complete the following table to explain the roles of the different groups in Chinese society. (25 marks)

Position	Role
Emperor	
Nobles	
Government officials	
Military officials	
Merchants	
Artisans and craftsmen	
Peasant farmers	

» Outline key features of the Chinese economy

- Describe China's economy during the Qing Dynasty. Outline the major problems it was facing. (20 marks)

» Describe China's main religious beliefs and cultural features

- Identify the main religious and philosophical belief systems followed in China. Briefly describe each belief system. (10 marks)

- 6 Select one of the following aspects of Chinese culture from this period, and explain the role it played in Chinese life:

- literature
- opera
- foot binding (10 marks).

» Discuss the lives and work of men, women and children

- 7 Describe the lives of each of the following groups in Qing Dynasty China, showing the differences between rich and poor:

- men
- women
- children (20 marks).

TOTAL MARKS (/100)

RICH TASK

Cixi – from concubine to empress dowager

As you have seen, life for Chinese women was characterised by restrictions that were not placed on men. Yet Cixi rose from the position of **concubine** to become the most powerful person in China.

As individuals:

- 1 Research the role that concubines played in Chinese society.
- 2 Investigate the early career of Cixi. Explain why she was able to accumulate so much power.
- 3 The Smithsonian Institute in an article on Cixi says, 'Some sources paint her as a veritable wicked witch of the East, whose enemies often mysteriously dropped dead. Others link her to tales of sexual intrigue within the palace walls, even questioning whether her favourite eunuch was truly a eunuch.'
Create two lists about Cixi, one that contains information that can be regarded as historical and can be verified; the other containing opinions that might be interesting and exciting but that lack supporting evidence. Which list is the longer? Why might this be the case?
- 4 Develop your own response to the statement: 'Cixi was the most significant figure in Chinese history in the last half of the 19th century.' Make sure you support your response with historical evidence.

As a class:

- 5 Discuss the role and significance of Empress Dowager Cixi. Do you think her reputation in history has suffered because of her gender?



Source 5.30 The Empress Dowager Cixi

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Research
- » Analysis and use of resources.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

5.2

SECTION

TO WHAT EXTENT DID CHINESE SOCIETY CHANGE AS A RESULT OF CONTACT WITH EUROPEANS?

For most of the 18th century, the Qing emperors claimed that China was superior to other nations. They maintained that China was the centre of civilisation and had little need of foreign technology, learning or goods. By the close of the 18th century, however, European powers were demanding more trade and access to a greater number of Chinese trading ports. Over the next 100 years, the Qing emperors witnessed their empire rapidly lose power, as the Chinese lost important wars with foreign nations.

THE NATURE OF CONTACTS BETWEEN CHINA AND THE EUROPEAN POWERS

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In 1807, Englishman Robert Morrison established the first Protestant mission in Guangzhou.

It took Morrison seven years before the first Chinese people converted to Christianity. During this time, he started writing the first Chinese–English dictionary.

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 foreign trade slowed under the Qing emperors. From 1760, foreign traders were only permitted to bring their ships into Canton in the south. They were only permitted contact with the *cohong*, a small group of Chinese merchants authorised by the government to trade with the foreign merchants.

Christian missionaries had also been in China since the 17th century. The Chinese emperors distrusted Christianity. They saw it as a challenge to Confucian values and disliked foreign missionaries moving around their country. Government officials also saw Christian missionaries as potential rivals to their own belief system and education system. From 1800 onwards, however, missionaries began to arrive in greater numbers and continued to spread throughout the country, starting schools and hospitals.

Relations between China and the West at the start of the 19th century

As we have seen, China had fallen behind other nations technologically by the beginning of the 19th century, and its economy was struggling even to feed its own population. Even so, the Qing Emperors continued to follow the age-old traditions. They were reluctant to change because China regarded itself as the *Zhong guo* – or centre of the world – and wanted to deal with foreigners within the age-old tribute system. Under this system anyone who wanted to trade with China had to acknowledge the superiority of the emperor. This was done ceremonially: members of foreign missions were required to *kowtow* when meeting the emperor. This was a ceremonial bow, involving kneeling three times, tapping the forehead on the ground nine times and lying flat on the floor.

Britain's first envoy to China

China's restriction of trade with foreigners to the Canton and the *cohong* merchants, and their insistence that Westerners pay for goods only in silver, did not suit the British. Britain was the most powerful trading nation at the time, but the tea drinking craze that swept Britain in the 18th century had resulted in an enormous trade surplus to China. At the end of the 18th century, Britain was buying almost £4 million of tea a year from the Chinese – three times as much as they made by selling British goods to China.

In 1793, the British government sent an ambassador, Earl Macartney, to ask the Chinese emperor for more trading rights. The envoy (diplomatic mission) was a failure, largely because of Macartney's refusal to perform the traditional *kowtow* before the emperor. Instead, he simply knelt on one knee. As a result, the emperor refused all of Macartney's requests. He was ordered to leave Beijing within two days, taking with him a letter from the emperor to King George III refusing to increase trade.

Britain's first envoy to China

SOURCE STUDY



Source 5.31 A caricature published after the return of Britain's failed envoy to China shows Earl Macartney declining to *kowtow* before the Emperor Qianlong, unlike the men behind him.

Source 5.32

Macartney brought back an edict [order] from the Qianlong Emperor for King George III. 'As your ambassador can see for himself, we possess all things. I set no value on objects strange or ingenious, and have no use for your country's manufactures.'

But the most devastating thing about Qianlong's edict was that it had been drafted even before Macartney's mission arrived in China. The sad truth is that the ambassador never really stood a chance.

Extract from BBC Four programme, *Getting Our Way*, Episode 2 – 'Prosperity'

Source 5.33

You can't conceive of them saying Yes to Macartney's demands. After all, what did he want? He wanted not only trading posts, possibly an island as a base for trade, and above all, he wanted diplomatic relations on an equal footing, and this was quite unthinkable to the Chinese. After all, there could only be one sun in the sky, and that, of course, was China. (Sir Percy Cradock, Ambassador to China, 1978–83)

Extract from BBC Four programme, *Getting Our Way*, Episode 2 – 'Prosperity'

INTERPRET 5.4

- 1 Explain how these sources support or contradict the following statement: 'For most of the 18th century the Qing emperors claimed that China was superior to other nations.'
- 2 Examine Source 5.31 and identify the elements that show you that this is a British source. What impression does it convey about China?
- 3 Use Sources 5.32 and 5.33 to list the Chinese and British perspectives of McCartney's mission to China.

The opium trade

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In Britain in the 19th century, opium was used in medicines such as Mrs Winslow's Soothing Syrup for teething children. This medicinal syrup was not withdrawn from sale in the United Kingdom until 1930.

British merchants finally found the solution to their trade imbalance in the drug **opium**. Opium is a powerful and highly addictive drug, better known today as an ingredient in morphine and heroin. Opium use had existed in China mainly for medicinal purposes; it dulls the senses and gives a temporary feeling of wellbeing. The practice of smoking it with tobacco had been introduced by Europeans in the 17th century, but it had been relatively rare and expensive.

The British East India Company held a monopoly over the production and sale of opium. In 1773, the opium trade to China started, and English ships loaded with opium from India soon flooded China with the drug. In 1790, British traders shipped 4000 chests of opium a year into China. By 1822, this had risen to 18766 chests.

The Qing government passed a series of edicts against the trade, but the flow of opium into China continued. By the early 1800s, the balance of trade had changed completely.

Instead of China being paid silver for their goods, the enormous quantities of opium flooding into the country meant that China's trade goods could no longer cover the cost and now China had to pay silver in addition to the trade goods. The economic impact, the widespread social problem from the growing number of Chinese addicts and the death of the emperor's own son from an overdose caused the emperor to act. He attempted to ban the massive imports of opium. This decision triggered the Opium Wars between China and the European powers.



Source 5.34 Two Chinese labourers smoke opium together, c. 1880

The opium trade

SOURCE STUDY

Source 5.35

We find your country is sixty or seventy thousand *li* [one *li* equals approximately 500 metres] from China ... Yet there are barbarian ships that strive to come here for trade for the purpose of making a great profit. The wealth of China is used to profit the barbarians ... By what right do they then in return use the poisonous drug to injure the Chinese people? ... Let us ask, where is your conscience? I have heard that the smoking of opium is very strictly forbidden by your country; that is because the harm caused by opium is clearly understood. Since it is not permitted to do harm to your own country, then even less should you let it be passed on to the harm of other countries ... Of all that China exports to foreign countries, there is not a single thing which is not beneficial to people: they are of benefit when eaten, or of benefit when used, or of benefit when resold: all are beneficial. Is there a single article from China which has done any harm to foreign countries?

Extract from 'Letter of Advice to Queen Victoria', by Chinese Commissioner in Canton, Lin Zexu, before the outbreak of the Opium Wars. There remains some question whether Queen Victoria ever read the letter.



Source 5.36 A 19th-century cartoon provides a commentary on the British opium trade in China.

INTERPRET 5.5

- 1 Examine Source 5.34 in the section above. Explain how it either confirms or challenges the suggestion in Source 5.35 that smoking opium is harmful.
- 2 Explain what Lin Zexu is asking Queen Victoria for. On what grounds does he base his request?
- 3 Outline the way Source 5.36 can help you understand the relationship between Britain and China in the 19th century.

The Opium Wars

The **Opium Wars** were two wars fought between Western powers and China over trading rights (including the illegal importation of opium into China by British merchants). The First Opium War was fought between Britain and China between 1839 and 1842. The Second Opium War was fought by Britain and France against China from 1856 to 1860. In both wars, the ruling Qing government suffered humiliating defeats. European victories in the Opium Wars allowed the foreigners to gain many commercial and strategic advantages in China. The Europeans occupied Chinese port cities and seized territory, and after each war, China was forced to pay millions of silver *taels* (a unit of Chinese currency at the time) in compensation to Britain and France. In addition, the British took control of Hong Kong and opened up five ports to British trade including Canton and Shanghai. Other European powers were granted 'concessions' – these were territories inside China that were governed by the Europeans. Russia seized parts of northern China and built a port at Vladivostok on the Pacific coast.



Source 5.37 *Nemesis* destroying Chinese junks in Anson's Bay, 1841, painted by English painter Edward Duncan, shows a battle taking place during the First Opium War. The Chinese junks were no match for British warships.



Source 5.38 Territories previously part of the Qing Empire that were controlled by foreign powers by 1900

‘Self-Strengthening Movement’ and further conflicts with foreign powers

Following its defeat in the Second Opium War, the Qing government attempted to modernise China. Between 1861 and 1895, this involved the series of reforms known as the ‘Self-Strengthening Movement’. There were reforms of government administration, increased industrialisation, and modernisation of the army and the navy. During this period, the need for modernisation was repeatedly made clear to the Qing, as their weakness was further exposed by a series of disastrous military defeats.

From 1884 to 1885, China and France fought for control of Vietnam, a separate kingdom that paid tribute to China and acknowledged the Chinese emperor as the supreme ruler. Once again, the conflict was about trade, as French traders hoped to use the Red River in Vietnam to reach China. French army and navy forces clashed with local troops in Vietnam and attacked Chinese territory. At the end of this war, the French had gained control over northern Vietnam, which became part of ‘French Indo-China’ (see Source 5.38).

China and Japan also fought over their influence in Korea from 1894 to 1895. In 1894, a naval battle near the Chinese–Korean border ended in a humiliating defeat for China, even though China had built up its navy in the years leading up to the battle. As a result, Japan seized Taiwan as well as Chinese naval bases on the mainland. Source 5.38 shows territories occupied and controlled by foreign powers in China, in 1900.

APPLY 5.5

- 1 List the ways China was changed by contact with Europeans during the 19th century. Did any aspects of Chinese society remain unaffected?

REVIEW 5.6

- 1 Explain why the Chinese emperors distrusted Christianity.
- 2 How did the British justify their demand to sell more goods to the Chinese?
- 3 What role did opium play in contact between China and the European powers? How did China’s position with other powers change with the Opium Wars?
- 4 Define the ‘Self-Strengthening Movement’ and outline its purpose. Explain why it was necessary.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE BOXER REBELLION

The **Boxer Rebellion** took place in northern China between 1898 and 1901. It was not a rebellion against their Qing rulers. Instead, it was an uprising against European traders, merchants and Christian missionaries (see Source 5.40).

The Righteous and Harmonious Fists

The Boxers were a largely peasant group with semi-religious ideas. They rose up in support of the Qing and its traditional ways, and fought against the influence of foreigners in China. They blamed the foreigners for China's weakness, and began attacking foreign missionaries and any Chinese people who had converted to Christianity. They protested under the slogan, 'Support the Qing; Destroy the Foreigners'. To the Europeans they were known as the Boxers, because of the Chinese name for their group: *yì hé tuán* (The Righteous and Harmonious Fists). They quickly gained the support of people in the provinces of northern China, where peasants had suffered decades of great hardship through flood, famine, poverty and increasing banditry and lawlessness (see Source 5.39).

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Boxers believed that their martial arts training and mystical religious powers would eventually make them resistant to foreign bullets.

Source 5.39

They Strip Off the Bark of Trees and Dig Up the Grass Roots for Food.

The glowing sun is in the sky and the locusts cover the ground. There is no green grass in the fields and no smoke of cooking from the houses. They caught rats, or spread their nets for birds, or ground the wheat-stalks into powder, or kneaded the dry grass into cakes. Alas! What food was this for men!

Extract from British pamphlet *The Famine in China* produced by the Committee of the China Famine Relief Fund during the 1876–1879 famine.



Source 5.40 The areas of northern China directly affected by the Boxer Rebellion

The Boxers' siege of foreign headquarters in Beijing

The most famous event of the Boxer Rebellion took place in 1900, when Boxers besieged the headquarters of the foreign powers in Beijing from June to August. After three months, the rebellion was finally crushed by the military superiority of the foreign powers, with reinforcements sent from eight countries: Austria-Hungary, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Russia and the United States. Britain's force included Sikh soldiers from India, and sailors and soldiers from New South Wales, Victoria and South Australia.

The end of the Boxer Rebellion



Source 5.41 US troops marching in the Forbidden City in 1900 after the rescue of the foreign diplomats and ambassadors from their headquarters in Beijing



Source 5.42 Japanese troops, part of the international force, with the bodies of executed Boxer prisoners

INTERPRET 5.6

- 1 Explain how these sources provide evidence that by the time of the Boxer Rebellion, China had become dominated by foreign powers.
- 2 Do these sources appear to be natural or posed photographs? Does this have any impact on their reliability as historical evidence?

The Boxer Rebellion – contestability

APPLY 5.6

- 1 Explain how the Boxer Rebellion revealed the weaknesses in Chinese government and society.

One aspect of the Boxer Rebellion that is contested among historians is whether the Boxers were purely a peasant uprising or whether they had the support of the government. In particular, the involvement of the Empress Dowager Cixi is debated. Some historians argue that she encouraged the Boxers and hoped that they would drive the foreigners out of China, although she initially condemned the Boxers' actions. The idea was if the Boxers succeeded then she would take the credit, but if they failed she would blame it all on the peasants.

In 1900, however, the Empress openly supported the Boxers' attack on the foreign compounds in Beijing. When foreign military forces defeated the Boxers and government troops in Beijing, the Empress Dowager and members of the imperial court disguised themselves in peasant clothing and fled the capital.

Source 5.43

The present situation is becoming daily more difficult. The various Powers cast upon us looks of tiger-like voracity, hustling each other to be first to seize our innermost territories ... Should the strong enemies become aggressive and press us to consent to things we can never accept, we have no alternative but to rely upon the justice of our cause ... If our hundreds of millions of inhabitants would prove their loyalty to their emperor and love of their country, what is there to fear from any invader? Let us not think about making peace.

Part of an imperial message to all the Chinese provinces from the Empress Dowager Cixi



Source 5.44 The Empress Dowager Cixi, c. 1903–1905

Perspectives on the Boxer Rebellion

SOURCE STUDY



Source 5.45 Boxer rebels captured by the US 6th Cavalry, 1900

Source 5.46

When we took up Spirit Boxing, we were first told to write down on a piece of red paper our names, home villages, and how many we were. The six of us the kneeled down and burned incense ... We requested the gods to attach themselves to our bodies. When they had done so, we became Spirit Boxers, after which we were invulnerable to swords and spears, our courage was enhanced, and in fighting we were unafraid to die and dared to charge straight ahead ...

Account of a possession ritual by a former Boxer, from an oral history collection in China in the 1950s and 1960s, Paul A Cohen, *China Unbound, Evolving Perspectives on the Chinese Past*, 2003, p. 94

Source 5.47

Attention: all people in markets and villages of all provinces in China – now, owing to the fact that Catholics and Protestants have vilified our gods and sages, have deceived our emperors and ministers above, and oppressed the Chinese people below, both our gods and people are angry at them, yet we have to keep silent. This forces us to practise the I-ho [Yi He] magic boxing so as to protect our country, expel the foreign bandits and kill Christian converts, in order to save our people from miserable suffering.

Part of a Boxer Notice, S Teng and J Fairbank, *China's Response to the West*, 1968, p. 190

Source 5.48

If the Chinese had reached ... the last frail trenches of sand and gravel in sacks made of old curtains, then for all who were left there would have been horrible torture to the sound of music and laughter, horrible dismemberment – nails torn off, feet torn off, disembowelling, and finally the head carried through the streets at the end of a pole. They were attacked from all sides and in every possible manner, often at the most unexpected hours of the night. It usually began with cries and the sudden noise of trumpets and tom-toms; around them thousands of howling men would appear ... Each day, they felt that Chinese torture and death were closing in upon them. They began to lack for the essentials of life. It was necessary to economize in everything, particularly in ammunition ... when they captured any Boxers, instead of shooting them they broke their skulls with a revolver. One day their ears ... distinguished a continued deep, heavy cannonade ... Peking [Beijing] was being bombarded! It could only be by the armies of Europe come to their assistance.

Pierre Loti, a French novelist and naval officer who was part of the international force sent to combat the Boxers, describing attacks by Boxers during their siege of foreign compounds in Beijing



Source 5.49 Pierre Loti

INTERPRET 5.7

- 1 What insight do these sources give you into the reasons the Chinese felt the need to rebel, and the strategy they used? Identify the sources that enable you to come to these conclusions.
- 2 Explain how Source 5.48 gives you an insight into the attitude of the foreigners trapped in Beijing by the Boxers.
- 3 Is there any evidence in these sources to indicate that the Boxer Rebellion was driven by the Chinese peasants?

REVIEW 5.7

- 1 Who were the Boxers? Identify the origin of their name.
- 2 What was the most significant success of the Boxers during their rebellion?
- 3 Where did the forces that defeated the Boxers in Beijing come from?

CHINA AND OTHER NATIONS AFTER 1900

Consequences of the Boxer Rebellion for China

Despite attempts by Qing officials to lay all blame for the attacks on the Boxers, in 1901 the foreign powers imposed a harsh settlement on the government known as the **Boxer Protocol**. China had to pay damages of 450 million silver *taels* (a unit of Chinese currency), one for every Chinese subject. This was an astronomical amount of money, roughly equivalent to AUD \$56 billion today.

Over the next two decades some of the money paid by the Chinese in damages 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. After the Boxer Rebellion, the Empress Dowager Cixi also realised that she had to make some attempts to modernise the government. She agreed to a wide range of reforms, including the abolition of the government examination system in 1905. But other reforms, such as the introduction of a genuinely democratic form of government, were not implemented.

The emergence of Chinese nationalism

Some historians have suggested that the Boxer uprising was the first sign of a modern Chinese nationalism – a growing awareness that China was a ‘nation’. This was quite different from the traditional belief that China was an empire made up of different lands and ethnic groups, with loyalty shown to an emperor or a dynasty. 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.

Pro-nationalist and anti-Qing movements had first emerged after the humiliation of the Opium Wars and the defeat at the hands of Japan in the 1890s. These movements grew stronger after the Boxer Rebellion and the harsh terms of the Boxer Protocol. One of the key leaders of the nationalist cause was Sun Yat-sen.

A nationalist revolutionary: Sun Yat-sen

The Boxer Rebellion 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. Some returned to China with newly adopted customs and beliefs, as well as ideas about how government could run differently. One such individual was the revolutionary Sun Yat-sen.

Sun Yat-sen led a Revolutionary Alliance of groups who were 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 Hawaii. 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.

Source 5.51

- *Nationalism* – unity of ethnic groups, including the ‘Han’ Chinese, Muslims, Tibetans and many other ethnic groups such as the Hakka, Mian and Mongols.
- *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.

Sun Yat-sen’s *Three Principles of the People*



Source 5.50 Sun Yat-sen
(1866–1925)

The 1911 Revolution and the end of imperial rule

Empress Dowager Cixi died in 1908. The new emperor, Puyi, was only 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 Europeans, Americans and Japanese, were unwelcome foreigners. They claimed that China could only be truly reformed under *Chinese* control.

In 1911, government authorities announced the appointment of a 13-man government cabinet (to be advisers 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 Revolutionary Alliance attempted several revolts in the years leading up to 1911, which were all put down by Qing troops. Then, in October 1911, a local dispute in the western province of Sichuan and an army mutiny in Wuchang turned into a national revolt. In Sichuan, the Qing government had proposed the nationalisation of a privately-owned railway to pay debts left over from the Boxer Protocol. Outraged provincial officials organised mass demonstrations which quickly turned violent. 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 in a series of uprisings against Qing provincial governors from October to December 1911.

SOURCE STUDY

The 1911 Revolution



Source 5.52 Imperial officials flee from Tianjin during the Chinese Revolution in 1911



Source 5.53 A soldier of the revolutionary army cutting off the queue of a revolutionary in 1911 – a symbol of the Qing Dynasty

INTERPRET 5.8

- 1 Explain how these sources help you to understand the emergence of the movement against the Manchu Dynasty.
- 2 How does the caption work with the image in Source 5.53 to give an understanding of Chinese feelings towards the Manchu Dynasty? Would the photograph have been as useful without the caption?

The early republic

Sun Yat-sen was in the USA on a fundraising tour when the revolution broke out. Reading about it in the paper, he hurried back to China to help organise a new republican government after revolutionaries captured the ancient capital of Nanjing. By December 1911, he was provisional president of the new country. China was to be a republic committed to modernisation and based on Western ideas. The traditional way of education was abandoned, replaced by new educational models from Europe, the United States and Japan.

Despite Sun Yat-sen becoming provisional president, there was still no single government for the Republic of China. Warlords controlled some areas independently, and a rival administration in Beijing, led by General Yuan Shikai, opposed his government. 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.

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. In the city of Xi'an, 2000 Manchus were killed in the three weeks following the outbreak of the revolution.

Of the foreign powers, the United States was the most supportive of the new republican government. It was among the first to acknowledge and establish diplomatic relations with the Republic of China. Britain, Japan, Russia and others soon followed.

China and World War I

When World War I broke out, Japan invaded Chinese territory by attacking the Shandong Peninsula, territories that had been under German control since the Boxer Rebellion.

As a neutral country, China sent 140 000 labourers to France and Belgium as paid volunteers, and 100 000 of these served near the front lines in Flanders. They dug trenches, carried ammunition and worked in docks, railway yards and arms factories. China entered World War I after declaring war on Germany in 1917. China had come out in support of the Allies on the condition that control over the Shandong province would be returned to China.

However, China was to gain little from its status as an ally. The Treaty of Versailles, negotiated at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919, imposed harsh conditions on Germany. These included a massive reparations bill (payment to cover damage or injury) and the dividing of German colonies between the Allies. Article 156 gave Japan control of Germany's colonial territories in China. One of the few rewards given to China was the return of astronomical instruments taken by German troops after the Boxer Rebellion.

China's treatment under the Treaty of Versailles

SOURCE STUDY

Source 5.54

Article 131

Germany undertakes to restore to China within twelve months from the coming into force of the present Treaty all the astronomical instruments which her troops in 1900–1901 carried away from China, and to defray all expenses which may be incurred in effecting such restoration, including the expenses of dismounting, packing, transporting, insurance and installation in Peking [Beijing].

Article 156

Germany renounces, in favour of Japan, all her rights, title and privileges – particularly those concerning the territory of Kiaochow [Jiaozhou], railways, mines and submarine cables which she acquired in virtue of the Treaty concluded by her with China on March 6, 1898, and of all other arrangements relative to the Province of Shantung [Shandong].

All German rights in the Tsingtao-Tsinanfu [Qingdao-Jinan] Railway, including its branch lines together with its subsidiary property of all kinds, stations, shops, fixed and rolling stock, mines, plant and material for the exploitation of the mines, are and remain acquired by Japan, together with all rights and privileges attaching thereto.

Extract from the Treaty of Versailles

INTERPRET 5.9

- 1 Does Source 5.54 indicate that the West supported the new Chinese republic?
- 2 Using this source, predict what the Chinese reaction to the Treaty of Versailles would have been.

APPLY 5.7

- 1 Use the information and sources in the text as a starting point for your own investigation of the positive and negative consequences of contact between China and European powers in the period 1900–1919. Summarise your findings in a table such as the one below, starting with a list of events or contacts between China and European powers in chronological order.

Contacts between China and European powers 1900–1911	Positive consequences for China	Negative consequences for China

- 2 In groups, collect data that will enable you to compare China in 1900 to other nations around that time. Each group should compare China with *one* other country drawn from this list:

- Great Britain
- USA
- France
- Germany
- Japan
- Australia (from 1901)
- Russia
- Austria–Hungary

Suggestions for areas of comparison include:

- size
- population
- form of government
- international treaties and trading links
- main products
- distribution of wealth
- internal revolts and nationalist movements
- modernisation and impact of the Industrial Revolution.

Keep a record of useful source materials that provide evidence for a comparison, or that illustrate the similarities and differences between China and the other nation in this period.

REVIEW 5.8

- 1 What was the Boxer Protocol? How was it received in China?
- 2 Who was the first president of the Chinese republic? Who replaced him? Why?
- 3 What was China's role in World War I?

TO WHAT EXTENT DID CHINESE SOCIETY CHANGE AS A RESULT OF CONTACT WITH EUROPEANS?

» Outline the nature of the contact between China and European powers

1 Explain how China's contact with Europe changed during the Qing Dynasty. (10 marks)

» Assess the significance of a key event involving China and a European power, using sources to identify different perspectives of the event

2 Discuss why the Boxer Rebellion was a significant event in Chinese history. (10 marks)

3 Identify two sources in this chapter that reveal different perspectives of the Boxer Rebellion. Explain how these sources help you to come to a decision about what caused the rebellion. (10 marks)

4 Discuss the evidence regarding the involvement of Empress Dowager Cixi in the Boxer Rebellion. Argue whether or not she was involved based on this evidence. (10 marks)

» Explain how China was changed by its contact with Europeans

5 Identify the countries represented in Source 5.55. Explain how this source helps you to understand how China was changed by its contact with European countries. (10 marks)

» Identify features of Chinese society that were unaffected by contact with Europeans

6 Identify the continuities in Chinese society during the Qing Dynasty. List the continuities under the following headings:

- Government
- Economy
- Social organisation
- Way of life
- Education. (20 marks)



Source 5.55 A French cartoon from 1898 showing representatives from foreign powers in Europe and Asia carving up *Chine* (China) while a Chinese official stands by, powerless to stop them.

» Discuss the positive and negative consequences of contact between China and European powers during this period

7 In your notebook, copy and complete the following table outlining the consequences of China's contact with different European powers in the period 1790–1918. (10 marks)

European power	Positive consequences	Negative consequences
Great Britain		
France		
Germany		
Other European countries		

» Using a range of sources, compare Chinese society to other nations around 1900

8 Using data and examples to support your response, compare China to one other nation in the period around 1900. (20 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

5.2

CHECKPOINT

RICH TASKS

Investigating the Taiping Rebellion

Economic decline, bad harvests, famine and China's humiliation at the hands of foreigners led to calls for both reform and internal rebellion. The most significant was the Taiping Rebellion (1850–1864), which amounted to a civil war affecting millions of people. One of its consequences was that tens of thousands of Chinese fled to other countries, including Australia during the gold-rush period.

- 1 Investigate the Taiping Rebellion and find out about its leader Hong Xiuquan and the ideas that inspired the uprising. Consider the blend of traditional Chinese values and new ideas that the peasant leader had gained from the West.
- 2 Was the Taiping Rebellion an example of 'change within tradition' or 'transformation', ideas discussed in the Part 3 Overview?

It all depends who you were

As we have seen, the Qing Dynasty presided over the end of imperial rule in China. The reasons that a society revolts against its rulers are complex and vary between societies. In China, it can be argued that the 19th century saw an increasing gap between the rulers and the ruled.

- 1 Examine Sources 5.56 to 5.59 and list the differences that you can observe between the lives of the ruling class and the working class in China.
- 2 Research life in China during the last period of the Qing Dynasty from about 1850. Then, create a digital sources collection that will help you to show the differences between rich and poor in China at this time. Make sure you collect a variety of sources: visual and written; primary and secondary.
- 3 Using your source collection, write a description of the differences in lifestyle and opportunity between the rich and poor in China. In your description, cover areas such as:
 - education
 - family life
 - housing
 - work
 - punishment
 - wealth
 - lifestyle
 - culture.
- 4 Develop your own response to the question: 'Did the differences between the ruling class and the working class contribute to the end of the Qing Dynasty?' Make sure you think about what other information you would need to come to a conclusive response.



Source 5.56 Chinese officials distributed famine relief in the 19th century.



Source 5.57 Chinese miners at the entrance to their mine



Source 5.58 Officials administering the punishment known as 'bastinado' (flogging with a paddle) that was used by the Qing Dynasty to maintain its hold on power during its last decade in power



Source 5.59 The Ladies of the Imperial Palace of the Qing Dynasty

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Research
- » Analysis and use of resources.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

PART

3



AUSTRALIANS AT WAR (WORLD WARS I AND II): AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 3: AUSTRALIANS AT WAR (WORLD WARS I AND II)

STUDENTS MUST COMPLETE
THE FOLLOWING TOPIC:

AUSTRALIANS AT WAR
(WORLD WARS I AND II)

6

CHAPTER



The slouch hat has been a widely-recognised symbol of Australian military forces since the 19th century. It has a wide brim that can be pinned up to allow a rifle to be easily slung over the left shoulder without interference.

AUSTRALIANS AT WAR (WORLD WARS I AND II): AN OVERVIEW

World War I and World War II were global conflicts that played key roles in defining world history in the 20th century. *Depth Study 3 – Australians at war (World Wars I and II)* can be explored in a number of ways, depending on your needs and interests. It can be used as a broad, comparative study in which students investigate key themes and aspects of both wars, such as the changing nature of warfare, the role of women, and the war-time controls imposed by different Australian governments. Alternatively, each of the world wars can be studied separately. Source O.31 provides a comprehensive guide for all the content, by section, covered in this chapter. This can be used as a helpful reference regardless of the way in which you choose to study 'Australians at War'.

WHY STUDY AUSTRALIA'S INVOLVEMENT IN WORLD WAR I AND WORLD WAR II?

A study of Australia's involvement in the world wars 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 be traced to the effects of one or both of these world wars.

The world wars fundamentally changed aspects of Australian government and society. Our country's involvement in the wars 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 and World War II 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.



Source O.30 Examples of the changing nature of warfare – from the introduction of tanks and guns during World War I (left) to the bombing of civilians during World War II (right)

KEY CONTENT GUIDE

	SECTION	KEY CONTENT IN UNITS
An overview of the causes of the wars, why men enlisted and where Australians fought		
The main causes of both wars	6.1	Causes of World War I - 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
	6.3	Causes of World War II - Long- and short-term factors contributing to the outbreak of conflict in 1939, including German resentment of terms in the Treaty of Versailles, economic depression, weakness of the League of Nations and unchecked aggression of Germany and Japan in the 1930s - Rise of Adolf Hitler and the Nazi Party in Germany - Nazi government's actions in re-arming and regaining territories lost after WWI - Invasion of Poland in September 1939, causing Britain and France to declare war
Where Australians fought in both wars	6.1	Where was World War I fought? 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)
	6.3	Where was World War II fought? Major campaigns involving Australian forces: Europe (Greece 1940–41), the Middle East (Syria and Lebanon 1941), Africa (Libya and Egypt) 1941–1942, South East Asia (Malaya and Singapore) 1942, Battle of the Coral Sea 1942, New Guinea 1942, Guadalcanal 1942
Why Australians enlisted to fight in both wars	6.1	Australia's entry into World War I Many reasons motivated men to enlist, including loyalty to Britain, spirit of adventure, experience of war unknown to most Australians
	6.3	Australia's entry into World War II - Initially less enthusiasm for enlistment after the experiences of WWI, but an increase after Germany's invasion of France in 1940 - Surge in recruitment after the fall of Singapore in 1942 when Australians felt more directly under threat



KEY CONTENT GUIDE

	SECTION	KEY CONTENT IN UNITS
The scope and nature of warfare		
The nature of warfare during the Gallipoli campaign	6.1	The Gallipoli campaign - 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 - Conditions in the ANZAC trenches
The outcome of the Gallipoli campaign	6.1	The Gallipoli campaign Withdrawal of ANZAC troops in December 1915
The changing scope and nature of warfare from World War I to World War II	6.1	The nature of warfare in World War I - 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
	6.1	The Western Front - 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
	6.3	Where World War II was fought - The war in Europe 1939–1945: with fighting in Western Europe, North Africa, the Middle East, Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union - The war in the Pacific 1941–1945: Allies opposed Japanese invasions in the Pacific region
The changing scope and nature of warfare from World War I to World War II	6.3	The changing nature of warfare - Longer-range tanks and aircraft used in German invasion tactic known as <i>Blitzkrieg</i>; German forces invade France despite French 'super-trenches' known as the Maginot Line - Code-breaking technology used to influence outcomes of battles
	6.3	The Holocaust - Persecution of Jews and minority groups by the Nazi government in Germany before WWII, and in Nazi-occupied cities during the war - Deaths in Nazi labour camps, systematic killings in concentration camps and by mass shootings
	6.3	Atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki - The Allies' campaign in the Pacific recaptures Pacific Islands and reaches Japan's 'Home Islands'. Heavy Japanese casualties, and bombing of Japanese cities, fails to force a Japanese surrender. - The first atomic bombs dropped on Hiroshima on 6 August 1945 and on Nagasaki on 9 August, devastating these cities. Japan formally surrenders.



KEY CONTENT GUIDE

	SECTION	KEY CONTENT IN UNITS
Significant events and experiences of Australians at War		
Prisoners of war	6.3	Experiences of Australians at war – prisoners of war - Over 8000 Australian prisoners in Europe, and over 22 000 Australians captured in South-East Asia, mainly after the fall of Singapore - Forced labour and poor treatment in prison camps led to a high death rate of prisoners captured by the Japanese
Specific campaigns	6.1	The Western Front In WWI Australian forces took part in important battles on the Western Front 1916–1918
	6.3	Experiences of Australians at war – the Kokoda Trail - In 1942, Japanese forces launch an assault to seize Port Moresby, a possible base of attack on Australia, via the Kokoda Trail - A small force of soldiers from Australia's local militia and army reinforcements fight a series of battles in difficult conditions, forcing Japanese to withdraw
Role of women	6.1	The Western Front During WWI, nurses were the only Australian women allowed to enlist, with over 2000 serving in the Middle East and on the Western Front
	6.3	Experiences of Australians at war – women and Indigenous Australians During WWII, women were encouraged to join the armed services after 1940; the majority joined auxiliary forces that operated on the home front. Women were still not permitted to take combat roles or serve overseas, with the exception of nurses.
Participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples	6.2	The impact of World War I on Australia 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.
	6.3	Experiences of Australians at war – women and Indigenous Australians During WWII, restrictions for Indigenous Australian volunteers were officially lifted or unofficially relaxed. An estimated 3000 Indigenous Australians served in the armed forces.
Specific events or incidents	6.1	The Gallipoli campaign – attacks and counter-attacks including Albert Jacka's bravery in defence
	6.3	The Western Front – The Battle of Hamel Where was World War II fought? – Australian troops take part in successful invasion of Syria and Lebanon; thousands of Australian soldiers are taken prisoner by the Japanese after the Fall of Singapore; bombing of Darwin and towns in northern Australia Battle of Milne Bay in New Guinea.



KEY CONTENT GUIDE

	SECTION	KEY CONTENT IN UNITS
Impact of the wars on Australia		
Conscription	6.2	The impact of World War I on Australia - During WWI, a decline in enlistments and heavy casualties on the Western Front caused Prime Minister Billy Hughes to initiate and support referendums on conscription in 1916 and 1917, with both resulting in a majority of 'no' votes - The conscription debate was a hugely divisive issue in Australian society
	6.5	The impact of World War II on Australia During WWII, conscription for overseas service in the Pacific war was introduced in 1943 with little opposition, as Australia felt the threat of Japanese invasion.
Use of government propaganda	6.2	The impact of World War I on Australia During WWI, the government issued pro-conscription and anti-German propaganda, including flyers and posters.
	6.5	The impact of World War II on Australia During WWII, propaganda encouraging people to enlist in armed forces, work and save for the war effort, and maintain morale was accomplished through posters and the way in which war news was reported in newspapers, radio and cinema newsreels.
Changing roles of women	6.2	The impact of World War I on Australia 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.
	6.5	The impact of World War II on Australia During WWII, some women served in the armed forces, and over 60 000 women served in auxiliary services on the home front. With so many servicemen deployed overseas, the work of women in the auxiliary services and civilian groups (such as the Women's Land Army) and increasing women's employment was crucial for Australia's war economy. After the war, women were expected to return to traditional roles, which for the most part happened.
Enemy 'aliens'	6.2	The impact of World War I on Australia During WWI, people with German backgrounds or born in countries at war with Australia were imprisoned (interned) in remote camps.
	6.5	The impact of World War II on Australia During WWII, Germans and Italians who were thought to pose a threat to national security and all Japanese people who lived in Australia were sent to internment camps.
War-time controls and censorship	6.2	The impact of World War I on Australia 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.
	6.5	The impact of World War II on Australia During WWII, the <i>National Security Act 1939</i> gave the Australian government greater powers, including powers of censorship, the detention of 'enemy aliens', the banning of groups opposed to war, and other war-time controls.

KEY CONTENT GUIDE

	SECTION	KEY CONTENT IN UNITS
Significance of the wars to Australia		
Impact of the wars on returned soldiers and civilians	6.6	Impact of the wars on returned soldiers and civilians - 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. - Nearly 600 000 Australians served overseas during WWII, with around a quarter of a million still serving in the Pacific and Europe at the end of the war. There were fewer deaths in comparison to WWI, but 20 000 returned servicemen suffered long-term effects from their treatment as prisoners of war. The government continued to support veterans with medical care, pensions, home loans, training and education and employment assistance.
Changing relationship of Australia with other countries after World War II	6.6	Australia after World War II - The experiences of World War II altered Australians' view of their place in the world. Australia's relationship with Britain altered after the fall of Singapore. It forced Australia to realise that it needed to look to a strategic relationship with the United States for support in the Pacific region. - One million American servicemen came to Australia, beginning a 'cultural invasion' of American cinema, language and culture in the decades after WWII. - The mass migration of people from Europe to Australia after WWII changed the nature of Australian society and influenced its relationships with the rest of the world.

KEY CONTENT GUIDE

	SECTION	KEY CONTENT IN UNITS
Commemorations and the nature of the Anzac legend		
How and why Australians have commemorated the wars	6.7	Commemorating the wars - Commemoration services on Anzac day and Remembrance Day - Aspects of commemoration services
Different perspectives on the Anzac legend	6.7	Commemorating the wars - 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



APPLY 0.17

- 1 Use the information provided in Overview 3 to complete the following tasks.
 - a Create a table or Venn diagram to compare the scope and nature of warfare in World War I and World War II.
 - b Write a short paragraph explaining how the nature of warfare changed between World War I and World War II.
- 2 Source 0.31 lists the major campaigns involving Australian forces in World War I and World War II.
 - a As a group, use this information and further research to compile a more complete list of areas where Australians in all branches of the armed forces served during the world wars. Create a timeline to sequence this information and mark the locations on a world map.
 - b Share your timeline with the class. Discuss any differences, and make changes to your timeline if necessary.
- 3 Choose one aspect of Australians at war from the list below, then read the corresponding units in Chapter 6. Write a paragraph that explains how this area provides an example of continuity and change in 20th-century Australian history:
 - role of women – in combat or overseas
 - role of women – on the home front
 - participation of Indigenous Australians
 - conscription
 - use of government propaganda
 - war-time controls and censorship
 - enemy 'aliens'
 - impact of war on returned soldiers and civilians.



The inter-war years between World War I and World War II

World War I had left Europe devastated. During the Great War (as World War I was known at the time) nations had put all their resources into the war effort and suffered casualties at a level never experienced before. Over 8 million soldiers and sailors lost their lives, and a similar number of civilians were killed through war, starvation and disease. A further 21 million were wounded. Very soon after peace was declared, the world was hit by a deadly influenza pandemic (called the Spanish influenza) that resulted in the deaths of over 30 million people, most of them between 20 and 40 years of age.

The Treaty of Versailles

In January 1919, the victorious nations of World War I met at the Paris Peace Conference in France to come up with a plan for rebuilding Europe and ensuring peace in the future. The leaders of 32 countries attended the conference, but negotiations were dominated by the leaders of four major powers:

- Prime Minister David Lloyd George of Britain
- Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau of France
- President Woodrow Wilson of the USA
- Prime Minister Vittorio Orlando of Italy.

The French had suffered greatly during World War I, and wanted revenge and compensation for the damage done to their country. Clemenceau also wanted to weaken Germany so it would never be able to take up arms again. President Wilson, on the other hand, wanted to achieve lasting peace with a treaty that punished Germany, but not so harshly that they would one day want revenge.

After months of negotiations, the **Treaty of Versailles** was signed on 28 June 1919. While many German people were opposed to the terms of the treaty, German representatives knew that if they did not sign it the Allies would invade Germany, which they would be powerless to stop. The key territorial, military and financial issues addressed in the Treaty are summarised in Source 6.56 in Chapter 6.



APPLY 0.18

- 1 Resentment about the terms in the Treaty of Versailles is said to be a key reason why so many German people supported the rising political leader Adolf Hitler in the late 1920s and 1930s. Hitler blamed Germany's problems on the Jews and on the treaty. Examine Source 6.56 in Chapter 6 and suggest why Germans would resent the treaty.
- 2 Comment on why the leaders of France and the United States came to the Paris Peace Conference with such different perspectives.

Source 0.32 French Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau, American President Woodrow Wilson and British Prime Minister David Lloyd George after signing the Treaty of Versailles in 1919



Source 0.33 An advertisement from the 1920s

APPLY 0.19

- 1 Conduct some research to compare the 'must have' products in the 1920s with those in demand by households today.
- 2 Discuss some of the consequences of the rapid growth of the automobile industry in terms of people's everyday lives. How did this change affect society and other industries generally?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Australian brands still familiar today – such as Vegemite, Sanitarium and Aeroplane Jelly – first appeared in the 1920s.

The Roaring Twenties

While Germany suffered a severe economic downturn in the 1920s, these years were a time of economic prosperity in other parts of the world, including Australia. This, together with an optimism brought about by the end of war, and excitement about advances in technologies, saw changes in social ideas and practices during this period.

During the 1920s, the production of cars and consumer goods rose dramatically. New methods of mass production, using machinery and assembly lines, meant that cars and a wide range of goods would no longer be luxury items. Advertising encouraged ordinary people to buy these goods and, at the same time, people had more money to spend. Products in high demand were toasters, vacuum cleaners and refrigerators.

In Australia, electricity was installed in many homes in the 1920s for lighting, although most homes did not have power points. Electrical appliances such as vacuum cleaners, fridges and irons were available in the 1920s, but their use was not widespread until the 1940s. Cars were mostly imported until Ford and General Motors established themselves in Australia in 1925. In 1921, there were just under 100 000 cars registered in Australia. By 1939, this had risen to over 560 000 cars on Australian roads. (In comparison, there were 26 201 400 passenger cars in the United States in 1939.)

Another important innovation of the time was the radio, which became the first mass broadcasting medium. The advertising industry blossomed as companies began to deliver their sales pitches along the airwaves to families who gathered nightly around the radio. Radio also helped bring in the Jazz Age of the 1920s. Originating in black communities in New Orleans around the turn of the century, jazz became an international phenomenon thanks to music broadcasts. Australia's first radio station, 2SB, went to air on 23 November 1923. It was later renamed 2BL and later became 702 ABC.

The Hollywood motion-picture industry also emerged during the 1920s. Silent films had been popular in the USA for some years, but 1927 saw the first feature film 'talkie' (sound synchronised motion picture) with the release of *The Jazz Singer*. This was the first ever full-length film to contain spoken words. By 1930, over 100 million Americans a week were going to the movies. Actors and actresses like Charlie Chaplin, Mary Pickford and Rudolf Valentino became 'stars' and were famous all over the world.

Fashion in the 1920s celebrated youth and freedom. Women in particular saw changes in the way they could present themselves publically. A boyish 'flapper' style became popular, with daringly short skirts (that showed the knees), and waistlines slung low on the hip. Women covered their boyish cropped hair under tight cloche (bell-shaped) hats (see Source 0.34).

The 1920s may have been a time of prosperity for non-Indigenous Australians, but many Indigenous people suffered hardship and turmoil from government policies of **protection** and **assimilation**. These policies involved the forced removal of Indigenous Australians to **missions** and **reserves**, and the removal of Aboriginal children from their families.



Source 0.34 An example of typical women's fashion in the 1920s

The Great Depression

In the late 1920s, the world economy began to slow as prices for agricultural produce dropped worldwide. Unemployment slowly began to rise in many of the industrialised nations. These problems may have been overcome, had they not been followed by the collapse of the New York stock exchange. Throughout the 1920s, the New York stock market had been a popular place to invest because shares could be bought on credit and sold for a profit without any actual money changing hands. In October 1929, the stock market crashed. Investors, stockbrokers and business owners lost everything. As confidence in the economy evaporated, businesses closed down and unemployment soared. Workers lost their jobs or their wages were severely slashed. They consequently could buy less, which then led to further cutbacks in production and jobs. Governments seemed powerless to stop their economies spiralling out of control. During the 1930s, the Australian economy was heavily dependent upon overseas countries.

When the US economy collapsed in 1929, two-thirds of world trading ceased. Suddenly, almost 50 000 Australians found themselves unemployed. By 1932, almost 32 per cent of Australians were out of work. The Great Depression's impact on Australian society was devastating. Without a steady income, many people lost their homes. Shanty towns, built from discarded materials on waste ground, grew up on the edge of cities. Men took to the roads in search of jobs such as fruit picking, and children and women became the major income earners, as they were cheaper to employ. Soldiers who had just returned from the war were hit the hardest. Still suffering trauma from their wartime experiences, many became homeless and the suicide rate increased dramatically.

The government provided financial relief to people who were destitute – with no income, assets or savings. By 1932, more than 60 000 people depended on sustenance payments merely to survive. The 'susso', as it became known, was given in the form of food rations or coupons. It became the subject of a popular children's rhyme:

We're on the susso now,
We can't afford a cow,
We live in a tent,
We pay no rent,
We're on the susso now.



Source 0.35 A line of men receiving food handouts during the 1930s depression

APPLY 0.20

- 1 Conduct research to find out exactly what the unemployment rate was in Australia for each year between 1929 and 1940. Present your findings in a graph.

APPLY 0.21

- 1 Use the information provided in Overview 3, together with your own research, to prepare a 5-minute audio-visual presentation on one of the following topics:
 - experiences of Australia's returned soldiers in the 1920s and 1930s
 - women in Australian society in the 1920s and 1930s
 - technological advances in the 1920s and their impact on Australian society
 - the contributions of three significant individuals in Australia during the 1920s–1930s
 - the construction of Canberra
 - the building of the Sydney Harbour Bridge
 - government policies and the treatment of Indigenous Australians in the 1920s and 1930s
 - experiences of Australians during the Great Depression
 - the Australian government's responses to the Great Depression.Be sure to include relevant primary and secondary sources in your presentation, including written, visual and audio sources.

6



Source 6.1 Historians use a variety of primary and secondary sources when conducting historical inquiries. By examining artefacts such as propaganda posters, war medals and photographs taken on the battlefields, they can gain a more complete understanding of the heroic sacrifices and day-to-day experiences of Australians during times of war.

AUSTRALIANS AT WAR (WORLD WARS I AND II)

In this chapter, we investigate key aspects of World War I (1914–1918) and World War II (1939–1945), providing a particular focus on how Australians experienced these wars. We will also investigate the impacts of these wars, both in Australia and around the world.

World War I became known as a 'total war' because, for the first time, nations around the world committed not only their armed forces to the war effort but also their industries, resources and people from all sectors of society. World War II took fighting to new levels and remains one of the defining events of the 20th century. It played out across Europe, the Pacific, the Middle East, Africa and Asia.

6.1

SECTION

In this section you will:

- » outline the main causes of World War I
- » explain why Australians enlisted to fight
- » locate and sequence the places where Australians fought
- » describe the nature of warfare during the Gallipoli campaign
 - » explain the outcome of the Gallipoli campaign
- » investigate the significant experiences of Australians in World War I

|||||

6.2

SECTION

In this section you will:

- » outline the types of controls that were introduced on the home front by the Australian government

[illegible]

6.3

SECTION

In this section you will:

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> » outline the main causes of World War II » explain why Australians enlisted to fight | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> » outline and sequence the changing scope and nature of warfare from trenches in World War I to the Holocaust and the use of the atomic bomb to end World War II » investigate the significant experiences of Australians in World War II |
|--|--|

|||||

6.4

SECTION

In this section you will:

- » investigate the origins, nature and impact of the Holocaust

[illegible]

6.5

SECTION

In this section you will:

- » outline the types of controls that were introduced on the home front by the Australian government

6.6

SECTION

In this section you will:

- » explain the impact of the wars on returned soldiers and civilians
- » analyse the changing relationships between Australia and other countries after World War II

6.7

SECTION

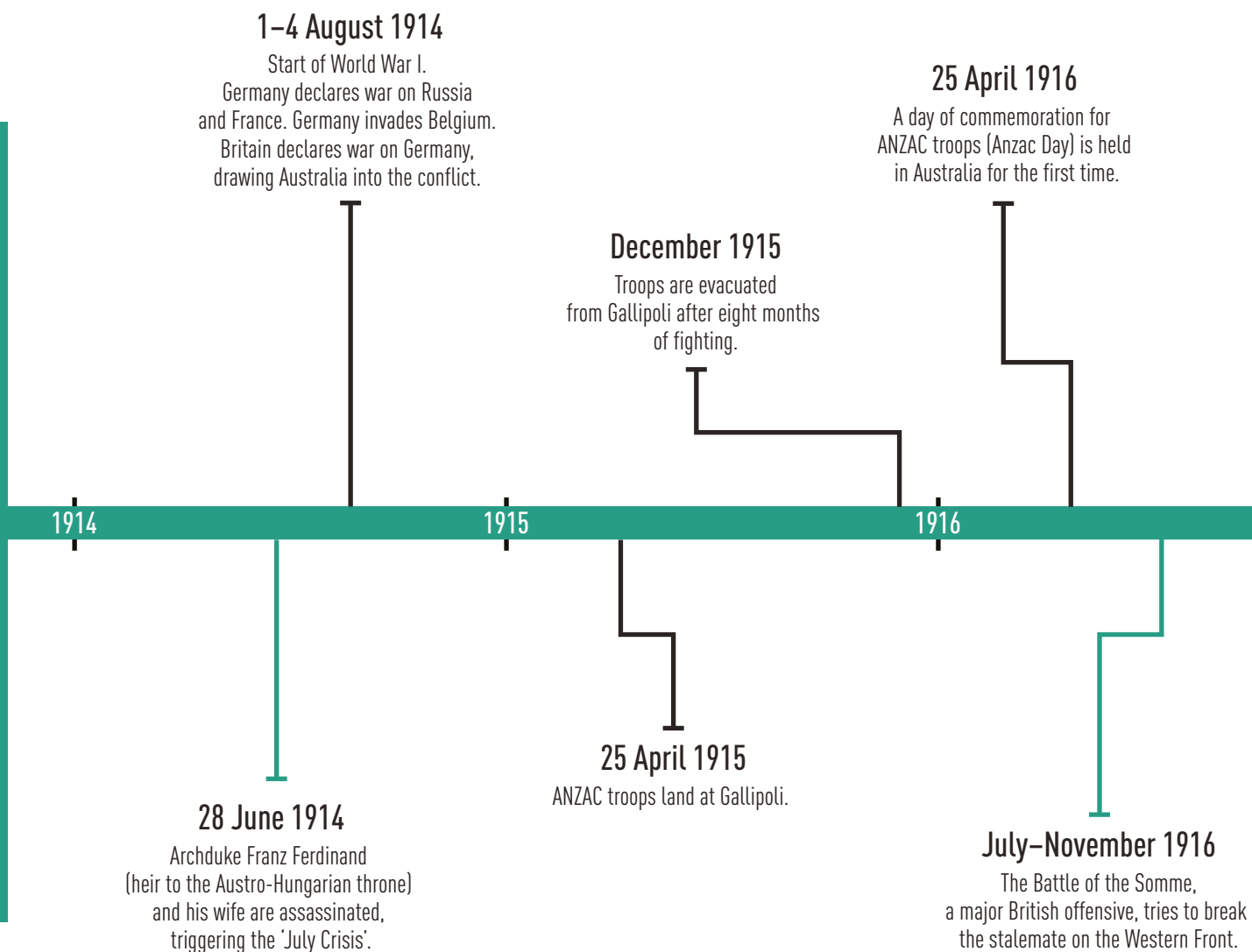
In this section you will:

- » explain how and why Australians commemorate the wars
- » explain different perspectives on the Anzac legend



AUSTRALIANS AT WAR (WORLD WAR I) – A TIMELINE

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Source 6.2 Franz Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria

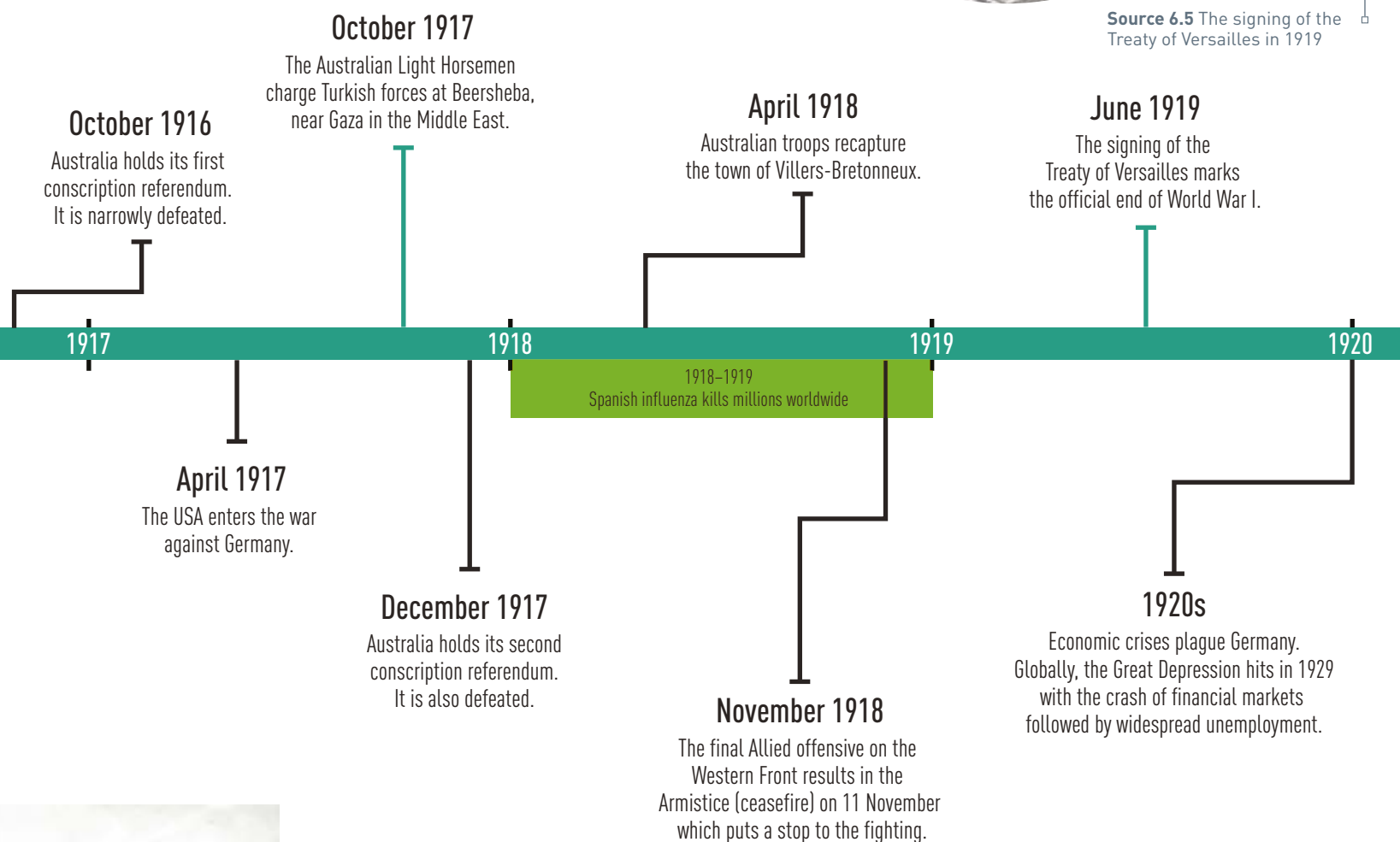




Source 6.4 An Australian soldier of the Light Horse leads a group of Turkish prisoners after the Battle of Beersheba in October 1917.



Source 6.5 The signing of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919



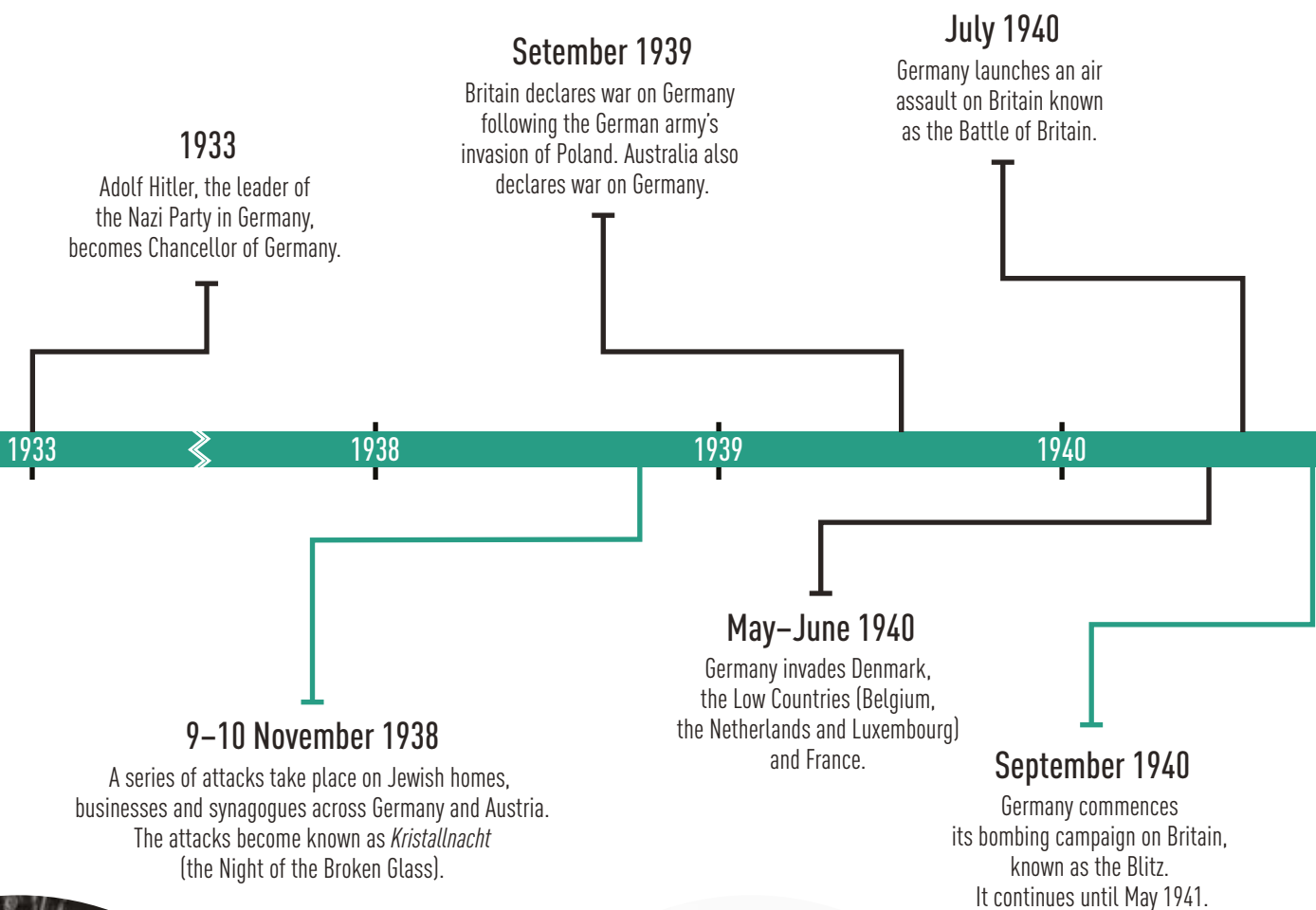
Source 6.3 Allied soldiers at the Battle of the Somme, 1916

REVIEW 6.1

- 1 In what year did Australia join World War I against Germany?
- 2 What was Australia's reason for joining the conflict?
- 3 When was Anzac Day first held in Australia? How long was this after ANZAC troops landed in Gallipoli?
- 4 How many times did Australia hold referendums on conscription during World War I? What were the results of these referendums?
- 5 How long after the Armistice did World War I officially end?

AUSTRALIANS AT WAR (WORLD WAR II) – A TIMELINE

TIMELINE



Source 6.6
A Jewish-owned shopfront after *Kristallnacht*



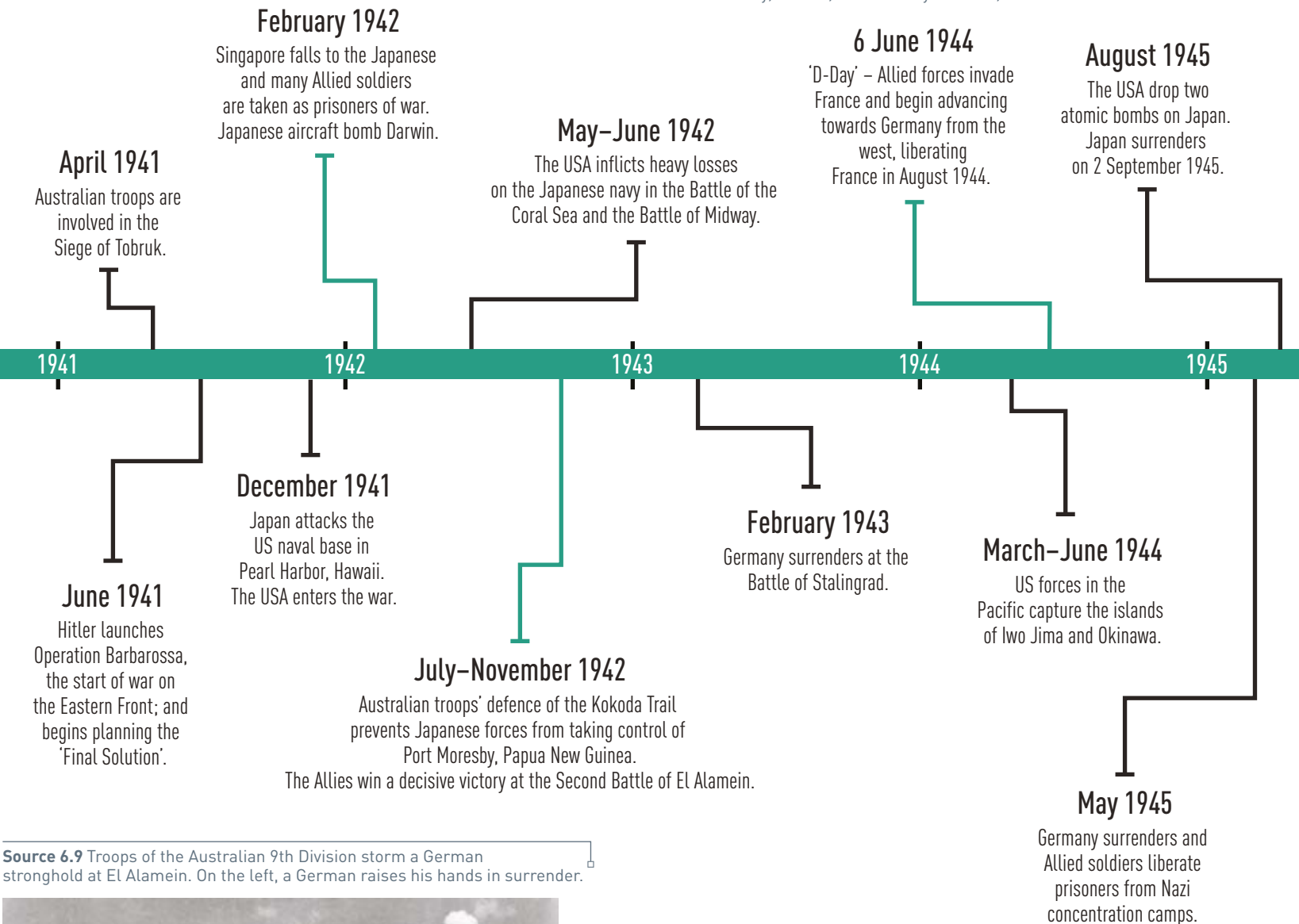
Source 6.7 The Blitz caused massive destruction to London and other major British cities.



Source 6.8 Some of the British, Australian, Indian and Chinese soldiers captured by the Japanese after the Fall of Singapore in February 1942



Source 6.10 American troops in landing craft in Normandy, France, at the D-Day invasion, 1944



Source 6.9 Troops of the Australian 9th Division storm a German stronghold at El Alamein. On the left, a German raises his hands in surrender.



REVIEW 6.2

- 1 How many months did Germany's bombing campaign on Britain last for?
- 2 Where were many Australian soldiers captured and taken as prisoners of war?
- 3 When did the USA enter the war and why?
- 4 What was *Kristallnacht* and when did it take place?

6.1

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE CAUSES, SCOPE AND NATURE OF WORLD WAR I?

In this section, you will learn about the main causes of World War I. We will also explore the nature of warfare in this period and follow the course of World War I. Finally, we will investigate the locations in which Australians fought, and learn about their experiences there.

CAUSES OF WORLD WAR I

A simple list of causes can never adequately explain why wars start between nations. Even today, the causes of World War I remain hotly contested by historians. In this section we will consider the background and events leading up to the outbreak of World War I. We will then look at some of the different explanations that have been offered for its causes.

Europe in the lead-up to World War I

At the start of 1901, the countries of Europe appeared peaceful and prosperous. Queen Victoria had occupied the British throne for over 60 years and many of her children and other relatives had married into royal houses all over Europe (see Source 6.11). As a result, many of the royal families of Europe were closely related. In the lead-up to World War I, many thought it was unlikely that these close relations would become involved in an armed conflict at all – let alone fight on opposing sides.

The **Industrial Revolution** had transformed societies across Western Europe. New production methods and technologies affected almost every sector of society and industry. Governments had made improvements in health care, sanitation and relief for the poor. Roads, canals and railways made transport easier and more accessible, and literacy rates were rising.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Tsar Nicholas II of Russia, Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany and Britain's King George V were all first cousins and the grandsons of Britain's Queen Victoria. Victoria died in 1901. Kaiser Wilhelm II always said that if she had still been alive in 1914, she would never have allowed her grandsons to go to war.



Source 6.11 Tsar Nicholas II of Russia, King George V of Britain and Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany (from left to right)

However, the outward signs of prosperity masked both international and domestic tensions. Issues related to the size of colonial empires and the development of weapons, armies and ships all caused rivalries beneath the surface. Rates of economic progress, together with improvements in the standard of living, were unevenly spread across Europe. The benefits of the Industrial Revolution that were being enjoyed in Western Europe had so far had little impact on the nations of Eastern Europe such as Austria–Hungary, Russia, and a group of countries known as the Balkan states, which included Serbia, Bulgaria and Romania (see Source 6.13).



Source 6.12 Europe before World War I (inset box shows the location of the Balkan states)



Source 6.13 Detail of the Balkan states in 1914

The 'July Crisis' of 1914

The start of World War I was marked by Germany's declaration of war against Russia and France, followed immediately by its decision to invade Belgium. While these events all took place in the first days of August 1914, they were the direct result of a number of events that took place earlier that year.

On 28 June 1914, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria–Hungary, and his wife were assassinated in the city of Sarajevo. At that time, Sarajevo (now the capital of Bosnia and Herzegovina) was part of Austria–Hungary. The **assassination** led to a frantic and confused period of bluff, threat and negotiation between several European powers in July 1914. This period became known as the 'July Crisis' of 1914.



Source 6.14 An artist's impression of the assassination of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand in Sarajevo. The Archduke was shot by a group who wanted to see all the Slavic peoples united in a single country and hoped for the breakup of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

After the assassination, Austria–Hungary blamed the government of neighbouring Serbia. The Austrians, with the support of their ally Germany, issued a series of 10 harsh demands to Serbia. Serbia agreed to nine of the 10, but to accept all of the demands would have meant that Serbia lost any real independence. Serbia turned to its ally Russia for support. Russia – a nation with strong ethnic, cultural and linguistic links to the Slavic Serbs – promised to protect Serbia against any threat from Austria–Hungary and Germany.

A month after the assassination, Austria–Hungary declared war on Serbia. From that point on, a localised conflict in the Balkan region of south-eastern Europe became a general European war. The key to the spread of the conflict into a world war was the complex ‘system of alliances’ that developed in Europe between the 1870s and 1907.

The alliance system

The **alliance system** was created by the European powers from the 1870s onwards to maintain a ‘balance of power’. The thinking behind the balance of power was that if the rival European powers were all more-or-less equal in strength, then none of them would risk going to war because no one could be sure of winning.

By 1914, Europe was divided into two rival alliances. On one side there was the **Triple Alliance**, made up of Austria–Hungary, Germany and Italy. On the other side there was the **Triple Entente**, made up of Britain, France and Russia (*entente* is a French word meaning an ‘understanding’ or alliance.) Each participating nation promised to provide military support if one of its members was attacked. In addition to the key European countries shown in Source 6.15, many other countries, colonies and territories around the world were attached to one or other of the alliances. Japan, for example, had signed a treaty with Britain in 1902 making it a member of the Triple Entente. In addition to Japan, all British colonies (such as India) and dominions (such as Australia and New Zealand) automatically became part of the Triple Entente. This meant that they could all be drawn into conflict if war broke out.

The same fears that had led the major European powers to set up alliances ended up dragging them into war. When Russia offered to support Serbia against Austria–Hungary, Germany threatened Russia. Russia responded by calling on its ally France.

At this point, Germany was faced with hostile forces preparing for war on both its Eastern and Western borders. This was a situation that Germany had feared ever since France and Russia had become allies in 1894. When faced with the threat, the German response was to devise a special military plan (known as the Schlieffen Plan) and to launch an all-out attack on France. The aim of the Schlieffen Plan was to put a quick end to the threat from France before the huge Russian army was ready for war.

In order for the Schlieffen Plan to work, the German army needed to attack France by passing through neutral Belgium. However, although it was not a member of the Triple Entente, Belgium had an alliance with Britain. When the German army invaded Belgium, Britain declared war on Germany.



Source 6.15 European alliances in World War I

The alliance system and events leading to World War I

SOURCE STUDY

Source 6.16

Key dates in the lead-up to World War I	
28 June 1914	Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand in the city of Sarajevo
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 military support to 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 (as an ally of Britain) declares war on Germany
29 October 1914	The Ottoman Empire (Turkey) enters the war on the side of Germany
23 May 1915	Italy enters the war on the side of the Triple Entente (breaking the Triple Alliance)

INTERPRET 6.1

- 1 Is it possible to identify a clear perspective on the causes of World War I in either of these sources?
- 2 Explain how these sources could be used to support the argument that World War I was caused by the alliance system.
- 3 What would be the weakness of relying on these sources to explain the causes of World War I?

Source 6.17 This cartoon offers a representation of how the war escalated as a result of the alliance system.



The causes of World War I – contestability

One of the ways in which you can develop a detailed understanding of the different views about what caused World War I is to ask yourself the question: Was World War I just a terrible accident or should one or more countries be blamed?

Ever since the end of World War I, historians have studied and debated exactly what caused it. During the 1920s, the general view was that Germany was more responsible than any other country, even though most people accepted that other factors also played a part. We will look at a range of these factors now. Your role as a historian is to analyse each of these factors individually and as part of a group in order to decide how important they were in leading to the outbreak of World War I.

Factors that led to the outbreak of World War I

- **Nationalism** – Put simply, nationalism is a sense of pride in and love of one's nation. It grows out of an understanding that the people of a nation share a common language, culture and history. Nationalism can unite the people of a nation or region. For example, feelings of nationalism contributed to the unification of many small Germanic kingdoms to form the German Empire in 1871. A sense of nationalism also encouraged cooperation between Germany and Austria-Hungary, because German-language speakers ruled both empires.

Nationalism can also divide people in a region; for example, the French and the Germans – both very nationalistic peoples – were long-time rivals.

- *Rivalry over colonies* – In the years leading up to World War I, there was fierce competition between powers in Europe to claim and control territories and resources in different parts of the world. This was largely driven by nationalism and **imperialism** (the process of acquiring and administering **colonies** for financial and strategic reasons). European powers including Britain, France and Germany had colonised much of the world between the 15th and 19th centuries, and they often competed for control over different parts of Africa, Asia and the Pacific.
- *The arms race in Europe* – No war can be fought without guns, ammunition and soldiers. In the early 20th century, modern battleships and submarines were also important weapons of war. Despite claims by European powers that they were not preparing for war, most were training armies and building up their stores of ships and weapons. Some historians argue that tension between the European powers was made worse by the build-up of military forces. A more specific and important aspect of the arms race was the decision of the German government to dramatically increase the size of its navy. Britain saw this as a major threat.
- *The alliance system* – Although the system of alliances was meant to maintain a 'balance of power' and help to keep the peace, it backfired. The alliances, in fact, expanded the war and turned a limited, local conflict into a wider European and world war.
- *Military plans* – Prior to World War I, all major European powers had military plans in place in case war broke out. These plans had strict timetables for what is known as **mobilisation** (the process of preparing armed forces and resources and getting them in position to fight). These plans put pressure on the politicians and diplomats from all countries during the July Crisis. None of them could afford to let another country get a head start in mobilising. The British historian AJP Taylor referred to this situation as 'war by timetable'.

EXTEND 6.1

- 1 Conduct research on the regions in the world that were colonies (or territories) controlled by Britain, France, Germany and Belgium in the lead-up to World War I. Which country controlled the most colonies or territories?

APPLY 6.1

- 1 List what most historians regard as the causes of World War I. Which one would you argue contributed most to the outbreak of the war? What evidence supports your viewpoint?

APPLY 6.2

- 1 Was Germany to blame for causing World War I? Make up your own mind by conducting your own research and taking part in discussions in class and at home. Present your evidence and arguments either through a class debate that puts Germany 'on trial', or write a 150–200 word persuasive text arguing the case for Germany's guilt or innocence.

REVIEW 6.3

- 1 What was the 'July Crisis' and how did it lead to the outbreak of World War I?
- 2 Explain the meaning of the term 'balance of power'. How was it meant to prevent a war?
- 3 List the three members of the Triple Entente.
- 4 List the three members of the Triple Alliance.
- 5 What was the Schlieffen Plan and how did it bring Britain into the war?

AUSTRALIA'S ENTRY INTO WORLD WAR I

When World War I broke out, Australia had been a united (federated) country for only 13 years. Although Australia was self-governing, it was still a **dominion** of the British Empire and was obliged to follow Britain's instructions in many areas of government. When Britain declared war on Germany, Australia and other countries in the British Empire were also drawn into war.

Very few Australians had been engaged in wars and, possibly because of this, there was a perception that war was glorious, exciting and heroic. A wave of enthusiasm for the war effort swept through the country and men rushed to enlist in the armed forces, which at the time were known as the Australian Imperial Force (AIF). Around 50 000 men enlisted by the end of 1914. According to popular opinion expressed in newspapers at the time, many of the men enlisting for war were concerned that it might be over before they got to Europe.

The reasons for enlistment were varied and complex. Some men were driven by a desire to show what their young nation could contribute to a world conflict. Others went to war because of loyalty to 'the mother country'. Some joined out of a spirit of adventure and for the opportunity to leave home and see the world. For some, their incentive was to earn a good income, and the promise of regular pay motivated many unemployed men to volunteer. As the war progressed, hatred of the enemy also became a motivation for enlistment. Propaganda stories (often exaggerated) of German atrocities were used in recruiting campaigns.



Source 6.18 An Australian recruitment poster from 1915 (AWM ARTV00021)

Why Australians enlisted

Source 6.19

I wasn't eighteen. I was working on the lathe, next to another chap ... I said to him 'why don't you enlist?' I said, 'I'll enlist if you do'. I went right up to Victoria Barracks and enlisted. We left the factory and I had to get my father's signature. Well, I forged that.

Stan D'Altera, in A Thomson, *Anzac Memories*, Oxford University Press, p. 27

Source 6.20

I couldn't help myself. Mum was a widow and she needed me to help run the farm. But I read what Andrew Fisher said and I went, 'Fisher's message to England was that Australia would stand behind her to the last man and the last shilling.'

Unnamed soldier, in P Adam-Smith, *The Anzacs*, Penguin, p. 17

Source 6.21

I have joined the Australian Army it's not bad money here, 5/- [5 shillings] a day and clothes and food ... nearly as good as cabinet making and not half as hard. You may [think] it funny [my] turning up such a good job, but ... this [employer] had only about three days work left for us ... so I [thought] I would join the army.

Corporal RE Antill in a letter to his parents, 1914, *defencemagazine*

SOURCE STUDY

INTERPRET 6.2

- 1 Read Sources 6.19–6.21 and identify the different motivations and attitudes of the writers.
- 2 Create a conversation between the unnamed soldier in Source 6.20 and his brother who has been left to run the farm. Your conversation should include three arguments 'for' and 'against' enlisting in 1914.

REVIEW 6.4

- 1 Describe the attitude of most Australians to war when World War I broke out. Why might they have held this attitude?
- 2 How many Australian men enlisted to fight before the end of 1914?
- 3 Explain the techniques used by the government to encourage men to enlist.

EXTEND 6.2

- 1 Conduct research to identify inventions and innovations during the Industrial Revolution that led to the development of the new weapons technologies used during World War I.

THE NATURE OF WARFARE IN WORLD WAR I

World War I was fought across a larger area than any previous conflict. Theatres of war (a term often used to describe an area or place where important military events take place) were in the Middle East, the Western Front in France and Belgium, Italy, Eastern Europe, the North Sea, Turkey and northern Africa. Each region produced its own unique demands, tactics and conditions of warfare. The common feature across all regions and theatres of war was the emergence of new technologies.

Much of this technology is blamed for escalating and intensifying the war, as the conflict quickly became an evenly matched test of military technology, hardware and tactics, with neither side willing to break the deadlock. War was also fought in the air and under the sea for the first time – terrorising civilian populations in cities and along coastlines.



Source 6.22 British machine-guns firing during the Battle of the Somme

Guns and artillery

Machine-guns, which had been used for the first time during the American Civil War, were improved for use in World War I. Many were capable of firing up to 600 rounds of ammunition per minute in short bursts. Facing one World War I machine-gunner was similar to facing 250 soldiers with rifles. Despite their increased fire power, these new guns often overheated and were heavy and difficult to move through the mud. Nonetheless, they were devastating when used against oncoming troops.

Heavy artillery guns could fire large shells over a long distance, usually projecting them through the air in an arc in order to hit a target from above. Like machine guns, artillery weapons were heavy and difficult to move. They were usually mounted on wheels that often became bogged down in the mud or got stuck in craters.

EXTEND 6.3

- 1 Why do you think that the use of poison gas was banned under the Geneva Protocol while the use of other types of weapons was not?



Gas

In April 1915, Germany introduced poison gas as a weapon of war. Chlorine, which was blown over the enemy trenches, burned and destroyed the airways of anyone not wearing a gas mask (see Source 6.23). Exposure to this type of gas caused terrible pain and often resulted in death. Other gases were introduced throughout the war, including mustard and tear gas. Poison-gas attacks during World War I were so horrific that their use was banned in 1925 under a treaty known as the Geneva Protocol.

Source 6.23 A soldier and dog search for wounded soldiers in areas affected by poison gas.

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 early tanks limited their effectiveness. Because they had been designed and built quickly, they frequently broke down or became stuck in muddy ditches. The crews inside the tanks had to endure unbearably hot and noisy conditions, almost constantly choking on fumes inside the cabin. By the end of 1917, improvements in tank technology and tactics meant that tanks were becoming 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 enemy positions. Later, planes armed with machine guns were used in aerial combats, known as **dogfights**. Huge airships called **zeppelins**, named for their inventor Count Ferdinand von Zeppelin, were used by the Germans in the first air raid over England in January 1915. Made of a cylindrical metal frame covered with fabric and filled with gasbags, a zeppelin was able to fly higher than conventional aircraft and drift almost silently over its targets. The zeppelins' ability to hit their targets accurately was poor though, and they were also vulnerable to strong winds that could blow them off course. Towards the end of the war, zeppelins were largely replaced by multi-engine bomber planes, such as the Gotha GV. Britain responded with its equivalent, the Handley Page Type O bomber.

Communications

Advances in communication allowed faster contact between commanding field officers behind the front line and soldiers at the front line. The development of telephone and wireless (radio) systems allowed instant front-line reports and quick decisions. However, phone lines, which had to be laid in each new location, were easily damaged by the artillery, and the wireless radios were heavy and difficult to move. Despite the increasing use of these new technologies, soldiers still acted as runners to relay information. Motorbike couriers, carrier pigeons and even dogs were used at times.



Source 6.24 Early World War I tanks, built by the French manufacturer Renault, moving through Belgium, 1918



Source 6.25 German airmen attach a 100-kilogram bomb to the underside of a Gotha bomber.



Source 6.26 Dogs were sometimes used to carry messages to and from the front. This one brings news to a soldier in the trenches.

REVIEW 6.5

- 1 Identify three ways in which World War I was different from preceding wars.
- 2 Did new developments in technology actually extend the war?
- 3 What were the advantages and disadvantages of new developments in communications?

WHERE WORLD WAR I WAS FOUGHT

The most common image of World War I is that of soldiers in the trenches, covered in mud and blood, and surrounded by barbed wire. These images were characteristic of the drawn-out war on the **Western Front** in France and Belgium, where Australian troops fought from 1916 to 1918. Although this was generally regarded as the most important theatre of war, there were many others (see Source 6.27).

There was fighting on the Eastern Front (also known as the Russian Front) between Germany and Russia in Eastern Europe. This continued until the Russians made a separate peace with Germany in 1917. There was also fighting in northern Italy, where the Italians (who left the Triple Alliance) fought against Austria–Hungary. Fighting also took place in the Middle East, where Allied forces, including the Australian Light Horsemen, fought against the Turks. Perhaps best known to all Australians was the Gallipoli Campaign, where Australian and New Zealand (ANZAC) troops joined with other units of the British army in a failed invasion of Turkey.

Stalemate on the Western Front

In 1914, the widely held view was that World War I would be a short war. However, after the initial movement of the German army, which marched through Belgium and deep into France, the war on the Western Front became a stalemate. The stalemate was primarily due to the fact that from 1914 to 1918, the weapons and technology available to the armies in the form of artillery, machine guns and barbed wire gave the advantage to the defender. (It was not until World War II that this changed.) On the Western Front, the consequence of this was that the British and French could not drive the Germans out of France and the Germans could not advance any further.



Source 6.27 The countries involved in World War I and the sites and years of major battles. The Allies included Britain, France, Russia and their member countries. The Central Powers were Germany, Austria–Hungary and their allies.

Stalemate on the Western Front

SOURCE STUDY



Source 6.28 The Western Front in 1915, where German and Allied forces faced each other across a line of trenches that stretched from the Belgian coast to Switzerland.



Source 6.29 British soldiers waiting in a French trench on the Western Front during World War I. Note the camouflaged periscope at the centre of the photograph.

INTERPRET 6.3

- 1 Using the scale on Source 6.28, work out approximately how long the line of trenches was in 1915.
- 2 List the information you gain about trenches from examining Source 6.29.

REVIEW 6.6

- 1 Locate and name the three main 'theatres of war' in World War I on Source 6.27.
- 2 In which area did Australian troops first fight: Gallipoli or France?
- 3 What style of warfare is most closely identified with the Western Front?
- 4 Did available weapons and technology advantage the attacker or defender in World War I?
- 5 Where was the initial advance in World War I? Who was it by? Where did it stop?
- 6 Explain the meaning of the term 'stalemate'.

THE GALLIPOLI CAMPAIGN



Source 6.30 The Gallipoli peninsula

In an attempt to break the stalemate that had developed on the Western Front, Winston Churchill (Britain's First Lord of the Admiralty and the man in charge of the Royal Navy) argued for an attack on Turkey. As part of the Ottoman Empire, Turkey was a German ally. Churchill believed that the British Navy could force its way through the narrow passage of water known as the Dardanelles and bombard the Turkish capital of Constantinople (modern-day Istanbul). It was hoped that this would force Turkey out of the war and open the way for Britain and France to move supplies, via the Black Sea, to the Russian army fighting the Germans on the Eastern (Russian) Front (see Source 6.27). Although the idea was a good one, the planning for the campaign was poor.

The operation began in March 1915 when British and French warships unsuccessfully attempted to pass through the Dardanelles (See Source 6.30). They were stopped by Turkish guns along the shore and mines placed in the water. The next step,

almost as an afterthought, was to use the army and make a landing. The Gallipoli campaign began on 25 April when British, French and ANZAC troops made separate landings. British, Indian and ANZAC troops landed on the Gallipoli peninsula, while the French made a diversionary landing at Kum Kale to distract the Turkish forces (see Source 6.30).

The Gallipoli landing

Both the ANZAC's landing, at what is now called Anzac Cove, and the British landing at Cape Helles went badly from the start. The ANZACs found themselves ashore at a narrow beach facing steep cliffs. During the first hours after landing, there was a great deal of confusion as small groups of men acted independently. Some stayed on or near the beach, others advanced inland until they were halted by Turkish forces of the 19th Division. More than 600 Australian soldiers were killed on the first day of the campaign, with barely one kilometre of progress achieved.

The Turkish 19th Division was led by the brilliant Colonel Mustafa Kemal. Kemal recognised the importance of holding the high ground above the beaches. His decision on the first day did much to determine the outcome of the campaign, as the ANZACs never did gain the high ground despite repeated efforts.



Source 6.31 A photograph taken in 1916 of Mustafa Kemal Ataturk



Source 6.32 Anzac Cove following the landing of Australian and New Zealand troops on 25 April 1915

Source 6.33

Off at one this morning & about dawn we heard a terrific bombardment ... our battalion packed on three or four barges & a destroyer towed us towards the shore as far as she could ... then cast us adrift. That position was scarcely safe for bullets were flying all round hitting the boat, but we had only one casualty. Some of us waded neck high to shore ... The whole trouble was we had no artillery on land & the warships with their field guns could not reach the enemy's guns ... our losses from their shrapnel was severe ... The country is brutal ... besides being hilly & broken, the ground is covered with scrub from 4 to 6ft high & you cannot see an enemy if he does not wish it ... One other trouble is that the snipers [expert marksmen], seem to be numerous & deadly. One of the consequences of this is that the losses in Officers is out of proportion to the men ... Our battalion must have lost close on half its strength. We could not stand many days like this.

An account of the first landing at Anzac Cove from
Acting Sergeant Adrian Wilmot Delamore of the Auckland Infantry Battalion

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The first name suggested for the combined **corps** (a grouping of two or more divisions) of Australian and New Zealand forces was the Australasian Army Corps, but this was rejected by New Zealand. ANZAC (Australian and New Zealand Army Corps) was eventually adopted instead.

INTERPRET 6.4

- 1 List the elements mentioned in Source 6.33 that you can identify in Source 6.32.
- 2 After studying Source 6.32, describe the difficulties you think you would face trying to transport weapons and supplies for the battle at Anzac Cove on 25 April 1915.
- 3 Use Source 6.33 to list the problems the original ANZACs faced when landing at Anzac Cove.

'The mystery current': a contested aspect of the Gallipoli landing

A story that is regularly retold about the Gallipoli campaign is that the ANZACs came ashore at the wrong beach because their boats were swept away from the planned landing place by a 'mystery current' in the ocean. However, evidence from Royal Navy records of ocean currents and weather, together with soldiers' accounts, refute this idea (e.g. one soldier noted in his journal that 'there was no wind and the sea was dead calm'). The story of the 'mystery current' appears to have begun with General Birdwood, who was in charge of the landing. It may have been created in order to turn attention away from the fact that ANZAC troops came ashore at a difficult landing place. This made it challenging, if not impossible, for the ANZAC part of the Gallipoli campaign to succeed.



Source 6.34 An illustration from *The War Illustrated Album deluxe*, of Lance Corporal Albert Jacka single-handedly defending a trench, and killing seven enemy soldiers at Courtney's Post, Gallipoli peninsula. Jacka, who was awarded the Victoria Cross, went on to serve in France and became an officer.

EXTEND 6.4

- 1 Conduct research on the life of Albert Jacka and create a suitable obituary that summarises his achievements.

Offensives and counter-offensives

Many celebrated people, events and legends in modern Australian history achieved fame during the eight months of fighting at Gallipoli. Some of the most commemorated events of World War I in Australia are the **offensives** and **counter-offensives** that took place in Gallipoli. After the ANZAC troops landed in Anzac Cove in May 1915, the Turks launched a major counter-offensive to drive off the invaders. During this action, the now legendary Albert Jacka became the first Australian to receive a Victoria Cross during World War I for single-handedly defending and holding the position of a trench against enemy fire. The Victoria Cross is the highest Commonwealth military award for acts of bravery in wartime.

In August 1915, the ANZACs launched two famous diversionary attacks. The Australians captured Lone Pine in fighting so fierce that seven Victoria Crosses were awarded to soldiers involved in the attack. At the Nek, a charge by Light Horsemen cost the lives of 234 soldiers on an area 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. On the battlefield, respect grew between the Turkish soldiers and the ANZAC troops. Each side saw the other as honourable, and agreements were made to hold fire and bury the dead respectfully (see Source 6.33). Both sides had an amnesty to allow 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.

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 marksmen) or artillery bombardment from the Turkish guns. More Australians and New Zealanders died or were forced into hospital, however, as a result of disease than enemy action. Conditions in the trenches were rough, with variations in weather from extreme heat to cold winds and snow. Food supplies were basic but plentiful, but living in close quarters with poor sanitation and unreliable drinking water encouraged the spread of diseases such as dysentery and gastroenteritis.

Conditions at Gallipoli

SOURCE STUDY

Source 6.35

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. The best control means available was to wear the clothing inside out and then there were no seams next to the skin for the pest to hide away in and breed. This I did with my flannel shirt, but I simply could not come at wearing my trousers inside out, even though many of the other men did. It simply looked too awful.

An extract from a letter that Lieutenant Frank Boyes wrote about conditions at Gallipoli



Source 6.36 Australian soldiers resting in a trench at Gallipoli.

INTERPRET 6.5

- 1 Do you think that Source 6.35 is a reliable source of evidence for an investigation of living conditions at Gallipoli? Give reasons for your opinion.
- 2 What features can you identify in Source 6.36 that support the description provided in Source 6.35?
- 3 What evidence is there in either source that the ANZACs weren't really prepared for conditions at Gallipoli?
- 4 Using these two sources as evidence, describe conditions for the ANZACs at Gallipoli.
- 5 Would you require any further information to make your description more complete? If so, what?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

To hide the fact they were leaving, the ANZACs rigged up rifles to fire at random. They did this by attaching tins to the rifle triggers with string. When the tins filled with water, dripping from other tins strung up above, their weight pulled the triggers down and the rifles fired.

Withdrawal

By December 1915, the decision was made to withdraw all ANZAC troops from the Gallipoli Peninsula. For the Australian forces, the campaign had cost 8709 lives, with a further 19 000 wounded. Their enemy, the Turks, had been just as brave in the defence of their homeland, with a total of around 80 000 Turks dying in the fighting at Anzac Cove and against British troops at Cape Helles. The last Australians were evacuated on 19 and 20 December. Because of its efficiency, their silent withdrawal is usually remembered as the most successful part of the Gallipoli campaign.

EXTEND 6.5

- 1 Conduct research on the achievements of the Australian Light Horse after leaving Gallipoli, including their role at the Battle of Beersheba.

After Gallipoli

After the ANZACs withdrew from Gallipoli, most of the infantry (foot soldiers) were sent to France to continue fighting, while members of the Light Horse Brigade (mounted soldiers) were sent to the Middle East to serve with British forces fighting the Turks. One of the most famous battles that involved the Australian Light Horse was the charge against Turkish forces at Beersheba (a city located in what is now the south of Israel). It was a battle in which the Light Horse took part in a surprise attack on Turkish positions in October 1917.

Gallipoli from the Turkish perspective

Just as the teaching and commemoration of Gallipoli is an important part of culture and history in Australia and New Zealand, so too is it an important part of culture and history in Turkey today. The stories and events of the Gallipoli campaign are widely taught and remembered by Turks, and are regarded as a significant point in the development of their country. To the Turks, the ANZACs were seen as invaders who needed to be stopped in order to protect their homeland and defend their way of life. Although Turkish children learn about a different set of heroes at school, and their teachers tell different stories of victories and defeats, the teaching and commemoration of these events is no less important to Turks than it is to Australians and New Zealanders.

SOURCE STUDY

A tribute to the ANZACs

Source 6.37

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 [the Australians] and the Mehmets [the Turks] to us where they lie side by side now here in this country of ours ... you, the mothers, who sent their sons from faraway countries wipe away your tears; your sons are now lying in our bosom and are in peace. After having lost their lives on this land they have become our sons as well.

A tribute, written by Mustafa Kemal Atatürk (the first president of Turkey) in 1934, to the ANZACs killed at Gallipoli

INTERPRET 6.6

- 1 At whom is the tribute aimed?
- 2 How might the tribute be a comfort to Australians and New Zealanders who had lost loved ones at Gallipoli?
- 3 What do you think the tribute says about Mustafa Kemal Atatürk as a person?

APPLY 6.3

- 1 Visit the Australian War Memorial website to find out about Mustafa Kemal, the first President of modern Turkey in 1923.

REVIEW 6.7

- 1 Why did the British decide to attack Turkey in 1915?
- 2 Who led the Turkish forces opposing the ANZACs at Gallipoli and why did the operation fail?
- 3 When was the decision made to withdraw ANZAC troops from Gallipoli? Where were these troops sent?

THE WESTERN FRONT

As we have seen, warfare on the Western Front quickly reached a stalemate. Troops on both sides were largely confined to the trenches, using machine guns, trenches, barbed wire and artillery to defend their positions. This stalemate meant that 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.

These attacks tended to follow a pattern. Initially, one side would launch a long and sustained artillery attack, during which enemy trenches would be bombarded with explosive shells. These attacks could go on for a few hours or many days. The aim of these bombardments was to force the defending troops underground, destroy their fortifications and clear the way for attacking troops to cross **no man's land** (the narrow strip of land between opposing trenches that belonged to neither army) and gain enemy ground.

One major problem, however, was that no man's land was very difficult ground to cross. Soldiers struggled through mud-filled shell holes created by their own artillery, and were weighed down with heavy equipment. Once they had started to cross no man's land, they might learn that their bombardment had not destroyed the barbed wire obstacles between the trenches. More frightening still was the possibility that the artillery attack had failed to destroy the enemy's fortifications. As attacking soldiers made their way across no man's land, the enemy could emerge from deep bunkers to fire on them with machine guns.

Generally, these types of attacks on enemy trenches failed to achieve their goals. Confusion, smoke, noise and death quickly turned complex military plans into chaos. If attackers reached enemy lines, close combat with rifles, bayonets, pistols and grenades often followed. If ground was gained, it could be retaken in counter-offensives only weeks later. The only real result of most of the battles that took place on the Western Front over the four years was death and injury.



Source 6.38 A photograph taken on 1 October 1917 showing the battlefield in Ypres, Belgium. Note the shell-hole bogs and pill boxes (concrete bunkers) that protected German soldiers from Australian artillery fire.

Australians on the Western Front

From 1916 to 1918, Australian troops took part in many of the most important battles on the Western Front:

- the Battle of Fromelles
- the Battle of the Somme in northern France
- assaults on the towns of Pozières and Villers-Bretonneux
- the Battle of Passchendaele in Ypres, Belgium
- the Battle of Hamel
- the Battle of Amiens.

The Battle of Hamel

EXTEND 6.6

- 1 Who was Sir John Monash? Conduct research on his military achievements and reputation. How did the Battle of Hamel differ from the other battles on the Western Front?

The Battle of Hamel was an attack on German trenches to the east of Amiens, France, by the Australian 4th Division under the command of General John Monash. It has been described by some military historians as a textbook battle because of Monash's careful planning. Just before dawn on 4 July 1918, and without using the typical artillery bombardment, Australian troops and a small detachment of Americans attacked the German lines. The attack took the Germans by surprise, and the Australians gained ground and inflicted major losses on the Germans.

APPLY 6.4

- 1 Investigate one of the important battles involving Australians on the Western Front listed above. Use visual and text sources to present an outline of the battle's objectives, events and results. Do you believe it was a significant battle? Explain your response.
- 2 Investigate the primary school in the French town of Villers-Bretonneux, and explain why the townspeople there remember Australia.

Women on the Western Front

The only women allowed to enlist and serve overseas during World War I were nurses. Over the course of the war, 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.

Life in the trenches

Life in the trenches along the Western Front could vary, but for most soldiers conditions were appalling. In most cases, trenches were two metres deep by two metres wide, and during the winter months, rainfall turned low-lying trenches into mud pits. In some cases, the water reached waist height, leading to a condition called trench foot, which caused soldiers' feet to rot. During the summer months, rats, lice and flies infested the trenches.

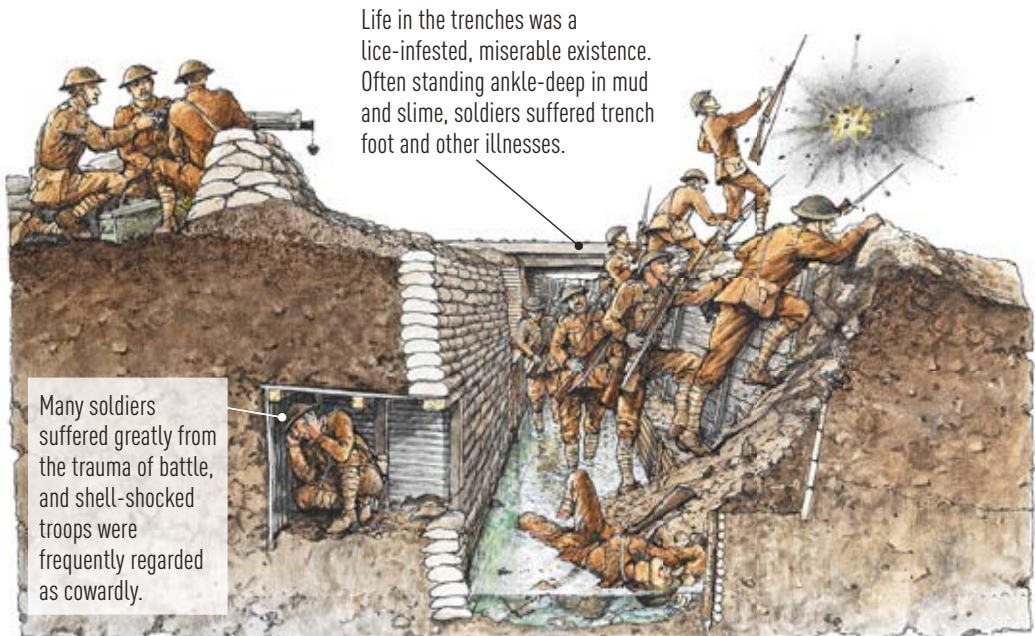
To avoid snipers (marksmen trained to 'pick off' enemy soldiers from concealed locations), soldiers spent most of the daylight hours under the trench line – most attacks took place at dusk or in the early morning when visibility was poor. Soldiers were often bored during the day, and caught brief moments of sleep when they could.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

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. Water that had been boiled to drink would develop a crust of ice after only a minute or two.

Life in the trenches was a lice-infested, miserable existence. Often standing ankle-deep in mud and slime, soldiers suffered trench foot and other illnesses.

Many soldiers suffered greatly from the trauma of battle, and shell-shocked troops were frequently regarded as cowardly.



Source 6.39 An artist's impression of life in the trenches on the Western Front

Life in the trenches

SOURCE STUDY

Source 6.40

We are lousy [infested with lice], 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.

Extract from a letter from John Alexander Raws to his family. Raws was a South Australian soldier who spent only four weeks on the Western Front before he was killed in shelling on 23 August 1916.

Source 6.42

I kept calling for the orderly to help me and thought he was funk[ing] [showing cowardice], but the poor boy had been blown to bits. Somebody got the tent up, and when I got to the delirious pneumonia patient, he was crouched on the ground at the back of the stretcher. He took no notice of me when I asked him to return to bed, so I leaned across the stretcher and put one arm around and tried to lift him in. I had my right arm under a leg, which I thought was his, but when I lifted I found to my horror that it was a loose leg with a boot and a puttee on it. It was one of the orderly's legs which had been blown off and had landed on the patient's bed. The next day they found the trunk about 20 yards away.

Sister Kelly, an Australian nurse in France, described her experiences when a bomb hit a casualty clearing station behind the lines



Source 6.41 A photograph taken on 22 January 1918 shows members of a British Tunnelling Company attached to the Australian Corps making a dugout in the slimy mud beneath an artillery observation post near Messines, in Belgium.



Source 6.43 Nurses working in a makeshift field hospital, such as were often set up in trenches on the Western Front

INTERPRET 6.7

- 1 What makes Sources 6.40 and 6.42 reliable sources of evidence for a historian trying to understand conditions in the trenches of the Western Front? What limitations are there for a historian researching conditions across the entire Western Front?
- 2 Explain how Sources 6.41 and 6.43 help you understand the conditions in the trenches of the Western Front.

REVIEW 6.8

- 1 Identify similarities between the Gallipoli campaign and the Western Front.
- 2 List the problems associated with living and working in the trenches of the Western Front.
- 3 Describe the conditions Australian nurses on the Western Front could find themselves working under.

6.1

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE CAUSES, SCOPE AND NATURE OF WORLD WAR I?

» Outline the main causes of World War I

- 1 Identify the long-term causes of World War I and explain how they contributed to the outbreak of war. (10 marks)
- 2 Outline the links between the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand and the outbreak of World War I. (5 marks)

» Explain why Australians enlisted to fight

- 3 Identify reasons why Australians enlisted to fight in World War I. (5 marks)

» Locate and sequence the places where Australians fought

- 4 Identify the three main theatres of war that Australians fought in during World War I. (5 marks)
- 5 Place these three theatres of war in chronological order according to Australian involvement. (5 marks)

» Describe the nature of warfare during the Gallipoli campaign

- 6 Describe the landing at Gallipoli. Argue whether it was a success or failure. (15 marks)
- 7 Describe the conditions the ANZACs experienced during the campaign on the Gallipoli peninsula. (10 marks)
- 8 Identify the reasons so many Victoria Crosses were awarded to Australians at Gallipoli. (5 marks)

» Explain the outcome of the Gallipoli campaign

- 9 Outline the outcome of the Gallipoli campaign for both Australia and Turkey. (10 marks)
- 10 'Their silent withdrawal is usually remembered as the most successful part of the Gallipoli campaign'. Discuss the accuracy of this statement, making reference to Australia's involvement in the Gallipoli campaign. (15 marks)

» Investigate the significant experiences of Australians in World War I

- 11 Describe the conditions Australians found themselves fighting in on the Western Front. Refer to at least two sources in your response. (10 marks)
- 12 Select a World War I battle you are familiar with, and explain the role Australians played in it. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASKS

Gallipoli – the power of film

The Australian film *Gallipoli* (1981) is described on the Australian War Memorial website as a 'powerful depiction of personal struggles and experience of Gallipoli in 1915.' It credits the film for bringing 'this important national story to an international audience.' It then goes on to claim that 'the climax of the movie occurs on the ANZAC battlefield at Gallipoli and depicts the futile attack at the Battle of the Nek on 7 August 1915.'

- 1 In groups, conduct research on the following topics:
 - a the life and career of Private Wilfred Harper of the 10th Light Horse
 - b the recruitment campaign in Australia in 1914–1915
 - c the landing at Gallipoli
 - d the Battle of the Nek
 - e the making of the film *Gallipoli*.

- 2 As a class compare and discuss the results of your research.
- 3 View the film *Gallipoli* as a class.
- 4 Write an individual report on the film's historical accuracy.
- 5 Discuss the film's historical accuracy as a class. What are your conclusions? Does a film like *Gallipoli* have to be historically accurate? Does it matter if a film about a historical event is accurate?

The Battle of Lone Pine

- 1 Conduct research on the Battle of Lone Pine at Gallipoli. Write a report of about 500 words that describes the aim and results of this ANZAC offensive, and explain why seven Australians were awarded Victoria Crosses as a result of their actions during this battle.



Source 6.44 Private Wilfred Harper, 10th Light Horse Regiment of Guildford, Western Australia



Source 6.45 A scene from the film *Gallipoli*, made in 1981

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

6.2

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE IMPACTS OF WORLD WAR I ON AUSTRALIA?

This section outlines the ways in which World War I had an impact on Australia. It explores how the war affected people's lives on the Australian home front, including the impacts on the Australian government and economy.

THE IMPACT OF WORLD WAR I ON AUSTRALIA

Source 6.46

Australia's involvement

Enlisted and served overseas: 331 781

Dead: 61 720

Wounded: 155 000 (all services)

Prisoners of war: 4044 (397 died while captive)

Source: Australian War Memorial website

World War I had a significant impact on Australia. 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 (see Source 6.46). 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 6.47). 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.

Source 6.47 A comparison of British Commonwealth casualties, World War I

Country	Total soldiers sent to war	Total casualties (captured, missing, wounded or killed)	% of casualties
Britain	5 000 000	2 535 424	50.71
Canada	422 405	210 100	49.74
Australia	331 781	215 585	64.98
New Zealand	98 950	58 526	59.01
India	1 096 013	140 015	12.77

Statistics from *Australian Campaigns in the Great War*, Lt. The Hon. Staniforth Smith

Impact of war on the Australian home front

Despite the significant loss of Australian lives, World War I did not touch the Australian home front to anywhere near the same degree as it did in the countries where fighting had taken place, such as France, Belgium, Italy, Russia, Turkey and Britain. In these countries, civilians suffered food shortages or were driven from their homes because of the conflict. All the European nations introduced some form of **conscription** (compulsory military service). In Australia, conscription was one of the most divisive and bitter arguments of the war.

The conscription issue

By 1916, most of the initial enthusiasm for the war effort had been replaced by the grim realisation that war meant suffering and death. Although there was a peak in enlistments after Gallipoli, from late 1915, numbers of enlisting soldiers steadily declined. Because of the decline in the number of Australian volunteers, heavy Australian losses and the critical state of the war on the Western Front, Labor Prime Minister Billy Hughes announced

that there would be a national referendum (a special national vote). If it had passed, the Commonwealth Government would have had the power to force men of military age to join the army for service in the war overseas.

Hughes first put the referendum to the Australian people in October 1916. They voted 'no' by a small margin. Under pressure from Britain, Hughes held a second referendum in December 1917, with the same result.

The most important reason for the failure of the conscription referendum was that despite government **propaganda** (see Sources 6.52 and 6.53), the official support of the Protestant Churches and an energetic campaign by the Prime Minister, the Australian people were not convinced that Australia was at risk. The war was half a world away. Australians also believed that, for the size of its population, the country had done more than its fair share to support Britain and the Empire. The conscription debate divided the country, and highlighted existing divisions along the lines of religion and social classes. Supporters of conscription were more likely to be upper-class people of British and Protestant background. Opponents of conscription were more likely to be working class, Catholic and of Irish background. Some of the factors that played a role in the defeat of the referendums are summarised in Source 6.48.

Source 6.48 Factors leading to the defeat of the conscription referendums

Anti-British sentiment among the Irish Catholic community: There was strong anti-British feeling among the Irish Catholic community in Australia. The first referendum was held not long after the Easter Rebellion in Ireland, when Irish nationalists staged an armed uprising as part of their long campaign for independence from Britain.

The Labor Party split over the issue: Some elements of the party agreed with Hughes. Others, of Irish background and with strong links to the trade union movement, opposed conscription. Many trade unionists opposed conscription because they feared that if even more able-bodied Australians were taken into the army, then the country would have to rely on non-union labour at lower wages. This suspicion was strengthened by the arrival of a party of immigrants from Malta in 1916.

Perception of unfair burden: 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, as wages fell and the cost of living rose. 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.

Impact on supply of workers: Some farmers and other employers with skilled workers opposed conscription because they feared it would hurt their businesses.

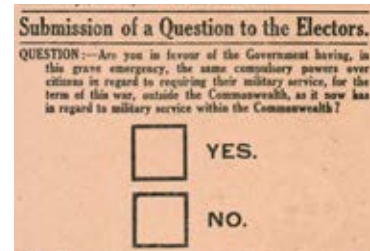
Expansion of Commonwealth government power

In 1914, the newly elected Australian Labor government, under Prime Minister Andrew Fisher, passed two items of legislation to extend Commonwealth power. These were known as the *Trading with the Enemy Act* and the *War Precautions Act*. These two pieces of legislation represented a significant increase in the central authority of the Federal government – a move that continued in many areas of law even after the war ended in 1918. These Acts gave the government power to:

- collect income tax (necessary to meet the costs of weapons, ammunitions and other army supplies)
- increase **censorship** of letters, telegraph cables, newspapers and magazines, with the goal of preventing information about military operations from reaching the enemy. The government also censored reports and statements that 'might cause disaffection or alarm or prejudice the recruiting, training [or] discipline' of Australia's armed forces
- set prices for certain goods
- control the movements of 'enemy aliens' – in other words German-Australians – and even intern (imprison) them
- ban trade with companies from enemy countries fighting against the Allies.



Source 6.49 William Morris (Billy) Hughes



Source 6.50 Part of the ballot paper leading to the 1916 conscription referendum

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Billy Hughes was hit by an egg while speaking to a noisy crowd in Warwick, Queensland, in support of the conscription referendum. The culprit was not caught and Hughes, not happy with the efforts of the Queensland police, hatched plans to establish the Australian Federal Police force, which would have certain powers over all Australian states and territories.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Aspro is an Australian product that was developed as a direct result of World War I. It replaced Aspirin, a pain relief medication that became unpopular in Australia because it was made by the German company Bayer.



Source 6.51 An advertisement for Aspro that appeared during World War I

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Before the war, a processed meat commonly known as German sausage was popular. In South Australia it was known as 'Fritz', but during the war its name was changed to the more English-sounding 'Devon'.

Impact of World War I on Australia's economy

The redirection of raw materials to the war effort caused inflation (price rises) across Australia, with the cost of living rising by up to 50 per cent during the war years. On the positive side, Australia developed new industries to manufacture products that could no longer be imported because of naval blockades and the use of cargo ships for military purposes rather than for the transportation of consumer goods.

There were also changes in the structure of the economy. While agriculture continued to be important, there was also significant growth in Australian secondary industry (manufacturing) such as the expansion of the BHP Steel Works and the Sulphide Corporation. Both these companies were involved in smelting and processing metals that were vital to the war effort. The Australian National Shipping Line and the Commonwealth Bank also expanded their roles in the economic life of the country.

Impact of World War I on Australian women

Before the war, most women had been homemakers, with a small number working in traditionally female roles such as teaching, nursing, dressmaking and domestic work. However, with over 300 000 men fighting overseas, women wanted to support the war effort at home. Unlike women in Britain and Germany, Australian women did not move into factory work in significant numbers. They did, however, move out of their traditional roles, taking up jobs in banks and offices that had previously been male occupations. By the end of the war, the percentage of women working outside the home had risen by 13 per cent.

When the war was over, there was an expectation that women who had moved into traditional male roles would go back 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.

Wartime propaganda

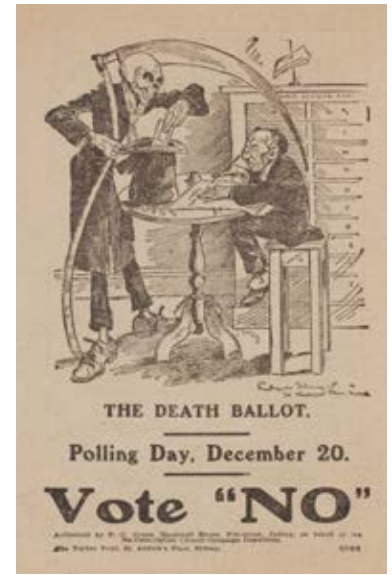
Wartime propaganda was aimed at encouraging people to support the war effort by enlisting to serve or by working on the home front. Another key objective of propaganda was to generate negative feelings and emotions towards the enemy, which in Australia meant fuelling anti-German sentiments in the general public. During World War I, Germans and Turks were demonised in the Australian press, in posters and in day-to-day life. Even soldiers with German names who enlisted in the Australian army sometimes faced hostility and suspicion, and many German-Australians changed their names to more English-sounding ones to avoid discrimination. Anti-German sentiment also led many towns across Australia with German-sounding names to change their names to more English-sounding ones. For example, in New South Wales, Germantown was renamed Holbrook, and Mount Bismarck was renamed Mount Kitchener after Lord Kitchener (the British Field Marshal).

APPLY 6.5

- 1 Use your research skills to locate a further example of Australian propaganda from World War I.
 - a Analyse it by identifying its origin, purpose, audience and techniques.
 - b What techniques are used in order to achieve its goal?
 - c How effective do you think it would have been at achieving this goal?



Source 6.52 A poster from 1917 encouraging Australians to enlist



Source 6.53 A cartoon printed in 1917 produced by the No Conscription Council Campaign Committee

INTERPRET 6.8

- 1 Identify the perspectives on the conscription debate being promoted by both of these sources.
- 2 Select one of these sources and outline the argument it is presenting and the types of techniques it is using to promote its point of view and achieve its aim.
- 3 Explain which source you think would have been the most effective at achieving its aim. What features or elements do you think would have made it more effective than the other source?

Internment of 'enemy aliens'

From the 1850s onwards, German settlers coming to Australia had formed communities in places such as the Barossa Valley in South Australia and the Riverina in New South Wales, as well as across parts of south-east Queensland and Western Australia. During World War I, the Australian government set up **internment camps** in remote places around Australia and sent thousands of 'enemy aliens' – primarily from these established German–Australian communities – to be detained there. The government of the time regarded enemy aliens to be any men, women or children born in countries at war with Australia who were thought to pose a threat to Australia's security. In New South Wales, internment camps were located in Trial Bay Gaol, Berrima Gaol and Holsworthy Army Barracks. About 4500 people were interned during World War I, and many more were secretly kept under observation by police and neighbours in their communities.

EXTEND 6.7

- 1 To what extent do you think the restriction of enemy aliens under the *War Precautions Act* is an example of the key concept of continuity or change in Australian history?



Source 6.54 Private Douglas Grant (left) in his AIF uniform. Grant fought on the Western Front during the war. He was rejected when he first tried to enlist in 1916, then was accepted in 1917. Grant became a prisoner of war after capture at Bullecourt, France, and returned to Australia in 1919.

Participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples

Even though Indigenous Australians could not vote and were not even counted as Australian citizens during World War I, well over 400 volunteered and fought in the AIF. When the war broke out, many Indigenous Australians who attempted to enlist were turned away because of their race. By 1916, however, around the time of the conscription debate, the government's position on the inclusion of Indigenous Australians in the armed forces had changed dramatically. By that time, Australia was desperate for more men. Restrictions were eased and a new military order was issued that said, 'Half-castes may be enlisted in the Australian Imperial Force provided that the examining Medical Officers are satisfied that one of the parents is of European origin.' At the time, Australian government policy judged people by the colour of their skin rather than their courage, the quality of their character or their **patriotism**. When Australian soldiers returned from World War I, there were many benefits available to them to help them re-adjust to civilian life. Aboriginal soldiers who enlisted and fought for Australia, however, were denied access to these benefits when they returned home.

Armistice and peace

At 11 a.m. on 11 November 1918, fighting stopped on the Western Front, and World War I officially ended with the signing of the **Armistice** (an agreement between opposing forces to cease fighting and pursue a course of peace).

The following year, the Paris Peace Conference was held at the Palace of Versailles, just outside Paris. The Conference brought together the leaders of the Allies to set the terms of peace for the defeated Central Powers. Representatives of the German government signed a treaty – known as the **Treaty of Versailles** – in which Germany admitted fault for causing the war and agreed to pay **reparations** (money and goods to compensate for damage and loss of lives during the war). As part of the terms of the Treaty, Germany also lost some of its territories and was forced to limit the size of its army.

There were two key results of the Treaty of Versailles for Australia. Australia had independent representation at the conference, separate from Britain, and was granted a mandate over New Guinea by the **League of Nations** – an organisation that was formed at the Paris Peace Conference with representatives from many world powers. The League's primary mission was to maintain world peace and prevent future wars. The Australian Prime Minister Billy Hughes insisted on Australian control over New Guinea because he didn't want it to be granted to Japan, who had been a favoured candidate for the role. As it turned out, New Guinea proved to be vital for Australian security during the Pacific part of World War II.

REVIEW 6.9

- 1 How many Australians lost their lives fighting in World War I?
- 2 Outline some of the ways in which the Commonwealth government expanded its powers during World War I.
- 3 What was the result of the two conscription referendums held in 1916 and 1917?
- 4 Explain why some Australian companies were able to expand during World War I.
- 5 To what extent did the number of Australian women working outside the home increase during World War I?
- 6 Explain what Trial Bay Gaol, Berrima Gaol and Holsworthy Army Barracks had in common during World War I.
- 7 What were the key results for Australia from the Treaty of Versailles and Paris Peace Conference?

WHAT WERE THE IMPACTS OF WORLD WAR I ON AUSTRALIA?

» Outline the types of controls that were introduced on the home front by the Australian government

- 1 Explain the result of the two conscription referendums held in Australia during World War I. (5 marks)
- 2 Explain the important role that propaganda played in influencing the outcomes of the conscription debates in Australia in World War I. (5 marks)
- 3 Identify the two pieces of legislation that gave the Australian government extended powers during the war, and describe the five wartime controls (powers) that they brought into law. (10 marks)
- 4 Explain the ways in which Australian women were able to contribute to the war effort. (10 marks)
- 5 Comment on how permanent the changes to the lives of Australian women were after World War I. (5 marks)
- 6 List examples of some of the actions taken by the Australian people, Australian companies and the Australian government during World War I to show that they opposed the Germans and were loyal to the British Empire. (5 marks)
- 7 What type of people were considered 'enemy aliens' in Australia during World War I? Explain what happened to them. (5 marks)
- 8 Explain the role of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders in World War I. Discuss whether the war changed attitudes towards (and treatment of) Indigenous Australians. (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

The conscription debate

- 1 Divide the class into two groups. One will represent the pro-conscription group, the other the anti-conscription group.
- 2 Each group is responsible for designing a campaign to support their point of view. The campaign should include speeches, posters and newspaper articles based on historical research. Roles should be allocated to enable a strong case to be established. Both sides should have an equal opportunity to make their case.
- 3 A vote should be held within the class, with ballot papers based on Source 6.50.
- 4 As a class, discuss the results of your vote.

The 'other soldiers'

This activity explores the role of women and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders during World War I.

- 1 As a class, discuss how much you know about the role of women and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders during World War I.
- 2 Make a decision about whether you wish to conduct research on a woman or an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander in World War I. Use an appropriate search engine to start your research of either 'Australian women in World War I' or 'Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders in World War I'. Try to find a specific woman or Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander to research. Create a folio of information using as many different sources as you can find, that outlines this individual's wartime experiences, as well as their life after the war, if appropriate.
- 3 As a class, discuss your findings, and then answer question 1 again.

6.2

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

6.3

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE CAUSES, SCOPE AND NATURE OF WORLD WAR II?

In this section you will learn about the major causes of World War II, and discuss different historical interpretations of how the war began. You will also explore the changing nature of warfare by investigating significant events such as the **Holocaust** and the atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

CAUSES OF WORLD WAR II

Within only 20 years of signing the Treaty of Versailles, Europe was once again at war. At that time, and in the decades following, many historians and commentators blamed the actions of the allied 'peacemakers' at the end of World War I for what was to come. In particular, the strict terms of the Treaty of Versailles with which Germany was required to comply are seen by many as the main cause of World War II. In reality, the causes of World War II were more complex than that, with many short- and long-term factors contributing to the outbreak of conflict in 1939.

Germany and the Treaty of Versailles

The Treaty of Versailles imposed a series of harsh terms on Germany (see Source 6.56). Over time, many Germans developed the belief that they were being unfairly treated. Germans bitterly resented the nature of the peace settlement, and this resentment was exploited by a number of German politicians during the 1920s and 1930s.

Source 6.55 This photo shows the signing of the treaty at Versailles Palace, Paris, in 1919. French Premier Georges Clemenceau is standing, with US President Woodrow Wilson seated to his right.



Source 6.56 Key terms of the Treaty of Versailles

'War guilt clause' blamed Germany for starting World War I. Germany forced to pay massive reparations. An initial amount of over US\$33 billion was set by a Reparations Commission in 1921.

The German army was limited to 100 000 men, the German air force was disbanded, and the production of weapons and munitions in German factories was strictly controlled.

Territories controlled by Germany were given to the neighbouring nations of France, Denmark, Belgium, Poland, as well as the newly formed country of Czechoslovakia. Italy was also given two small areas (see Source 6.61).

German colonies in Africa and across the Pacific were divided between the Allies, including Australia which claimed German New Guinea and Nauru.

Japan was permitted to keep Chinese territory it had seized from Germany. Japan also wanted to include a 'racial equality' clause to ensure its equality with the other powers but was unsuccessful.

The League of Nations was established with the aim of preventing another war by settling disputes between nations using sanctions.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Germany's World War I debts, as set out in the Treaty of Versailles, were finally cleared in 2010, with final payments made by the German government, in October of that year – 92 years after World War I.

The rise of Adolf Hitler and the Nazi Party in Germany

After World War I, the economic situation in Germany and around the world worsened. The money Germany was required to pay in reparations to the Allies caused serious economic difficulties for the German government and people. During the 1920s, inflation rose at a staggering rate, unemployment rates soared and the German standard of living fell dramatically. Across Europe, political movements such as **fascism** and **communism** were becoming more and more popular because they offered people the hope of a way out of these troubled times.

Out of this social and economic climate Adolf Hitler came to power. In July 1921, Hitler became the chairman of the Nationalist Socialist German Workers' Party (*Nationalsozialistische Deutsche Arbeiterpartei*) – a political party that was established in 1920 with extreme views and fought against the rise of communism in Germany. (The term 'Nazi' is the abbreviation of the word *Nationalsozialistische*.) Hitler was a very talented and persuasive speaker, able to mesmerise crowds for hours.

Hitler had served in the army during World War I. He was convinced that the German army had not really lost the war, preferring the idea that its soldiers had been betrayed by the German politicians who had signed the Treaty of Versailles. Hitler's argument ignored the fact that German army generals had admitted to the *Kaiser* (emperor) before the **armistice** that the war was lost. It also ignored the fact that Germany's economy was in a state of near collapse by the end of World War I, meaning that German representatives at the Paris Peace Conference had no choice other than to sign.

Hitler found support for his extreme views and policies among the German people by blaming scapegoats, such as Jews, for Germany's troubles, in spite of the fact that many Jews had fought bravely in the German army. He also blamed **communists** (people who believed in an economic system in which all property is publicly owned) for adding to Germany's troubles. As mentioned, the global economy also played into Hitler's hands. Germany suffered a series of economic problems after World War I. A period of **hyperinflation** (extreme inflation) raged in the early 1920s. The German currency became worth so little that people often preferred to burn it for cooking and heating than to spend it (see Source 6.57). On top of this, Germany was hit hard by the **Great Depression**, a period of severe global hardship and high unemployment that started in 1929 after the New York stock market crash. In his speeches to the German people, Hitler blamed Germany's defeat in World War I (and the reparations it had to pay under the Treaty of Versailles) for hyperinflation, the depression and the high rate of German unemployment.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

During his time as a German army message runner on the Western Front, Hitler's superiors thought he lacked leadership skills, so he was never promoted beyond the rank of corporal (a low-ranking officer).



Source 6.57 A
German housewife using millions of Deutschmarks to light her stove in 1923

EXTEND 6.8

- 1 What is hyperinflation? Conduct additional research and discuss how it affected the lives of ordinary Germans in the 1920s.

APPLY 6.6

- 1 Conduct some online research and prepare a 200-word summary of Hitler's main ideas, views and ideology. It is important to be very careful when researching a controversial figure like Hitler online. There are many unverified statements and unsubstantiated opinions about his life and actions. Be sure that you base your research on reputable sources and cross-check the information you find against two or more sources to ensure it is accurate.

End of democratic government in Germany and the start of the Third Reich

Kaiser Wilhelm II had abdicated (resigned) his rule of Germany and fled to the Netherlands before the armistice that ended World War I. A new democratic government, known as the Weimar Republic, was established in his place. It was an unpopular government because many Germans blamed it for agreeing to the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. It also had serious economic problems to deal with during the 1920s. Workers went on strike, the value of the German currency fell dramatically, and the economy suffered as foreign investors moved their money elsewhere.

The new government also had to deal with the threat of violence from **paramilitary** groups. These included the private army of the Nazi Party, known as stormtroopers or Brownshirts who were gaining popularity (see Source 6.58). At the 1932 elections, the Nazi Party became the largest single party in the Reichstag (German legislative assembly), and in 1933, Hitler was sworn in as Chancellor of Germany. After the death of Germany's President Hindenburg in 1934, Hitler combined the role of Chancellor and President, making himself *Führer* (supreme leader) of Germany.

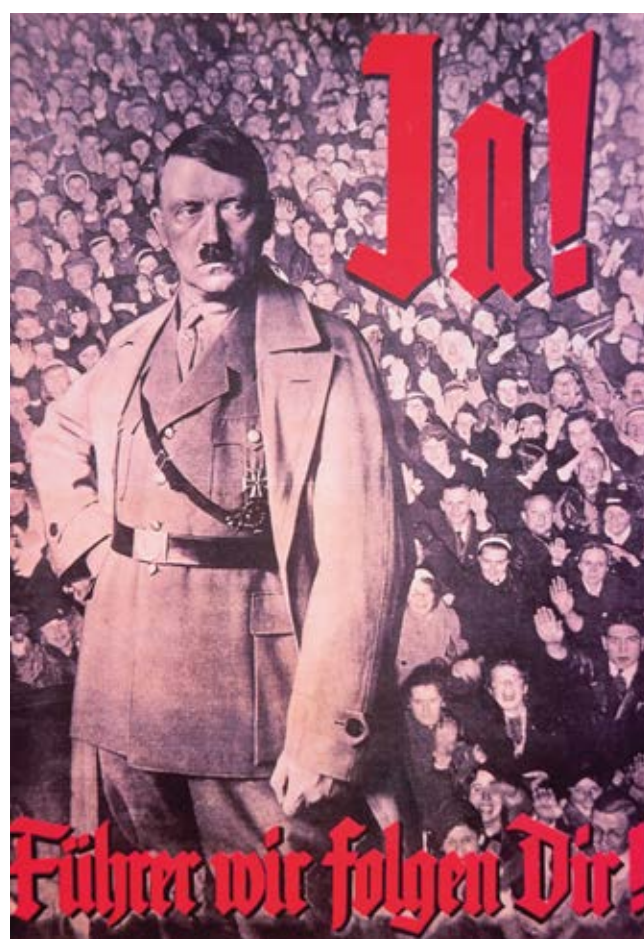
During the years of Nazi rule in Germany (a period commonly referred to as the **Third Reich**), there was little or no personal freedom. People were encouraged to report on friends, neighbours and even family members suspected of disloyalty to the regime. **Propaganda** was used to convince citizens of the beliefs of the regime and to silence critics. Punishments were severe and often involved torture and internment in concentration camps. Jews were the primary targets of Nazi persecution. Writers, artists, playwrights, university professors and others traditionally associated with free thinking were also targets of Nazi persecution.



Source 6.58 Adolf Hitler salutes a parade of Nazi Brownshirts in Nuremberg, Germany, 1927.



Source 6.59 A 1932 Nazi Party poster, *Germany Awake!* It features the swastika and the eagle, both symbols of the Third Reich.



Source 6.60 A 1934 Nazi Party poster, *Yes! Führer we follow you!*

INTERPRET 6.9

- 1 What is your reaction to the two posters presented here? Can you isolate some of the reasons why you may have reacted to them in this way? What are the origins of your views?
- 2 Identify the dominant symbols used in Sources 6.59 and 6.60. What message are they trying to convey?
- 3 Conduct some research to locate an image of the current German coat of arms. Which of the symbols presented here has been retained to represent the modern nation of Germany?
- 4 Source 6.59 was released in 1932, and Source 6.60 in 1934. What had changed in Germany over those two years? Is this change obvious when you compare both sources?

Under Hitler's command, the Nazi government violated the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. Germany built up its army, created a modern air force and built new modern warships and submarines. Between 1936 and 1939, German troops also recaptured territories lost in World War I. They even added new territories by threatening to go to war (see Source 6.62).

During this time, the British and French did little to stop Hitler. On one level, they were preoccupied with economic problems of the Great Depression; on another, they were reluctant to confront Hitler because they suspected that the situation would escalate into another bloody and costly war – a situation they were keen to avoid. This policy of inaction became known as **appeasement**. They ‘appeased’ or gave in to Hitler’s demands in the hope that they could avoid another world war.



Source 6.61 Europe in 1919 after the Treaty of Versailles



Source 6.62 Germany's territorial expansion, 1936–1939

When Germany began to make demands on territory in Poland, however, the British and French finally acknowledged that Hitler had bigger plans and would not be easily satisfied. In response, France and Britain promised to support Poland if they were attacked by Germany. In September 1939, the German army invaded Poland. Britain, France and the British dominions, including Australia, declared war on Germany. The world was at war for a second time.

Causes of World War II – contestability

As is the case with World War I, historians have different opinions about the ‘primary’ or most important causes of World War II. In addition to the German people’s reaction to the Treaty of Versailles, the most often mentioned causes of World War II are:

- *The Great Depression* – One of the consequences of the Great Depression was that dictatorial governments with extreme political views and military ambitions came to power in Germany, Italy, Spain and Japan. The Depression also distracted the democratic powers of Britain, France and the United States and made them pay more attention to affairs at home, rather than watch international developments.
- *The weakness of the League of Nations* – The League of Nations did not have a military force of its own to back up its efforts to keep the peace and halt aggression. It was weakened from the outset, after the world’s strongest democracy, the United States, refused to become a member.
- *The aggression of Germany and Japan* – The aggression of these powers against neighbouring countries began in the 1930s and went unchecked. The lack of action on the part of Britain, France and the United States only encouraged Germany and Japan to continue on this course.
- *The policy of appeasement* – The policy of inaction towards Hitler adopted by the British and French assumed that the aggressive attitude of the dictator would pass if his initial demands were met. This was also the policy adopted in the face of Japanese aggression in Asia, when Japan invaded China in the 1930s.

EXTEND 6.9

- 1 Conduct research on the causes of World War II, investigating the significance of:
 - German resentment over the terms of the Treaty of Versailles
 - the Great Depression in Europe and Japan
 - the failures and successes of the League of Nations
 - Germany’s and Japan’s military aggression
 - the policy of appeasement.Each point should be supported with specific examples from your research.
- 2 Rank the five causes listed above from most important to least important. Explain your rankings and support your decisions with specific examples.

REVIEW 6.10

- 1 Explain why the German people resented the Treaty of Versailles.
- 2 Identify the party and leader who came to power in Germany in the 1930s.
- 3 Outline the reasons why Britain and France tried to appease Hitler in the early 1930s.
- 4 Which event triggered the outbreak of World War II?

WHERE WORLD WAR II WAS FOUGHT

World War II was fought in Europe, North Africa, Asia, the Pacific region and in all the oceans. Despite the global nature of the war, historians often separate its various events according to the two main geographic regions in which they took place:

- The war in Europe and Africa – Across Europe, the Allied powers (which included Britain and the Commonwealth, France, the United States and Russia) fought the Axis powers (which included Germany and Italy) on land, at sea and in the air. Battles were fought between the Allied and Axis powers in Western Europe, North Africa and on the Eastern Front after Hitler invaded Russia in 1941.
- The war in the Pacific – Across the Pacific region, the Allied powers fought the Japanese (a member of the Axis powers). Battles were fought on land, at sea and in the air across a vast area of ocean that extended from Japan in the north to New Guinea in the south.

The war in Europe and Africa: September 1939–April 1945

Source 6.63 shows the countries and other territories controlled by Germany and its allies in Europe and North Africa at the height of its power in 1942. Source 6.64 outlines the major events, battles and campaigns during the course of the war in Europe.



Source 6.63 The extent of territories controlled by Axis and Allied forces, at the height of Axis power in mid-1942

Source 6.64 The war in Europe and Africa – key events and battles

September 1939– May 1945	British warships and German U-boats fight for control of Atlantic Ocean routes. Both sides attempt to prevent enemy merchant ships with war supplies from reaching their destinations.
September 1939– April 1940	There are no major land battles in the seven months after the declaration of war in 1939, a period known as the 'Phoney War'.
June 1940	Italy enters the war on Germany's side and captures territories in south-eastern France.
June 1940– November 1941	Italian forces attack and take control of British territories in Africa until counter-attacks allow Allied forces to regain control.
May–June 1940	Germany attacks and invades Denmark and Norway, the Low Countries (Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg), and France. In their invasion of France, the Germans' <i>Blitzkrieg</i> tactics forced France and its allies to evacuate troops from Dunkirk.
July 1940–May 1941	After invading France, Germany turns its attention to defeating Britain. Their plan is for the Luftwaffe (German air force) to destroy British planes and air fields, ahead of the German navy's invasion fleet. Instead, they face stiff resistance from the British and are forced to change tactics. The Germans start a bombing campaign, known as the Blitz. London and Britain's industrial cities suffer heavy and continuous bombing over nine months. By mid-1941, Germany focuses on their invasion of Russia, and the threat to Britain has passed.
September 1940– January 1941	Italy attempts to invade Egypt from its territories in neighbouring Libya. Allied troops, including Australians, vastly outnumber the Italians who are forced to withdraw back to Libya. The Allies also capture the Libyan port of Tobruk. Soldiers under the German General Rommel in turn force the Allies to retreat, but the Allies hold on to Tobruk.
October 1940– May 1941	Italian troops attempt to invade Greece but retreat from Greek and Allied defenders. Hitler orders ground and air assaults which succeed in forcing Allied troops, including Australians, to withdraw.
June–July 1941	Allied forces, including Australian troops, successfully invade Syria and Lebanon. These territories had been controlled by the pro-German Vichy French government and had been used by the Germans as a base in the eastern Mediterranean.
April 1941– June 1942	Rommel lays siege to Tobruk, to take back control of this strategically important port. Allied soldiers, including Australians, known as the 'Rats of Tobruk' hold on until November, when reinforcements arrive. Rommel eventually recaptures Tobruk in a counter-attack in June 1942.
June 1941	Hitler turns his attention to the Soviet Union and launches a massive attack known as Operation Barbarossa. Germany is now involved in a war on two fronts, on the western and the eastern fronts. Hitler asks for a plan to complete the 'Final Solution' – the destruction of the Jewish population of Europe, known as the Holocaust.
1942–1945	The Allies carry out major bombing campaigns on German air fields and industrial cities, including civilian populations in Hamburg, 1943, and Dresden, 1945 (see Source 6.66). They target Berlin in February 1945.
August 1942– February 1943	German forces advance into the Soviet Union, but Soviet troops succeed in their defence of Stalingrad. The German surrender at the Battle of Stalingrad marks the start of German retreat from the east, although Nazi forces still occupy a great area of the USSR (see Source 6.69).
July 1942	Allied and German forces fight each other to a standstill in the First Battle of El Alamein. Despite heavy losses, the Allies succeed in halting Germany's advance into Egypt and threatened control of the Suez Canal.
October– November 1942	The Second Battle of El Alamein ends in a decisive Allied victory. Rommel's army retreats and eventually withdraws from North Africa.
July–August 1943	The Battle of Kursk, a great tank battle between German and Soviet troops, ends in German defeat.
June–August 1944	The Allied invasion of western Europe begins on 6 June 1944, known as 'D-Day', with the landing of 160 000 Allied troops on the beaches of Normandy, northern France. Allied forces and resistance fighters attack the Germans and force them to retreat. France is liberated from their German invaders in August 1944.
September 1944	Allied ground troops invade Germany from the west.
April–May 1945	Soviet troops encircle Berlin and launch a final assault. They seize Berlin after a week of street fighting. Hitler commits suicide on 30 April 1945, and Germany officially surrenders on 7 May 1945.

EXTEND 6.10

- 1 The Allied bombing of Dresden has caused controversy since it occurred in February 1945. In 2005, a group of historians was commissioned to conduct research on the number of people killed. In 2010, they announced a total of up to 25 000, yet this figure is still disputed by some groups. Conduct research on the controversy over the bombing of Dresden and, as a class, discuss the Allies' motives and the impact of the bombing.



Source 6.65 German bombers during the Battle of Britain, 1940

APPLY 6.7

- 1 Explore Bomb Sight, a website with an interactive map showing locations across London where bombs fell during the Blitz. Find statistics for different areas, read the recollections of Londoners and view images from the Imperial War Museum. Use these sources of evidence to write a 300-word report or diary entry from the perspective of a person living in London during that period of history.



Source 6.66 The city of Dresden, in ruins after the Allied bombing



Source 6.67 Soldiers of the 11th Battery of Australian artillery in the Palestine Hills, February 1941



Source 6.68 Russian marines are landed from submarines onto enemy territory on the Eastern Front, July 1942



Source 6.69 A German Panzer (battle tank) in the snow during a Soviet attack against Axis forces in February 1943

APPLY 6.8

- 1 Describe the types of warfare, and the different conditions soldiers faced in the European and North African theatres of war. Reference different sources of evidence in your response, such as the images in this unit and other relevant material from the text and your own research.
- 2 On a blank map of the world, indicate the locations and dates of battles or campaigns involving Australian forces in Europe and North Africa. Use the information in the text and your own research to complete this activity.
- 3 Choose one of the battles or campaigns outlined in Source 6.64. Investigate and report on your selected event in detail, including maps and relevant written and photographic sources that describe:
 - the nature of the warfare
 - the course and result of the battle or campaign, including key individuals and events
 - why the battle or campaign was a significant event.

The war in the Pacific: December 1941–September 1945

Source 6.70 shows the territories in Asia and the Pacific that were under the control of the Japanese Empire, at the height of its power in July 1942. Source 6.71 outlines the major events, battles and campaigns during the course of the war in the Pacific.



Source 6.70 The extent of territories controlled by the Japanese Empire in Asia and the Pacific in 1942

APPLY 6.9

The Pacific War represented a direct threat to Australia. In a major research presentation:

- 1 Create a timeline of the war in the Pacific. Highlight the entries where Australians were involved.
- 2 Locate the areas of Australian involvement on a map.
- 3 Select one of the battles involving Australia, and research it in depth, explaining:
 - a what was at stake
 - b Australia's involvement
 - c the involvement of other nations
 - d the outcome
 - e the significance of the outcome.

Source 6.71 The war in the Pacific – key events and battles

December 1941	The Japanese attack the US naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, on 7 December 1941, hoping to destroy the USA's Pacific fleet. The USA declares war on Japan and Germany declares war on the USA, drawing it into the European war. Australia also declares war on Japan. Soon after the attack on Pearl Harbor, Japan also begins attacks on the Malay peninsula and invades Hong Kong, the Philippines, Guam and other islands in the Pacific.
February 1942	The Fall of Singapore to the Japanese follows battles in Malaya (now Malaysia) between the Japanese army and Allied forces. The vast majority of Allied soldiers cannot escape the island and are taken prisoner, including thousands of Australian soldiers. One third of them do not survive the Japanese prisoner of war (POW) camps.
February 1942–November 1943	Japanese air raids target Darwin and towns in the Northern Territory, Queensland and Western Australia. In May 1942, Japanese midget submarines carry out an attack in Sydney Harbour before being sunk.
March 1942	Japanese forces establish bases on mainland New Guinea, with plans to advance to Port Moresby – a location from which bombing raids could be launched against northern Australia. By this time, Japanese forces have also defeated Allied forces and occupied the Dutch East Indies (Indonesia).
May 1942	The Battle of the Coral Sea is fought off the north-east coast of Queensland and south of New Guinea. The US and Australian navies prevail, which stops the Japanese from launching a sea-based assault on Port Moresby.
June 1942	In the Battle of Midway, Japanese naval forces attempt to capture the strategically important Midway Islands (near the Hawaiian islands). US code-breakers intercept Japanese communications of an ambush, which leads to a historic victory by the US navy in which four Japanese aircraft carriers and over 200 aircraft are destroyed. It is said to be a turning point in the Pacific war.
July–November 1942	As the Japanese navy was halted at the Battle of the Coral Sea, Japan's only option to seize Port Moresby is an overland assault along the Kokoda Trail. Australian troops stall their advance until reinforcements arrive.
August–September 1942	Members of the AIF and CMF (Citizen Military Forces) hold off a Japanese attack at the Battle of Milne Bay, New Guinea. It is the first decisive defeat of Japan in the Pacific war, and the Australians are the first army to halt Japan's relentless drive through the Pacific.
August 1942–February 1943	The US and Allied forces, including support from the Royal Australian Navy, launch a surprise attack on the Japanese in the Solomon Islands, including the island of Guadalcanal. Both sides suffer severe casualties in the land, sea and air battles, but eventually Japan is forced to withdraw from the islands.
June 1943–1945	The US and Allied forces, including Australians, retake key islands from the Japanese. This strategy is known as 'island hopping'; the aim is to position US forces close enough to Japanese territory to launch bombing raids. In March and June 1945, US forces take the islands of Iwo Jima and Okinawa after major land battles. American planes bomb Tokyo and other Japanese cities in the hope of forcing a surrender. However, as US forces close in, the Japanese defence becomes stronger and more desperate, including suicide missions (kamikaze) of Japanese pilots who crash their planes into US ships.
August 1945	US planes drop atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki with devastating effect. The Japanese Emperor Hirohito broadcasts his surrender speech on Japanese radio on 15 August 1945.
September 1945	Japan signs a formal declaration of surrender on 2 September 1945.

REVIEW 6.11

- 1 Identify the two main geographic regions where World War II was fought.
- 2 List the regions mentioned in the text in which Australian troops fought during World War II.
- 3 Why was the Battle for Singapore important for Australia?
- 4 Explain why the Battle of the Coral Sea was significant for Australia.
- 5 What was the strategy of seizing key Japanese-held islands in the Pacific called?
- 6 What single event put an end to World War II?



Source 6.72 Australian soldiers on the Kokoda Trail in 1942



Source 6.73 The bombing of Darwin in February 1942



Source 6.74 US Torpedo Squadron 6 preparing to launch an attack against four Japanese carriers on the first day of the Battle of Midway. Ten of the 14 *Devastator* aircraft were lost during the attack.



Source 6.75 The mushroom cloud over Hiroshima on 6 August 1945

THE CHANGING NATURE OF WARFARE

As discussed earlier in this chapter, a range of new weapons and technologies – such as machine guns and artillery, poison gas, tanks and aircraft – were all used for the first time during World War I. Despite this, neither side had the upper hand because the weapons and tactics of the Allies and Germans were fairly evenly matched. This meant that war along a line of trenches that stretched across France and Belgium – known as the Western Front – was defensive and quickly reached a stalemate.

By contrast, many new weapons and military tactics were used by Germany for the first time during World War II. German forces introduced longer range tanks and aircraft, unveiled new methods of combat and pioneered new ways of encrypting messages. These improvements initially gave Germany a strong advantage over the Allied forces.

The Maginot Line

In the 1930s, the French government, having learned from the experiences on the Western Front in World War I, embarked on a plan to safeguard their border with Germany. They built a line of ‘super trenches’, known as the Maginot Line. Massive steel reinforced concrete bunkers were constructed to keep their soldiers safe, deep underground. Unlike the trenches of World War I, huge artillery posts and hundreds of machine guns would stand behind bulletproof metal plates, lines of barbed wire and tank traps – all designed to keep French troops safe.

The only problem was that the German generals also saw the effectiveness of the Maginot Line. When they invaded France, German forces came through the Ardennes, a thickly forested region in Belgium to the north of the Maginot Line – effectively bypassing it. The French had failed to realise that weapons in 1939 were no longer the same as they had been in 1914–1918 during World War I. Aircraft and tanks by that time were faster and more powerful, with much longer ranges. Regardless of how strong reinforcements along the Maginot Line were, there would be no repeat of the World War I stalemate because the weapons available in World War II now favoured the attacker.

Blitzkrieg – the Battle of France 1940

A military tactic known as **Blitzkrieg** (lightning war) was used for the first time by the Germans in their invasion of Poland in September 1939. It involved rapid and well-coordinated air and land attacks to surprise and overwhelm the enemy. After an initial assault from the air, slower-moving ground forces ‘mopped up’ the overwhelmed defenders and took control of their territory (see Source 6.77).

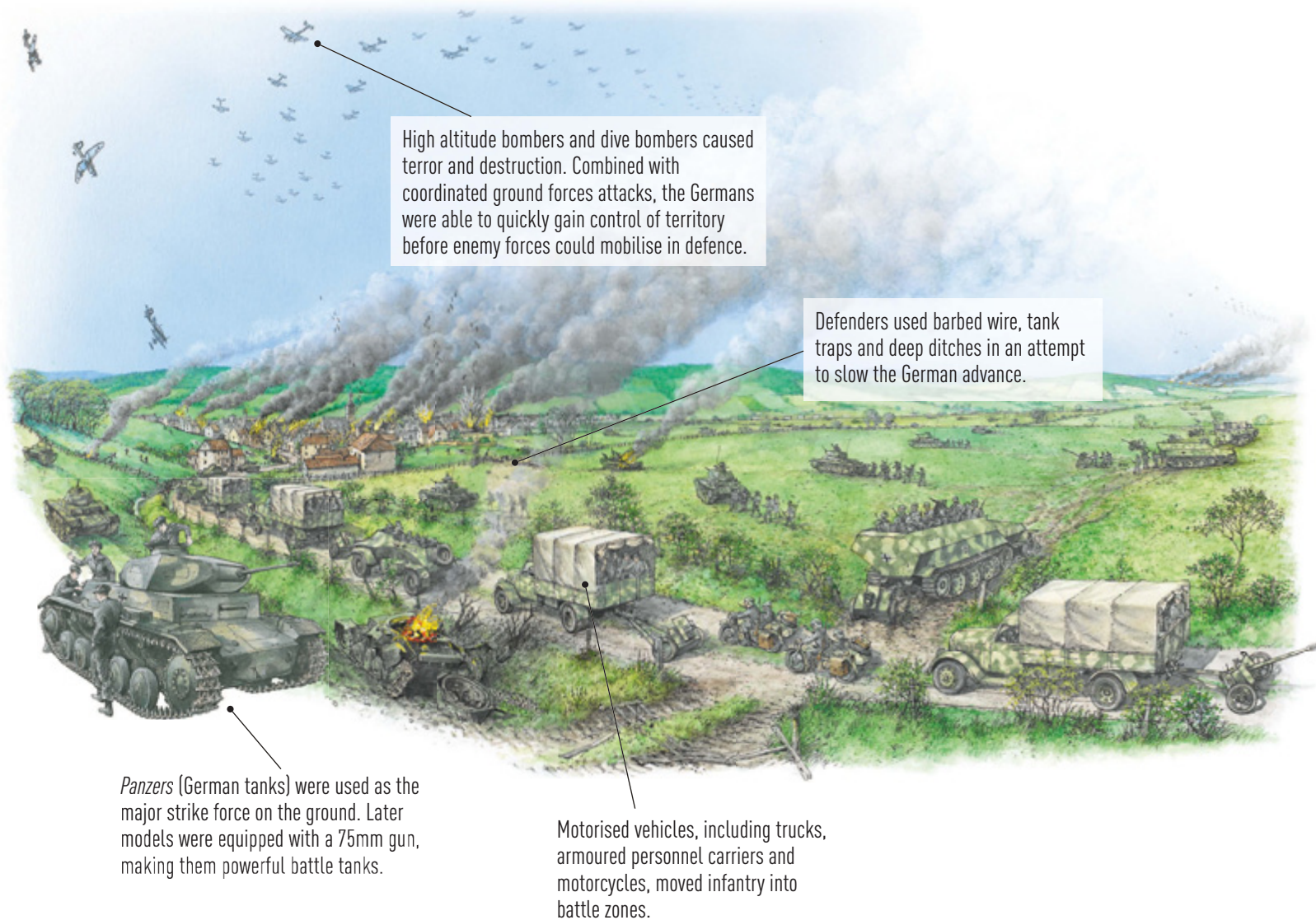
The Germans again used *Blitzkrieg* tactics in their May 1940 invasion of France, which resulted in the French surrender on 22 June 1940. Despite outnumbering the Germans, the Allied forces were unable to deal with the speed of these German attacks. The British government scrambled to evacuate 338 000 British and French troops from the port of Dunkirk in northern France.

The code breakers

In addition to using *Blitzkrieg* tactics, the Germans also used sophisticated new ways of sending secret messages during World War II. The most common machine used by the Germans to encrypt and decrypt messages sent between army headquarters and troops was the Enigma. For a long time, Allied powers could not break the Enigma code. Then, a team of British code-breakers (in particular Alan Turing) developed a machine called the bombe that could decipher (break) the code. It allowed the Allies to intercept German communications on the battlefield and change the outcomes of many battles. After the war, code breaking became an important part of spying during the Cold War.



Source 6.76 A German Enigma machine.



Source 6.77 An artist's impression of a *Blitzkrieg* assault on a French town

The changing nature of war – the Holocaust and the atomic bombings

Two significant events that also represented a radical change in the way World War II was fought compared with World War I: the Holocaust and the atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. These will be examined in detail in the units that follow.

REVIEW 6.12

- 1 Explain why the Maginot Line was not an effective defence for France in World War II.
- 2 What does *Blitzkrieg* mean? Which countries were the victims of German *Blitzkrieg* tactics in 1939 and 1940?
- 3 Explain why code breaking was significant:
 - a during World War II
 - b after World War II.

THE HOLOCAUST

The Holocaust was the systematic persecution and murder of Jews and other groups in Germany during World War II and throughout Nazi-occupied territories of Europe. It represented a radical change in the way wars were fought. Although **genocide** – the deliberate and systematic extermination of a religious, racial or ethnic group – had been practised before, the scale of Hitler's campaign against the Jews was unprecedented.

By the end of the war in 1945, more than half of all European Jews – six million people – had died under the command of Adolf Hitler. The word 'Holocaust' is of Greek origin and means 'sacrificed by fire' or 'burnt'. Today, out of respect, Jewish communities use the Hebrew word **Shoah** – meaning 'catastrophe' – to describe the event instead.

In addition to the persecution and murder of Jews, the Nazis targeted the Sinti and Romani people (often referred to as gypsies), who were seen by the Nazis as racially inferior. An estimated 500 000 gypsies were killed. Other victims of the Holocaust included homosexuals, people with physical or intellectual disabilities and people who challenged Nazi policies.

EXTEND 6.11

1 *Kristallnacht* ('night of the broken glass') is the term given to a series of attacks directed against Jewish people and businesses in Germany and Austria in November 1938. Conduct research on the events of *Kristallnacht* and discuss the German government's involvement in and response to these incidents.

Beginnings of the Holocaust

Anti-Semitism (hostility or prejudice against Jews) has its origins in the ancient world, and was widespread throughout Europe in the Middle Ages. At least a decade before he became Chancellor of Germany, Hitler had outlined the development of his anti-Semitic ideology, and even proposed some of his policies for dealing with 'the Jewish problem' in his manifesto (a book declaring political principles and policies) titled *Mein Kampf* ('My Struggle').

As well as violence against Jews, the government denied all Jews German citizenship and sought to remove them from all positions in the government, the universities and the army. Businesses owned by Jews were given to non-Jewish Germans and laws limited the number of Jewish students allowed in public schools.

Soon after the invasion of Poland in 1939, **ghettos** were set up in Nazi-occupied cities in Poland, Hungary and the Soviet Union. These ghettos were bricked off or encircled with barbed wire to stop people from escaping. Over the course of the war, many Jewish people were rounded up and forced to leave their homes and move into these ghettos. Conditions inside the ghettos were extremely brutal. Approximately 800 000 people died in the ghettos from malnutrition, disease and forced labour. Others were murdered outright in shootings.

Concentration camps

For a large part of World War II, the Nazi government used a network of **concentration camps** to contain Jews and other 'undesirables'. The exact number of concentration camps is not known. However, it is generally accepted that there were between 2000 and 8000 camps. Some were forced labour camps, where inmates were forced to do hard physical labour, such as mining and road building. Others functioned as extermination camps where, after a period of time, prisoners were murdered.

One of the largest concentration camps was Auschwitz-Birkenau. It was both a labour and an extermination camp. Here, inmates considered unsuitable for forced labour were gassed and their bodies were burnt in giant ovens known as crematoria (see Source 6.83). Over the course of World War II, more than one million Jews were murdered at Auschwitz-Birkenau camp alone.



Source 6.78 The Nazis used badges to identify different types of prisoners. These red triangle badges from Auschwitz-Birkenau were used to identify political prisoners.

Beginnings of the Holocaust

SOURCE STUDY



Source 6.79 Nazi soldiers clearing the Warsaw ghetto after an uprising in 1943



Source 6.80 A cloth Star of David badge that Jews were required to wear in public. The word *Jude* means 'Jew' in German.

INTERPRET 6.10

- 1 Outline the way these sources could be used as evidence to support an argument that the Nazis persecuted people.
- 2 Why do you think Nazis forced Jews to wear Star of David badges? What effect do you think this would have had on Jews as well as on non-Jews who saw the badges?

There is a considerable amount of evidence about the treatment of Jews during the Holocaust. The Nazis took many photographs in the ghettos, and at concentration and extermination camps. When the camps were liberated by the Allies in May 1945, many more photographs were taken and eye-witness accounts were recorded by soldiers who were shocked at what they found. Many Holocaust survivors later recorded their experiences and feelings.

Source 6.81

When people came to gas chamber, they had a soldier going around and said, 'Women here, men here. Undress. Take shower.' They told them, 'You're going to a camp. Going to work. Tie shoes together. And make sure your children tie their shoes together. Because when you come out, you don't so much spend time look for your shoes and your clothes.' All a lie. They were not thinking about it that they will be dead in another fifteen minutes.

Holocaust survivor Sigmund Boraks, in an interview in 2000



Source 6.82 Slave labourers interned at the Buchenwald concentration camp. Inmates averaged a weight of 75 kilograms each before entering camp (11 months before this photo was taken). The average weight by then had dropped to 31 kilograms.



Source 6.83 Crematoria where the remains of people killed at Buchenwald concentration camp were cremated (burned)

INTERPRET 6.11

- 1 Sources are used to provide evidence to support historical arguments. Explain the extent to which each of these sources could be used to support the argument that the Nazis engaged in the systematic mistreatment and murder of Jews in concentration camps during World War II.
- 2 A small but vocal group of people around the world today continue to deny the existence of the Holocaust. Use evidence from the sources provided to compose a letter to one or more of these Holocaust deniers, explaining why their views are historically inaccurate and unsupported by the body of evidence available.

Mass shootings and the 'Final Solution'

Nazi policy towards the Jews began to move into its most extreme phase after the invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941. Roughly 1.6 million eastern European Jews were executed in mass killing campaigns, mainly conducted by the *Einsatzgruppen* (mobile killing squads). In January 1942, Nazi officials identified a 'final solution to the Jewish question' which combined forced deportation and transportation of Jews to labour camps before extermination.

REVIEW 6.13

- 1 Define the word 'anti-Semitism'.
- 2 In your own words, define 'genocide'.
- 3 What was the Holocaust?
- 4 Name some of the groups who were victims of the Holocaust.
- 5 Explain what concentration camps were and why they were set up during World War II.

ATOMIC BOMBING OF HIROSHIMA AND NAGASAKI

New technology developed during World War II was highlighted by the emergence of the atomic bomb. The actual dropping of the atomic bombs was a significant event, not only because it immediately ended the war, but because it marked the dawn of the nuclear age.

The Manhattan Project

A US research program to develop an atomic bomb had been underway before the USA entered World War II. In 1942, the program was placed under the command of the American military, and became known as the Manhattan Project. By 1944, approximately 129 000 people were working on the Manhattan Project, including scientists, construction workers and military personnel.

An ultimatum to Japan

After the end of the war in Europe, the Allies turned their attention to forcing Japan's surrender in the Pacific. At the Potsdam Conference in July 1945 – a meeting held in the German city of Potsdam to negotiate terms for the end of World War II – the Allied leaders issued the Potsdam Declaration – an ultimatum threatening that if Japan did not unconditionally surrender it would face 'prompt and utter destruction'.

In addition to the ultimatum outlined in the Potsdam Declaration, US troops had been planning an offensive codenamed 'Operation Downfall' towards the end of the war. The offensive outlined the US Army's plan to recapture Pacific islands that had been taken by the Japanese, then push back towards Japanese home islands (the islands the Allies had decided would remain as Japanese territory after the war). The battles for the islands of Iwo Jima and Okinawa were particularly fierce. The Battle of Okinawa was the bloodiest battle in the Pacific, with 50 000 American soldiers injured and 12 000 killed. An estimated 95 000 Japanese soldiers were killed, including many who committed suicide rather than surrendering. Estimates of the number of civilians killed vary from 42 000 to 150 000.

The USA also carried out a major firebombing campaign of Japanese cities in late 1944, which devastated 67 cities and killed as many as 500 000 Japanese civilians. Firebombing was a technique introduced during World War II that involved dropping large quantities of small bombs specifically designed to start fires on the ground. Despite this, Japan rejected the terms of the Potsdam Declaration and the Japanese military refused to surrender. US President Truman authorised the atomic bombing of Hiroshima on 6 August 1945, and Nagasaki on 9 August 1945. Truman stated that his hope was that these bombings would ultimately save lives on both sides.

The bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki

Hiroshima was a large, urban, industrial city that also served as a military storage area and assembly point for troops. At 8:15 a.m. on Monday, 6 August 1945, an atomic bomb nicknamed 'Little Boy' was dropped on Hiroshima. The city's residents had been given no warning of the atomic bombing and the bomb's immediate impact was incredible. Approximately 80 000 people, or 30 per cent of Hiroshima's population, were killed, and another 70 000 were injured. Roughly 69 per cent of the city's buildings were completely destroyed.

The Japanese government still did not respond to the Potsdam Declaration. On 9 August, a second atomic bomb nicknamed 'Fat Man' was dropped on the port city of Nagasaki. The bomb's impact in Nagasaki was just as devastating, killing between 40 000 and 75 000 people immediately and injuring a further 74 000 people.

Debate about the bombings

Immediately after World War II ended, most Americans supported the use of the atomic bombs to force Japan to surrender. Since then, however, there have been fierce debates over whether the atomic bombings were justified or necessary to win the war.

Some argue that the bombings saved millions of lives by preventing the need for an invasion of the Japanese Home Islands. Other supporters of the decision to use the atomic bombs say that Japan's 'never surrender' culture meant that, without the bombings, Japan would not have surrendered. Some critics of the bombings argue that the surprise bombing of civilians with atomic weapons was fundamentally and morally wrong.

SOURCE STUDY

The atomic bombing of Hiroshima

Source 6.84

Of more than 200 doctors in Hiroshima before the attack, over 90 per cent were casualties and only about 30 physicians were able to perform their normal duties a month after the raid. Out of 1780 nurses, 1654 were killed or injured ... [Hospitals] within 3000 feet of ground zero were totally destroyed ... Effective medical help had to be sent in from the outside, and arrived only after a considerable delay. Firefighting and rescue units were equally stripped of men and equipment ... 30 hours elapsed before any organized rescue parties were observed.

Extract from US Strategic Bombing Survey: The Effects of the Atomic Bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki



Source 6.85 A severely burned teenage Hiroshima atomic bomb victim lays wounded



Source 6.86 The Genbaku Dome in Hiroshima after the bombing

INTERPRET 6.12

- 1 Outline the way Sources 6.85 and 6.86 support or contradict the information contained in Source 6.84.
- 2 Explain how Sources 6.85 and 6.86 help you understand the reactions of the Americans who dropped the bombs and of the Japanese who were the victims.
- 3 How does Source 6.84 help you understand:
 - a the devastating impact of atomic bombs?
 - b the reasons why casualty rates were so high?

EXTEND 6.12

- 1 Conduct research on the short- and long-term physical effects of the atomic bombs on the people of Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

REVIEW 6.14

- 1 What was the Manhattan Project?
- 2 Explain the implications of Japan's rejection of the Potsdam Declaration.
- 3 Which battle is recognised as the bloodiest of the Pacific War?
- 4 Explain why the United States dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

AUSTRALIA'S ENTRY INTO WORLD WAR II

STRANGE BUT TRUE

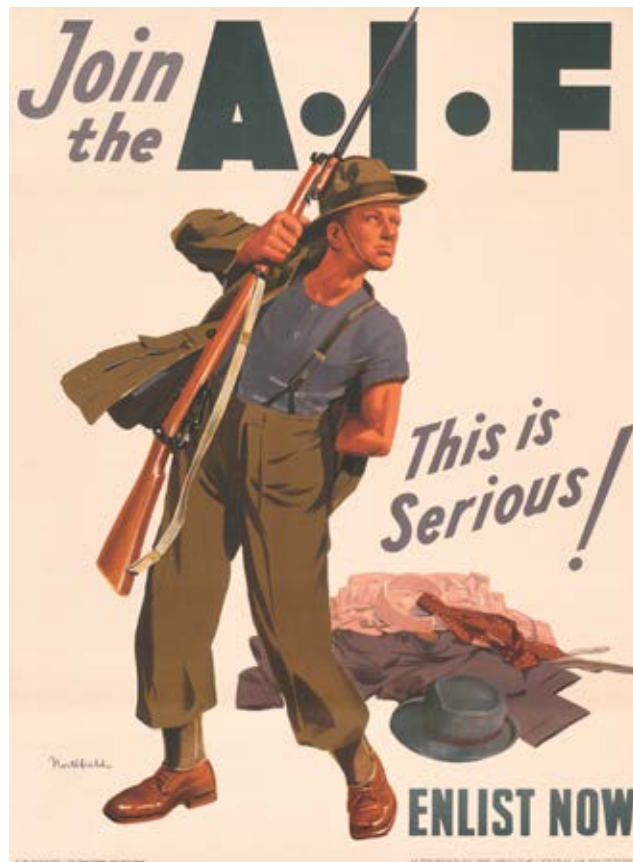
Members of the CMF were given the derogatory nickname 'Chocos' (short for 'chocolate soldiers' because it was thought that these militia would 'melt' in the heat of battle). Despite this assumption, CMF members performed admirably under the difficult conditions in the Kokoda and Milne Bay campaigns in New Guinea.

When World War II began, it was not greeted by Australians with the same level of enthusiasm as they had shown in 1915. Because of this public reaction, then Prime Minister Robert Menzies was initially reluctant to commit Australian troops to fight in Europe, despite Australia's declaration of war. Australia's military was in a depleted state, and Menzies wanted to ensure that Australia could defend itself if the need arose.

The first Australian Imperial Force (AIF) had been disbanded after World War I. In 1939, the Australian army consisted of only around 3000 professional soldiers and a voluntary **militia** called the Citizen Military Force (CMF) which could only serve in defence of Australia. These units were mainly equipped with weapons brought home from World War I by the first AIF.

Despite his doubts, Menzies authorised the creation of a second AIF in September 1939. The Australian government had promised 20 000 soldiers for the British war effort, but initially struggled to fulfil this commitment. Soldiers in the AIF were paid less than those in the CMF. In fact, AIF wages were even lower than the dole. For this and many other reasons, most members of the CMF were reluctant to transfer to the AIF. The Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF) was more attractive to many Australians, because it seemed more exciting and offered higher wages. It took three months to fill the 6th Division of the AIF, a contrast to the three weeks it took to raise 20 000 men at the start of World War I.

The Fall of France in 1940 changed Australia's perception of the war. Recruitment rates surged and three new divisions of the AIF were formed. After the Fall of Singapore, when Australia felt directly under threat for the first time, Australia's perception of the war again changed. The whole population mobilised to support the war effort. Women were encouraged to enter the workforce, industry was regulated, and coastal defences were extended and reinforced.



Source 6.87 A recruitment poster for the second AIF produced between 1939 and 1942 [AWM ARTV06723]

Australia's declarations of war

SOURCE STUDY

Source 6.88

Fellow Australians,
It is my melancholy duty to inform you officially, that in consequence of a persistence by Germany in her invasion of Poland, Great Britain has declared war upon her and that, as a result, Australia is also at war. No harder task can fall to the lot of a democratic leader than to make such an announcement.

Excerpt from a speech made by Prime Minister Robert Menzies, 3 September 1939, in a radio broadcast to the nation only a few hours after Britain declared war on Germany



Source 6.90 Soldiers of the Second AIF leaving Australia to serve in the war, January 1940. Their helmets show their enlistment numbers and the cases on their chests hold their gas masks. [AWM 011141].

Source 6.89

Men and women of Australia, we are at war with Japan. That has happened because, in the first instance, Japanese naval and air forces launched an unprovoked attack on British and United States territory; because our vital interests are imperiled and because the rights of free people in the whole Pacific are assailed. As a result, the Australian Government this afternoon took the necessary steps which will mean that a state of war exists between Australia and Japan. Tomorrow, in common with the United Kingdom, the United States of America and the Netherlands East Indies governments, the Australian Government will formally and solemnly declare the state of War it has striven so sincerely and strenuously to avoid.

Excerpt from an address to the nation by Prime Minister John Curtin, in a radio broadcast, 8 December 1941

INTERPRET 6.13

- 1 Explain the differences between the two declarations of war by Australian Prime Ministers during World War II.
- 2 What justification for war does Menzies give in Source 6.88?
- 3 What justification for war does Curtin give in Source 6.89?
- 4 How could you use these sources in a historical investigation of whether Australia needed to be involved in World War II?

REVIEW 6.15

- 1 How many soldiers did Australia have available for overseas service when war was declared in 1939?
- 2 How many soldiers did Menzies initially promise Britain?
- 3 What was the CMF?
- 4 What nickname was given those serving in the CMF? Why?
- 5 Which two events changed Australians' perception about the seriousness of the war?

EXPERIENCES OF AUSTRALIANS AT WAR – PRISONERS OF WAR

Prisoners of war in Europe

Australian service personnel were captured by the enemy in all the major areas of war. Roughly 8184 Australians were held as **prisoners of war (POWs)** in German and Italian camps. Of these, 269 died. These men had largely been captured in Greece and North Africa, while many members of the RAAF had been shot down in bombing raids over Germany and captured.

Most Australian POWs in Europe were imprisoned in specific POW camps in decent conditions. Nine Australians were, however, among a group of 168 Allied pilots shot down over France and imprisoned in the Buchenwald concentration camp.

Prisoners of the Japanese

The majority of Australian POWs were captured by the Japanese. Over 22 000 Australian service personnel were captured by Japanese forces in South-East Asia between January and March 1942. The majority of POWs were army personnel captured at the Fall of Singapore, with 15 000 captured in Malaya and Singapore alone. By 1945, over 8000 POWs had died. The significantly higher rate of deaths among POWs captured by the Japanese can be attributed to Japan's attitude towards prisoners.

Japanese military culture, shaped by traditional values, meant that the Japanese regarded prisoners poorly. Japan refused to follow the terms of the **Geneva Convention**, an international agreement on the treatment of captured civilians and military personnel.

Changi, in Singapore, was the main prison camp holding the Allied POWs. From here, Japanese commanders sent working parties to other locations where POWs were used as forced labourers, most notably on the Burma–Thailand railway. Along with British, Dutch and American prisoners, 13 000 Australian POWs were used as forced labour to build a railway line from Thailand to Burma to supply the Japanese campaign. About 2800 Australians died from malnutrition, mistreatment and disease.

APPLY 6.10

- 1 Compare the statistics for Australian prisoners of war captured by the Germans and Italians with those captured by the Japanese. Calculate the percentage of deaths of Australian prisoners in each group.

SOURCE STUDY

Treatment of prisoners

Source 6.91

After capture I was taken to Changi Camp, where I was with approximately 12 000 men, employed ... clearing the bombed area, also well sinking. Work was from 6 to 6, food was half a cup of cooked rice per man per day ...

From Changi was I marched with 500 men to Duckatinor Hills. Here we were employed clearing after bombing runs, building roads and hill levelling. Food supplies were as at Changi.

Whilst working at the river camp I witnessed a ... guard (known as the Black Snake) bash Gnr Jack Francis with a heavy stick many times and finally brutally kicked him in the stomach and about the head. Francis died a few days later.

I was severely beaten by the Black Snake with a heavy bamboo ... He knocked me down several times, then kicked me. I vomited frequently following the bashing ... was unfit to work and generally was much knocked about. I was finally ... operated upon by Col. Dunlop for a damaged bladder and internal injury.

Extract from an affidavit (sworn statement) by former Gnr Reginald Melbourne to the Australian War Crimes Registry



Source 6.92 An illustration by Murray Griffin, a prisoner at Changi. It depicts a scene witnessed by Colonel Dillon, of the bashing of British and Australian prisoners of war by Japanese on the Burma-Thailand railway construction. Griffin sought to make records of events and conditions based on the testimony of surviving POWs.



Source 6.93 This photograph shows two Australian prisoners of war outside one of the huts at Changi, Singapore, just after being liberated in 1945.

INTERPRET 6.14

- 1 Read the caption for Source 6.93. Explain how it helps you understand why this is a valid source for the study of the conditions Australian prisoners of war endured under Japanese control.
- 2 Discuss whether Source 6.92 supports your impressions of conditions for Australian prisoners of war under the Japanese.
- 3 Identify the details in Source 6.91 that show you that it was a first-hand account by someone who was there.
- 4 Outline the value sources such as photographs and first person accounts have in helping you understand the experiences of Australian prisoners of war captured by the Japanese.

EXTEND 6.13

- 1 Source 6.91 mentions an operation performed by Colonel Dunlop. This is a reference to Edward 'Weary' Dunlop. Conduct research on his life and career, and explain his significance in Australian history.

REVIEW 6.16

- 1 Explain the major differences between conditions in European and Japanese prisoner of war camps for Australians.
- 2 What was the *Geneva Convention*? Which country refused to follow it?
- 3 Describe the conditions Australian prisoners of war had to endure in Japanese camps.

EXPERIENCES OF AUSTRALIANS AT WAR – THE KOKODA TRAIL

The Kokoda Trail is an approximately 96-kilometre narrow path connecting Port Moresby to the village of Kokoda in Papua New Guinea (see Source 6.95). In 1942, the Japanese navy had been frustrated in its attempts to seize Port Moresby from the sea, so the Japanese army was forced to launch an overland assault on the town via the Kokoda Trail. If Japan had successfully seized Port Moresby, it could have used the town as a base for attacks on northern and eastern Australia. Australia's Prime Minister John Curtin recalled the AIF to defend Australia, but it took time for these troops to be transported to Papua New Guinea. This meant the Kokoda campaign was initially fought by under-equipped militia units, known as the 'Maroubra Force'. This force was composed entirely of CMF and local Papuan infantry units. As a result, it was underprepared for frontline combat. The soldiers had received little training in jungle warfare, and were equipped with old, outdated weapons. Many of these young men had only recently turned 18. The key events of the Kokoda campaign are outlined in Source 6.94.

Source 6.94 The Kokoda campaign 1942 – key events and battles

23 July	A small Australian platoon slows the Japanese advance across the Kumusi River, before falling back to Kokoda.
29 July	The Japanese attack Kokoda, defended by 80 men who suffer heavy casualties in hand-to-hand fighting. On the next morning, they retreat along the trail.
8 August	Australians suffer heavy casualties attempting to retake Kokoda. There is a two-week break in the fighting, when survivors from the defence of Kokoda meet with reserves from Port Moresby and prepare to defend the trail at Isurava.
26–31 August	The Battle of Isurava is a victory for Japanese forces with the Maroubra Force outnumbered and suffering heavy casualties on the first day. The battle lasts four days, before the Australians are forced to retreat further, mounting small-scale actions along the way. However, the Japanese do not succeed in their aim of destroying the Australian force. The first substantial reinforcements from the AIF begin to arrive, providing a vital boost for the depleted Maroubra Force.
September	Australians retreat after actions at Efogi (also known as Mission Ridge–Brigade Hill) and Ioribaiwa Ridge. During September, after being defeated by the Allies at Guadalcanal, Japanese commanders in Tokyo decide to withdraw their Kokoda campaign. Japanese forces retreat to Templeton's crossing.
October	The Australians defeat the Japanese in a series of attacks at Templeton's Crossing, Eora region.
2 November	Australians retake Kokoda.



Source 6.95 The Kokoda Trail

The significance of Kokoda

The Kokoda campaign is arguably the most significant military campaign in Australia's history. Although it is generally accepted that Japan did not plan to invade mainland Australia during World War II, this was a real fear at the time. Given the limited information available to them, the soldiers of Maroubra Force believed they were fighting the 'battle to save Australia'. Had the militia units of Maroubra Force not held up the Japanese advance until the AIF arrived with reinforcements, the war in the Pacific would have continued for much longer, and cost even more lives. The campaign is made even more incredible by the conditions in which it was fought.

Conditions on the Kokoda Trail

SOURCE STUDY



Source 6.96 A wounded soldier being carried to safety



Source 6.97 Australians plod along the trail

Source 6.98

You are trying to survive, shirt torn, arse out of your pants, whiskers a mile long, hungry and a continuous line of stretchers with wounded carried by 'Fuzzy-Wuzzies' doing a marvellous job. Some days you carry your boots because there's no skin on your feet

Private Laurie Howson, 39th Battalion, diary entry

INTERPRET 6.15

- 1 Explain what these sources reveal about conditions for soldiers along the Kokoda Trail.
- 2 'Fuzzy-Wuzzies' are shown in Source 6.96 and mentioned in Source 6.98. Compare both sources to infer what the term 'Fuzzy-Wuzzies' refers to.

The legacy of Kokoda

Approximately 625 Australians were killed fighting along the trail, while at least 16 000 were wounded and more than 4000 suffered from serious illnesses such as malaria. In the immediate aftermath of the campaign, members of Maroubra Force were hailed as 'the men who saved Australia'. The campaign also had an immediate impact on the organisation of both the American and Australian armies. The Australian troops on the trail had been poorly supplied because of the unreliability of air drops. Both the Australian and American militaries developed new techniques for dropping supplies after their experiences at Kokoda.

REVIEW 6.17

- 1 Where was the Kokoda Trail?
- 2 What was 'Maroubra Force'? What did it achieve?
- 3 Explain why the Kokoda campaign is such a significant moment in Australian history.

EXPERIENCES OF AUSTRALIANS AT WAR – WOMEN AND INDIGENOUS AUSTRALIANS

Women in the Australian armed forces

At the start of World War II, Australian women were encouraged to take the sorts of roles that they had held during World War I. They were not required in the services but were expected to knit and sew, pack parcels, raise money, encourage enlistment and maintain the home.

This changed as the war came closer to Australia. From late 1940, women were not only permitted to join the services, they were encouraged to do so. Many served as nurses in one of the branches of the armed forces. The majority joined auxiliary services, where they were trained in many of the home-front tasks, so that servicemen could be freed up to join the fighting overseas. These services included the Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force (WAAAF), the Australian Women's Army Service (AWAS) and the Women's Royal Australian Naval Service (WRANS). Over 66 000 women served in these women's services during the war, which represented around 7 per cent of the entire force.

Most commonly, women's roles in the armed services were clerical. However, some were involved in traditional men's roles, as signallers, truck and ambulance drivers, intelligence officers, wireless telegraphers or aircraft ground staff. Women were still not permitted to take on combat roles or serve outside Australia. The exception to this was nurses, who served in most areas where Australian troops were sent. A contingent of AWAS was also posted to New Guinea near the end of the war.

Many women joined the Women's Land Army, a civilian organisation, where they replaced male farm workers who had left to serve in the armed forces.



Source 6.99 Recruitment poster to attract women into the services during World War II (AWM ARTV01049).

EXTEND 6.14

- 1 Conduct research to identify the number of women in permanent full-time roles in the Australian Defence Force now, and the percentage of the entire force that this represents. How does this compare with the number of Australian women who served during World War II?

SOURCE STUDY

Roles of Australian women in the armed services



Source 6.100 Members of an Australian Women's Army Service anti-aircraft gun crew (AWM 136831)



Source 6.101 Signallers of the Australian Women's Army Service (AWM 137466)



INTERPRET 6.16

- 1 What evidence do Sources 6.100–6.102 provide about the roles that Australian women took on during World War II?

Source 6.102 Members of the Australian Women's Army Service checking equipment for an Australian army tank (AWM 137615)

Indigenous Australians in the Australian armed forces

At the start of the war, the AIF officially only accepted Aborigines who were of 'substantially European descent' while the RAAF accepted Aborigines from the outset. Due to the early shortage of recruits, many recruiters may have simply accepted Aboriginal volunteers into the AIF despite official restrictions. After the bombing of Darwin, the restrictions on Aborigines joining the AIF were relaxed.

It is estimated that around 3000 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander soldiers served in the Australian armed forces. However, it is impossible to know precisely, as the number who enlisted under another nationality was probably much higher than official figures. A small number of Torres Strait Islanders were also recruited into the United States army.

Other Indigenous Australians were also employed by the army in a variety of roles. They worked on farms and in butcheries, built roads and airfields, and were construction workers, truck drivers and general labourers. They also filled more specialised roles, such as salvaging downed aircraft and organising munitions stockpiles. Many Aboriginal women were also involved in these roles, as well as joining organisations such as the Australian Women's Army Service.



Source 6.103 Aboriginal soldiers on parade in 1940 (AWM P02140.004)

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Northern Territory Special Reconnaissance Unit were 51 Aboriginal and five white Australians who patrolled the northern Australian coast. In the event of a Japanese invasion, they were to conduct a guerrilla campaign using traditional Aboriginal weapons. The Aborigines were not formally enlisted in the army, and received goods such as tobacco rather than monetary pay. In 1992, they were finally awarded back-pay and medals.

REVIEW 6.18

- 1 Why did the role of women in the armed services change from World War I to World War II?
- 2 How did women's roles differ between World War I and World War II?
- 3 Among women who joined the armed forces during World War II, which group were permitted to serve outside Australia?
- 4 What was the Australian government's purpose in forming the women's auxiliary services?
- 5 Why is it difficult for historians to estimate the number of Indigenous Australians who enlisted in the armed forces during World War II?
- 6 When and why were restrictions against Aborigines enlisting in the AIF relaxed?

6.3

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE CAUSES, SCOPE AND NATURE OF WORLD WAR II?

» Outline the main causes of World War II

- 1 Explain why the Treaty of Versailles is often regarded as a cause of World War II. Do you agree? Explain why or why not. (10 marks)
- 2 Who became 'supreme' leader of Germany in the 1930s? Outline the ways he used the Treaty of Versailles and the Allied policy of appeasement to achieve his own aims. (5 marks)
- 3 Outline what historians consider to be the main causes of World War II. (10 marks)
- 4 Outline arguments for and against Germany being held responsible for the outbreak of World War II. (15 marks)

» Explain why Australians enlisted to fight

- 5 Explain why Australians didn't embrace the outbreak of World War II as enthusiastically as World War I. What evidence can you use to support your explanation? (10 marks)
- 6 Explain how and why public support for involvement in World War II changed. (10 marks)

» Locate and sequence the places where Australians fought

- 7 Identify the two major theatres of war in World War II, and give examples of specific battles that took place in each of them. (10 marks)
- 8 Label a blank world map to identify the major sites where Australians fought in World War II. (10 marks)
- 9 List the major battles Australians were involved in during World War II. Place these battles on a timeline in correct chronological order. (10 marks)

» Outline and sequence the changing scope and nature of warfare from trenches in World War I to the Holocaust and the use of the atomic bomb to end World War II

- 10 Look at the map below. Explain how the Maginot Line provides evidence that France was preparing for a war that was similar to World War I. (5 marks)



- 11 Outline the types of weapons the Germans used to make their tactic of *Blitzkrieg* effective. (5 marks)
- 12 Outline how the use of coded messages by both sides during the war led to advances in technology. (5 marks)
- 13 Outline the ways in which the Holocaust is evidence of a change in the nature of warfare from World War I to World War II. (10 marks)
- 14 Briefly outline the development of the atomic bomb. (10 marks)
- 15 Explain why the atomic bombs ended World War II. (5 marks)
- 16 Use a timeline to summarise how the scope and nature of warfare changed from World War I to the end of World War II. (10 marks)

» Investigate the significant experiences of Australians in World War II

- 17 Outline the major differences between the experiences of Australians held as prisoners of war in Europe and in the Pacific war. (5 marks)
- 18 Describe the treatment Australians received as prisoners of war under the Japanese, and support your response with specific examples. (10 marks)
- 19 Explain why the Kokoda Trail is significant in Australian history. (15 marks)
- 20 Describe the role of women in Australia's armed services during World War II, including where they served and the main types of jobs that they were involved in. (15 marks)
- 21 How were Aborigines restricted from joining the armed services during World War II, and how did many get around this restriction? (5 marks)
- 22 What roles did Indigenous men and women have in the armed forces during World War II? (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/200]

RICH TASKS

Understanding the Holocaust

There are a large number of sites available to increase your understanding of the Holocaust and its legacy. Select one of these sites for a virtual site study and outline:

- 1 any additional information you were able to learn about the Holocaust
- 2 how the site helps you understand the legacy of the Holocaust.

Using weapons of mass destruction – the atomic bomb

The atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki sparked a debate about both the necessity and morality of using a weapon capable of causing so much destruction. This task asks you to investigate the debate and draw your own conclusions based on research.

- 1 Start by finding websites that provide arguments for and against dropping the bombs. Once you have made up your own mind, you may like to cast your own vote on a site such as www.debate.org.
- 2 Conduct research on the arguments for both sides of the debate. Create a summary of the main arguments and the evidence used to support them. Exclude any arguments that are based only on opinion and fail to produce evidence (one example is the press release outlining President Truman's justification). A good starting point outlining the argument against the bombings can be found at the website of Roger Hollander.
- 3 Consider the emotional impact of sources such as those shown in Sources 6.85 and 6.86. Discuss whether the impact of the bombs is a necessary part of the debate about whether they should have been dropped.
- 4 Explain your own position. Do you think the dropping of atomic bombs was justified? Outline the evidence you are using to support your argument.
- 5 Come together as a class and discuss your opinions and evidence.
- 6 Conduct a poll to discover what the overall opinion of the class is.

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

6.4

SECTION

DETAILED STUDY: WHAT WERE THE ORIGINS, NATURE AND IMPACT OF THE HOLOCAUST?

The Holocaust was one of the most dramatic and tragic events of World War II. Millions of innocent people suffered greatly and died at the hands of Germany's Nazi government, under the leadership of Adolf Hitler. This section explores the origins, nature and impacts of the Holocaust and provides additional content and activities that extend on the information relating to the Holocaust provided in Section 6.3. This detailed study is not a compulsory component of Depth Study 3 'Australians at War: World Wars I and II' but can be used to help students understand and appreciate the scale and significance of the Holocaust. Additionally, it can be used as part of a school-developed topic on the Holocaust in Depth Study 6.

WHY STUDY THE HOLOCAUST?



Source 6.104 The conical-shaped Hall of Names in the Holocaust History Museum in the Yad Vashem Holocaust complex in Israel. The Hall of Names shows around 600 portraits of Jewish Holocaust victims.

In the previous unit, we learned that the Holocaust was the consequence of the Nazi Party's 'Final Solution' – a systematic plan to exterminate all Jews in Europe. Although Jews were not the only victims of the Nazi Party's racial policies, they were a prime target of Nazi hatred and violence. Hostility towards the Jews was central to Nazi ideology and was also the main theme of Hitler's manifesto *Mein Kampf* ('My Struggle').

A study of the Holocaust is important because it is a time in world history that needs to be remembered. Remembering significant events such as this is one of the only ways we have of making sure they do not happen again in the future.

It is also important to study the Holocaust because many important historical and legal developments took place in response to it. For example, military trials set up in the German city of Nuremberg by Allied forces at the end of the war – known as the Nuremberg war crimes trials – tried and convicted many top Nazi leaders with crimes against humanity. As a direct result of the Holocaust and the Nuremberg trials, the International Criminal Court was established and the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights came into existence. In addition, the events of the Holocaust ultimately led to the creation of the state of Israel in 1948.

REVIEW 6.19

- 1 In your own words, explain what is meant by the term 'Final Solution'.
- 2 Why is it so important for events such as the Holocaust to be remembered?
- 3 Describe some of the important historical and legal developments that came about as a result of the Holocaust.

ORIGINS OF THE HOLOCAUST

The Holocaust was the result of both action and inaction. Ideologies built on the hatred, racism and prejudice of Adolf Hitler and brought into law by the Nazi Party led to active persecution of Jews across Germany. Along with communists, socialists, Gypsies (Roma), homosexuals and other 'undesirable' groups, Jews became the focus of Nazi policies and control. The activities and policies of Hitler and the Nazi Party, however, were allowed to continue because of the inaction on the part of others – both in Germany and elsewhere. Source 6.105 is a well-known quote from German church leader Martin Niemöller, one of the many people who stood by and did nothing to support the Jews being persecuted by the Nazis. In the end, he himself was imprisoned in a Nazi prison camp.

Source 6.105

First they came for the communists,
and I didn't speak out because I wasn't a communist.

Then they came for the socialists,
and I didn't speak out because I wasn't a socialist.

Then they came for the trade unionists,
and I didn't speak out because I wasn't a trade unionist.

Then they came for the Jews,
and I didn't speak out because I wasn't a Jew.

Then they came for me,
and there was no one left to speak for me.

Martin Niemöller

As previously noted, hostility towards the Jews (known as **anti-Semitism**) had its origins in the ancient world and was common throughout Europe in the Middle Ages. However, the persecution and murder of Jews across Nazi Germany, and the territories it occupied, took place on a much larger scale and in a much more systematic way than ever before. Government policies set aside funds for the identification, isolation and extermination of Jews, and laws were passed to ensure that these policies were carried out.

Persecution of Jews in Nazi Germany in the 1930s

The Holocaust started with Nazi persecution of Jews in Germany after Hitler came to power in 1933. In 1935, the Nazis passed the Nuremberg Laws, which officially discriminated against Jews. These laws prohibited Jews from marrying non-Jews and denied them German citizenship, protection under the law, access to education, and positions in government, universities and the army. Under the same laws, businesses owned by Jews were disrupted by Nazi storm troopers (see Source 6.106) or were simply confiscated and handed over to non-Jewish Germans.

By November 1938, this persecution intensified with the infamous series of coordinated attacks by Nazi Party members on synagogues and Jewish businesses across Germany. This became known as *Kristallnacht* ('Crystal Night' or 'Night of broken glass'). While these attacks took place, the police stood by and did nothing. On that night, according to British historian Martin Gilbert, many Jews were beaten and some were murdered; at least 1000 synagogues were burned; and Jewish shops and business were wrecked and looted. All of this was widely reported throughout Germany and in other countries. Despite the well-documented instances of murder, arson and robbery, none of the Nazis responsible were charged for their actions against Jews. Instead, the police blamed the victims.

Persecution of Jews in German-occupied territories

What began as an attack on German Jews turned into the attempted systematic and calculated mass murder of Jews across Europe, which progressively came under Nazi rule as Germany expanded its territory across much of the continent from 1939. From November 1939, all Jews in Poland and other German-controlled territories in Europe were ordered to wear a yellow star to identify themselves, just as Jews in Germany had been made to do (see Source 6.80). In the same year, Jewish inhabitants of major towns and cities began to be herded into ghettos, which were fenced off to contain and isolate Jews from the rest of society.

As we saw in the previous unit, ghettos were set up in Nazi-occupied cities in Poland, Hungary and the Soviet Union soon after the start of the war. In these 'prisons without a roof', many people died from disease or malnutrition, while others were shot.

SOURCE STUDY

Origins of the Holocaust



Source 6.106 Nazi storm troopers outside a Jewish business, directing people to shop elsewhere, 1933



Source 6.107 Pedestrians glance at the broken windows of a Jewish-owned shop in Berlin after the attacks of *Kristallnacht*, November 1938



Source 6.108 Members of a family wear Stars of David to indicate that they are Jews. Scenes such as this were common in Germany after *Kristallnacht*.

INTERPRET 6.17

- 1 Explain how these sources provide evidence of a systematic policy of persecution against Jews brought about by the Nazi Party.
- 2 Is there any evidence to suggest that these photos may have been staged or set up by the Nazis? If so, what may they have stood to gain by doing so?

REVIEW 6.20

- 1 What was the purpose of Jewish ghettos in Nazi Germany?
- 2 Explain what made the Holocaust different from earlier anti-Jewish hostility in Europe.
- 3 Identify the steps that were taken to persecute Jews in Germany and in German-occupied territories before the outbreak of World War II.
- 4 What was *Kristallnacht*? How did the authorities react to these attacks?

THE NATURE OF THE HOLOCAUST

Much of the knowledge we have about the Holocaust comes from the testimony and stories of survivors, as well as from Nazi records and photographs. At the Nuremberg war crimes trials held after the war, Nazi leaders were found guilty of crimes against humanity and mass murder. In fact, they were convicted on the basis of their own well-kept and meticulous records.

Forced-labour camps

The Nazi government used **concentration camps** to contain Jews and other ‘undesirables’. Some were forced-labour camps, where inmates were compelled to do hard physical work, such as mining and road building, under harsh conditions. Many camps, such as Buchenwald and Bergen-Belsen, were places where inmates were simply worked to death (see Source 6.82). With a heavy work load and starvation rations, many of these people fell victim to malnutrition and disease. As soon as they were unable to work, they were left to die or were put to death.

Extermination camps

In addition to forced labour camps, the Nazis set up camps for the sole purpose of killing people and disposing of their bodies. These camps were known as extermination (or death) camps. One of the largest extermination camps was called Auschwitz-Birkenau. This camp was actually made up of a series of smaller camps and served as both a labour camp and an extermination camp.

When inmates first arrived at Auschwitz-Birkenau, they were subjected to a thorough screening process. Those with work skills, or those who looked strong and able-bodied, went to one side. They would go to the labour part of the camp. Those who were unfit, too young or too old were sent immediately to the gas chambers. These were built to look like showers, so as not to cause an immediate panic or encourage resistance.

Over one million Jews were murdered at Auschwitz alone. There were so many bodies that burial would have been inefficient. With so many decaying corpses, there was also a risk that they might contaminate the water table and pollute the water supply. Cremation in giant, specially designed ovens was therefore the Nazis’ preferred method of disposing of the bodies (see Source 6.83).

After people had been killed, the Nazi’s put the by-products of death to use. Gold fillings were taken from the teeth of the corpses, melted down and sent to the Reich Treasury. In some cases, the hair was removed from bodies to be used for stuffing mattresses. There is also at least one reliable documented account of fat from cremated bodies being used to make soap.



Source 6.109 Jewish women and children, some wearing the yellow Star of David patch on their chests, at Auschwitz-Birkenau concentration camp in Poland

Evidence from Auschwitz–Birkenau



Source 6.110 Mug shots show boys imprisoned at the Auschwitz–Birkenau concentration camp, Poland. The boys wear striped uniforms, like criminals.



Source 6.111 Jews taken to the death camps were told they were being re-housed. They packed their most important possessions, which were confiscated on arrival.



Source 6.112 Eyeglasses confiscated from prisoners at Auschwitz extermination camp. The glasses were recycled and issued to members of the German army.

INTERPRET 6.18

Look at Sources 6.110 to 6.112.

- 1 How do these sources explain the attitudes of the Nazis towards Jews?
- 2 How can pictures such as these serve to convince people of the extent to which Jews were persecuted by the Nazis during World War II?

EXTEND 6.15

- 1 Conduct research on the activities of the *Einsatzgruppen*. What evidence is there of their activities?

Mass shootings of Jews in Eastern Europe

When Hitler attacked the Soviet Union in 1941, Nazi persecution of Jews intensified. When the German army swept across Soviet-occupied Poland and into the Soviet Union itself, the army was followed by groups of *Einsatzgruppen* (specialised killing squads). The *Einsatzgruppen*, which operated under the leadership of the *Schutzstaffel* (better known as the SS), numbered about 3000 men in total, with orders to kill all Jews remaining behind German army lines. Hitler's elite forces, the *Schutzstaffel*, along with members of the *Wehrmacht* (German armed forces) also participated in this extermination. The process generally involved rounding up the members of a local Jewish community and executing them in an area close to their homes. On 29–30 September 1941 at Babi Yar, near the city of Kiev, 33 771 Jews were executed. This phase of the Holocaust was the most public, and rumours of executions began to spread across the occupied territories and within Germany itself.

Death toll of the Holocaust

Historians generally agree that around three million Jews were killed in Nazi concentration and extermination camps across Europe during World War II. In addition it is generally accepted that another three million died in violent or oppressive circumstances outside the camps. All six million deaths were a result of Nazi extermination policies. Many other non-Jewish inmates were murdered or died of maltreatment, disease and starvation.

APPLY 6.11

- 1 Statistics for deaths in war can be controversial. Add the figures for the Jewish death toll during World War II in Source 6.114. Conduct research to compare that figure to that given by at least three other sources. How close are they? What does this research tell you about the reliability of wartime statistics?
- 2 What reasons might there be for these inconsistencies?

Contested history – the Holocaust deniers

As you have seen, there is a significant body of evidence about different aspects of the Holocaust, including sworn testimony of Nazi officials provided during the Nuremberg trials. Despite this evidence, a small but vocal group of people (known as Holocaust deniers) maintain that many of the claims made about the Holocaust are exaggerated or false.

British writer David Irving is perhaps the most well-known Holocaust denier. Despite the fact that he has published a number of books on this aspect of German history, and claims to be an authority, his credibility about the Holocaust has been challenged by many, including American historian Deborah Lipstadt. A court found that Irving repeatedly used only parts of sources, and handpicked isolated pieces of information that supported his hypothesis. This aspect of Holocaust denial is discussed further in the 'Perspectives and interpretations' section of 'The historian's toolkit'.

REVIEW 6.21

- 1 Explain the difference between a forced-labour camp and an extermination camp.
- 2 Describe the role of the *Einsatzgruppen* in the Soviet Union and Poland in 1941.
- 3 What figure is generally accepted as the death toll of European Jews during the Holocaust?



Source 6.113 Polish prisoners dig graves for their fellow prisoners after a mass execution by the Nazis, 1941



Source 6.114 The Jewish death toll in Europe, 1939–45

THE IMPACT OF THE HOLOCAUST

Any historical event as momentous as the Holocaust had to have significant and ongoing impacts on societies around the world. In terms of impact, the Holocaust:

- resulted in the Nuremberg war crimes trials
- contributed to the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- influenced the creation of the state of Israel
- has become one of those contested areas of history because a small number of Holocaust deniers have attempted to deny the truth about the real horrors of the Holocaust.



Source 6.115 Defendants in the dock at the Palace of Justice, during proceedings against leading Nazi figures for war crimes at the International Military Tribunal, Nuremberg, Germany, 1945. They include (in the front row, left to right): Hermann Göring, Rudolf Hess, Joachim von Ribbentrop and Wilhelm Keitel.

The Nuremberg war crimes trials 1945–49

Because of the enormous scale and brutality of the Holocaust, by the time the war ended in 1945, international pressure on the Allied forces to punish those responsible was mounting. To ensure that those guilty of crimes against humanity and of waging wars of aggression be brought to justice, a series of military trials were set up in the German city of Nuremberg. At these trials, a new legal definition was introduced – **genocide** – in order to clearly describe the deliberate and systematic extermination of a race of people.

The Nuremberg trials established and re-defined many principles of international law. The Nuremberg principles included the following:

- It is not a defence to say 'I was only following orders'. Each individual is responsible for his or her own actions and moral decisions.
- Murder, extermination, enslavement, deportation and other inhumane acts done against any civilian population are a crime against humanity.

The other important difference between the trials at Nuremberg and the way in which other wars had concluded was that the winners did not summarily punish their defeated enemies. The Nazi leaders were given a public trial and the chance to put forward a defence, like any other people charged with a crime.

United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948

In December 1948, the **United Nations** agreed to a Universal Charter of Human Rights. The 30 articles of the charter were prompted by various aspects of World War II, among them the massive abuse of human rights by the Nazis in their treatment of the Jews. The spirit of the charter was summed up by the first line of Article 1: 'All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights'.

The creation of the state of Israel, 1948

At the end of the war in 1945, hundreds of thousands of survivors of the Nazi concentration camps were moved into temporary refugee camps. By 1946, 250 000 Jews still remained as displaced persons in Europe. With their homes destroyed and family members gone, many had nowhere safe to resettle. A solution to this situation needed to be found. With great international support, Jewish survivors of the Holocaust argued that for humanitarian reasons Jewish refugees from Europe should be allowed to enter Palestine (a region in the Middle East that had been controlled by the British since 1920).

The idea of a separate Jewish homeland and state was particularly popular in the United States at this time. Since the 17th century, Jews had settled in the USA. By the end of the war in 1945, well-established Jewish communities and business groups across the USA lobbied their government for the right to a separate Jewish state in Palestine. In 1946, an Anglo-American Committee of Inquiry recommended that 100 000 Jews be allowed into Palestine. The recommendation was supported by the American president, Harry Truman, but rejected by Ernest Bevin, the British foreign secretary. Arabs continued to oppose increased Jewish immigration to Palestine, arguing that as they had not been responsible for the recent persecution of the Jews, they should not bear the brunt of Jewish resettlement.

Jewish refugee ships

Despite numerous disagreements between governments around the world, ships filled with European Jews seeking a new life continued to arrive off the coast of Palestine. Many were unseaworthy and were overloaded with illegal immigrants from Europe. The most famous of these ships was the *SS Exodus*, which was transporting 4550 survivors of the Nazi death camps when it was intercepted, rammed and boarded by the British Royal Navy (see Source 6.117). At the port of Haifa, the passengers were forced to disembark and were immediately placed on board ships returning to Europe. When the passengers refused to disembark in France, the British government sent them back to Lubeck, Germany. From there, they returned in locked trains to the old Nazi concentration camps. Public opinion around the world condemned Britain for these actions. Despite this setback, approximately 40 000 Jews entered Palestine illegally between August 1945 and May 1948.

The UN partition plan

During this time, the actions of a number of Jewish resistance groups (formed in order to fight for a separate Jewish homeland) meant that around 100 000 British troops had to remain in Palestine to ensure British control. This situation was very unpopular with the British public, given that the war was over and people expected their troops to return home.

In February 1947, Britain decided to return their troops home and hand control of Palestine to the United Nations. A UN special committee recommended that Palestine be partitioned into a Jewish state and an Arab state, with Jerusalem administered as an international zone (see Source 6.116). Of the 26 000 square kilometres of Palestine, the Arabs retained 44 per cent, although they had 67 per cent of the population.

Arabs across the Middle East objected to the UN plan for partition. The Jews accepted the plan but argued that Jerusalem should be part of the new Jewish state. The Partition Plan gave the Jews 56 per cent of the land area of Palestine, although they constituted only 33 per cent of the population. The United Nations voted on the Partition Plan on 29 November 1947. Thirty-three nations supported the plan, including the USA, France, Australia and the Soviet Union. Thirteen nations opposed the plan, including Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Yemen, Egypt and India. Ten countries abstained from taking part in the vote, including Britain. The Jewish people had obtained a national homeland.

Despite the decision, much uncertainty remained. Questions remained about who would oversee the creation of the two new states. Britain made it clear that its command of the area would come to an end on 15 May 1948, and that no authority would be handed over before that date. The USA was unwilling to involve itself in the transition, leaving Jews and Arabs to enter into a period of armed conflicts that eventually led to the first Arab–Israeli war.

On 14 May 1948, David Ben-Gurion, Executive Head of the World Zionist Organization and a passionate advocate of an independent Jewish state in Palestine, proclaimed the establishment of the state of Israel. Ben-Gurion would go on to become known as ‘Israel’s founding father’ and hold the office of Prime Minister from 1948–1954.

SOURCE STUDY

The creation of Israel



Source 6.116 The UN Partition Plan



Source 6.117 This photo taken at Haifa port on July 18, 1947 shows the crowded upper deck of the illegal immigration ship *SS Exodus*. The image shows Jewish refugees from war-torn Europe before being forced onto a British navy ship and transported back to Europe.

INTERPRET 6.19

- 1 Explain how these sources contribute to your understanding of the situation in the Middle East today.
- 2 Examine Source 6.116. What potential difficulties can you see in implementing this division of Palestine?
- 3 Outline the ways in which sources such as 6.117 could have influenced public attitudes towards Jewish refugees and the creation of Israel after the war.

REVIEW 6.22

- 1 List three short-term and three long-term impacts of the Holocaust.
- 2 Explain the implications of the Nuremberg war crimes trials.
- 3 Why was the state of Israel created?
- 4 Explain the significance of the *SS Exodus* and the experiences of the passengers on board.
- 5 What, in your view, lessons can be learned as a result of the Holocaust?

DETAILED STUDY: WHAT WERE THE ORIGINS, NATURE AND IMPACT OF THE HOLOCAUST?

- 1 Explain why the Holocaust is an important topic to study. (10 marks)
- 2 To what extent does Martin Niemöller's quote (Source 6.105) explain why the Holocaust was able to take place? (10 marks)
- 3 Identify one historical source in this section that clearly shows Jews being persecuted by Nazis in Germany in the 1930s. Write a detailed description of the kinds of evidence it provides. (10 marks)
- 4 Describe the role played by forced-labour camps and extermination camps in World War II. (10 marks)
- 5 Discuss whether you believe the impacts of the Holocaust had been dealt with by the end of 1948. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Investigating the claims of Holocaust deniers

Examine the evidence and make your own historical judgement about the claims of Holocaust deniers.

- 1 Source 6.118 shows an aerial photograph of the Birkenau part of the vast Auschwitz–Birkenau concentration camp, taken by the US Air Force late in the war. The area at the top left of the photograph shows the remains of the crematorium. David Irving – arguably the most well-known Holocaust denier – denies this was a crematorium, instead claiming that these are the remains of air raid shelters for camp guards. Irving's view is disputed by many, including historian Robert Jan van Pelt. These people point out that soldiers' barracks are located about five kilometres away (seen



Source 6.118 An aerial view of Auschwitz-Birkenau taken on 31 May 1944

- at the bottom right of the photograph). As a class, discuss whether the distance between the crematorium/air raid bunkers and barracks supports Irving's or van Pelt's view.
- 2 Conduct research, examining evidence closely and impartially, to investigate Irving's claims that although people did die in Nazi concentration camps:
 - deaths were the result of diseases and shortages that were the normal results of war
 - heating fuel supplies delivered to Auschwitz were far too small to keep the cremation ovens going.Identify the evidence that supports the conclusion that you come to.
 - 3 As a class, discuss the validity of Holocaust denial. Given the evidence that is available, why would people continue to deny the existence of the Holocaust?

6.4

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

6.5

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE IMPACTS OF WORLD WAR II ON AUSTRALIA?

In 1939, the Australian government once again mobilised for war. The whole population supported the war effort – particularly after the Fall of Singapore in 1942 when, for the first time, Australia felt directly under threat. This section explores wartime controls on the home front during World War II.

THE IMPACT OF WORLD WAR II ON AUSTRALIA

APPLY 6.12

- 1 Compare the figures given here with those given for World War I (see Source 6.46). List the conclusions you feel you can draw from the comparison.

During World War II, almost a million Australians served in the armed services. Roughly half this number served in Europe, North Africa, the Middle East and the Pacific. The bombing of Pearl Harbor in 1941 and the Fall of Singapore in 1942 brought about an escalation of Australia's wartime involvement and an increase in the number of soldiers sent overseas.

Source 6.119 A summary of the numbers who served, along with numbers of prisoners of war, deaths and casualties during World War II

Numbers involved	
Total population	7 million
Australians who served in the armed forces	993 000
Australians who served overseas	550 000
Killed in action	27 073
Wounded	23 477
Prisoners of war	30 560 (8296 died in captivity)

Source: National Australian Archives

Conscription

In World War II, **conscription** into Australia's armed forces was revived to create a militia for home service only. In 1942, the issue of conscription for service overseas arose under Prime Minister John Curtin. Although there was debate among the members of his Labor party, a form of conscription for overseas service was introduced in 1943 with a majority vote in the party. The area in which conscripts could serve was extended to islands held by the Japanese south of the equator. There was little opposition in the Australian community. Because of the real threat of Japanese invasion, the issue of conscription was much less divisive than it had been during World War I.

Wartime controls

One of the first steps taken by the Australian government in September 1939 was the passing of the *National Security Act*. This Act introduced laws that gave the federal government greater powers to respond to the threat of war. It allowed newspapers and the media to be censored, and legalised the detention of so-called 'enemy aliens' – for example,

Germans and Japanese people living in Australia. It also banned groups that opposed the war, such as the Communist Party of Australia and Jehovah's Witnesses.

Censorship

During the war years, the Australian government believed that strict censorship was necessary to maintain national security and boost public morale. The Department of Information censored mail and monitored phone calls to ensure that military information relating to troop movements and locations was not communicated to the enemy.

All forms of media, such as newspapers and radio broadcasts, were subject to controls that limited what they could report. For example, when Japanese forces bombed Darwin in 1942, the extent of damage, the scale of the attack and the loss of life were downplayed in newspapers and on radio. Similarly, when Australian and US soldiers brawled in the so-called 'Battle of Brisbane' on 26 November 1942, the death of one Australian and the injury to others was censored because the event was seen as threatening American–Australian relations.

Wartime propaganda

Closely related to censorship was propaganda. Throughout the war, newspapers, radio, posters and other forms of mass communication (such as the short newsreels shown before feature films in cinemas) encouraged people to think and act in particular ways. This was viewed as a technique for maintaining morale. The way in which the bombing of Darwin and the 'Battle of Brisbane' were reported might be described as propaganda as the news was reported in such a way as to slant popular opinion in a particular direction. Posters encouraged people to enlist in the armed forces, or reminded them that their everyday efforts were an important part of war. Some posters used prejudicial stereotypes of the Germans or Japanese to ensure that Australians remained supportive of the war (see Sources 6.121 and 6.122).



Source 6.120 Mail being censored by Department of Information staff during World War II (AWM 139316)

EXTEND 6.16

- 1 As a class, discuss the effect the Internet would have had on propaganda and censorship in Australia during World War II if it had been around then. Do you think censorship on this level would have been possible?

SOURCE STUDY

Australian government propaganda posters



Source 6.121 (AWM TEP 393543)



Source 6.122 (AWM ARTV04332)

INTERPRET 6.20

- 1 Examine Sources 6.121 and 6.122 (see also Source 6.124). These sources are all examples of posters used by the Australian government to encourage support for the war effort.
 - a What sorts of images, words and techniques are common to all three sources? Which techniques (if any) are particular to each of them?
 - b How effective do you think posters such as these would have been during World War II?
 - c Do you think one of these sources could have been more successful than the others? Give reasons for your response.

Internment of enemy 'aliens'

As in World War I, the Australian government again took steps against people living in Australia who were believed to threaten national security. Initially, this involved the internment of Germans and Italians living in Australia who were thought to be pro-Nazi or pro-fascist. When war with Japan began, all Japanese who lived in Australia were also interned. Approximately 7000 'enemy aliens', many of whom had lived peacefully and innocently in Australia for decades, were interned in various locations around Australia.

EXTEND 6.17

- 1 Use the National Archives to conduct research on a specific internment camp in Australia during World War II. Find out where the internees were from, and their experiences while living in that particular camp.

Impact of World War II on Australian women

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Under The Directorate of Manpower regulations, women could be deployed in occupations that suited their skills. For example, a woman trained as a florist could be compelled to work in a factory because of her skills with wire; or a dancer could be sent to work on a farm because she was agile and physically fit.

New types of work possibilities opened up for women during World War II. Before the war, Australian women were not permitted to serve in the military, and most working women were employed in factories, shops or in family businesses. Women were expected to resign from their employment once they had children.

With so many servicemen deployed overseas, the role of women in Australia changed to meet the needs of the armed forces and the war economy. As we saw in Section 6.3 under 'Women in the Australian armed forces', from the late 1940s women were encouraged to enlist in the women's auxiliary services. Even if women did not enlist in the auxiliary forces, it was argued that increasing women's employment would allow more men to enter military service. Women were employed in a variety of new roles, such as truck and taxi-drivers and tram conductors (see Source 6.123).

As the war progressed, Australian women worked increasingly in war industries, such as manufacturing munitions and military equipment. They were paid roughly two-thirds of men's pay rates.

It is important to note that, while there was only an increase of about 5 per cent of women involved in the workforce between 1939 and 1945, what was significant was the types of work they were beginning to perform.

As the war continued, and more men were conscripted, the Women's Land Army was set up, and its 3000 members were sent out to farms and orchards to keep food production going. Volunteer groups such as the Australian Women's National League continued to take on the more traditional tasks for the war effort, such as knitting socks for the troops, preparing Red Cross food parcels, and raising money for soldiers' families.



Source 6.123 A photo taken in 1944 shows a woman employed in the work force as a taxi driver for Yellow Cabs (AWM 045099).

At the end of the war there was a general expectation that women would return to domestic duties in the home and that the returned soldiers would be welcomed back into the workforce. This is mostly what happened, but there were some women, especially single women, who remained in their jobs. It is often argued that women were forced out of the workforce and back to a dull domestic existence at the end of the war. There is some truth in this, but there is also evidence that many women wanted to return to their traditional roles.



Source 6.124 An Australian government poster during World War II encouraging women to enter the workforce (AWM ARTV01064)

APPLY 6.13

- 1 Conduct research on an aspect of government control over life during World War II. Possible topics include: rationing, blackouts, recycling, censorship, evacuation drills and conscription. In an explanation text of 250 words, analyse the impact that this aspect of government control had on daily life.
- 2 Create a World War II recruitment poster designed to boost the number of men enlisting in the Australian armed forces. Consider the types of techniques, both visual and verbal, that were used during World War II, such as:
 - the use of racial stereotypes to tap into the fears about foreign invaders held by many Australians
 - the use of national symbols (such as the Australian flag) to arouse feelings of pride and nationalism
 - the use of techniques to generate positive and negative emotions in Australians, such as references to family pride, honour or cowardice.
 - a Complete your poster by hand or on computer, making sure to include one or more of these techniques.
 - b Explain which of the techniques used in your poster were more or less successful.
 - c Explain why it is unacceptable to use racist stereotypes in modern Australian society.
 - d As a class, vote to decide on the poster that is the most successful in achieving its goal.

REVIEW 6.23

- 1 Why was conscription introduced in Australia in World War II?
- 2 List the ways in which the government controlled and monitored daily life in Australia during World War II.
- 3 List some of the roles women had to take on during World War II.

6.5

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE IMPACTS OF WORLD WAR II ON AUSTRALIA?

» Outline the types of controls that were introduced on the home front by the Australian government

- 1 Identify some of the additional powers and wartime controls introduced by the Australian government during World War II following the passage of the *National Security Act 1939*, in response to the threat of war. (10 marks)
- 2 How did conscription in Australia during World War II differ from conscription during World War I? Explain the differences. (5 marks)
- 3 In your notebook, copy and complete the following table to show how the Australian government controlled public information during World War II. Do you believe it is accurate to describe this type of control as a form of propaganda? (10 marks)

Incident	Government reaction	What the public wasn't told.
The Bombing of Darwin		
The 'Battle of Brisbane'		

- 4 In your notebook, rule up a page with the heading 'The changing roles of women', and create three lists: Pre-World War II, World War II and Post-World War II. Add examples to each list that will help explain the way World War II contributed to changing roles for women in Australia. (15 marks)
- 5 What were 'enemy aliens'? Outline the way Australia dealt with 'enemy aliens' during World War II. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Women and World War II – exploring continuity and change

- 1 Sources 6.125 to 6.128 are covers taken from the women's magazine *The Australian Women's Weekly*.
 - a Examine the covers in chronological order and note the aspects of life they are displaying.
 - b Comment on what these primary sources tell you about the impact of World War II on the social expectations of women in Australia.
 - c What limitations are there in drawing historical conclusions based *only* on these sources?
 - d Using these sources, along with others from your own research, argue whether the changes in women's lives during the 1940s in Australia reflect continuity and/or change.
 - e Did life for Australian women change in the 1940s as a result of World War II? As a class, discuss your conclusions.



Source 6.125 Cover A (26 September 1942)



Source 6.126 Cover B (3 November 1945)



Source 6.127 Cover C (10 February 1940)



Source 6.128 Cover D (13 May 1950)

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

6.6

SECTION

WHAT WAS THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE WARS TO AUSTRALIA?

In this section, we investigate the impact of World War I and World War II on Australia's returned soldiers and civilians, and look at the changing relationship between Australia and other countries after World War II.

IMPACT OF THE WARS ON RETURNED SOLDIERS AND CIVILIANS

After World War I

At the end of World War I, around a quarter of a million Australian servicemen were returned home. This process is known as **repatriation**. The returned soldiers, known as **diggers**, had been away from home for up to four years, and many were injured, sick or had suffered psychologically. To add to the difficulties, in 1919, ships carrying returning soldiers were quarantined when they arrived in Australia to prevent the spread of Spanish Influenza. This flu became a global pandemic that ravaged populations around the world, with estimates of 20 million to 30 million deaths worldwide.

Ex-soldiers were also returning to a changed society. Women had taken on roles that were traditionally men's, and technological advances during the war meant there were fewer jobs for unskilled labourers. Initially, most diggers found employment, but the difficult economic conditions of the 1920s saw the unemployment rate in Australia increase to over 5 per cent during the decade.

At first, patriotic funds raised money to help diggers with their immediate financial needs. However, it became clear this was inadequate for the number of diggers who needed assistance to adjust back into peacetime life. In 1917, the government set up the Repatriation Department which provided health care, compensation, housing, and job training, and looked after the families of servicemen who had been killed.

SOURCE STUDY

Impact of World War I on civilians and returning soldiers

Source 6.129

In the Legislative Council yesterday, the Colonial Secretary ... stated that it was a fact that police constables were being employed to interview and make enquiries from returned soldiers in receipt of pensions as to their occupations and circumstances. This was being done at the request of the Registrar of Pensions. The Minister added that he was not aware that this procedure was having a detrimental effect on recruiting.

Extract from *The West Australian*, 8 March 1917, p. 7

Source 6.130 Repatriation assistance given to World War I ex-servicemen and their families by the late 1930s, 20 years after the end of the war. The cost of this was just under one-fifth of all Commonwealth expenditure.

- 257 000 Australians being assisted by a war pension
- 3600 receiving service pensions
- 1600 men still in hostels and homes for the permanently incapacitated
- 23 000 outpatients in repatriations hospitals each year
- 20 000 children had received educational assistance
- 21 000 homes built
- 4000 artificial limbs fitted
- 133 000 jobs found for returned servicemen
- 28 000 had undergone training courses
- 40 000 placed on the land

Extract from Stephen Garton, *The Cost of War: Australians Return*, Oxford University Press, New York, 1996, pp. 83–84

Source 6.131

Some [employers] respected their wartime promises about returned heroes ... But the requirements of business usually came first, and employers were loath [reluctant] to demote or replace men and women who had proved to be good workers during the war.

Extract from Alistair Thomson, *ANZAC Memories*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, 1994, p. 114

Source 6.132

[H]idden in homes all over Australia were men who had gone to World War I and who were never the same again. For most the disabilities were physical, but there were plenty who were by turn remote or morose or who shouted all the time. For the worst affected, family life became punctuated by sudden rages, drinking bouts and black depressions, but even for the most stable, there was always a shadow

Extract from Janet McCalman, *Journeys*, Melbourne University Press, 1993, pp. 80–81



Source 6.133 Returned soldiers in a post-World War I repatriation program, undertaking training in a pipe-making factory [AWM P00158.035]

INTERPRET 6.21

- 1 After reading Sources 6.129 to 6.132, how likely do you think it would have been for World War I veterans to re-enlist for service in World War II?
- 2 Closely examine Source 6.133. Outline the difficulties the returned soldier shown would have had adjusting to peacetime life and working in factories such as the one shown.
- 3 Explain how Source 6.129 provides evidence for the argument that support for war veterans was not automatically granted.
- 4 How do these sources support or challenge the suggestion that readjusting to civilian life was difficult for many soldiers after World War I?

After World War II

At the end of World War II, the Australian armed services had 224 000 personnel serving across the Pacific and about 20 000 in Britain and other places. Their repatriation took a frustratingly long time for many servicemen, with pressures on the limited number of ships available to take servicemen home. By December 1945, 76 000 personnel had returned to Australia by sea. Demobilisation (releasing servicemen and women from the armed services) was also a massive undertaking, which was not completed until February 1947. After World War II, the government gave free passage to wives and children of servicemen who married while serving overseas. Between 1944 and 1949, 110 'bride ships' made 177 journeys to Australia.



Source 6.134 A returned serviceman from the Royal Australian Navy is reunited with his British bride in Australia (AWM 080984)

Around twice as many servicemen and women had served overseas as they did in World War I. There were roughly half as many deaths compared to World War I, and much lower numbers wounded. However, unlike World War I, over 20 000 returning servicemen had been prisoners of war.

The Australian government supported World War II veterans with medical care, war gratuities and pensions, war service home loans, training and education grants, and assistance with finding employment.

As in the period after World War I, returning soldiers came home to a society where women had expanded their roles and responsibilities during the war. As explored in Section 6.5, 'Impact of World War II on Australian women', some women happily returned to their traditional roles, while some women retained their jobs. There is also evidence that some women were pressured to resign in favour of men who had families to support.

Perspectives of returned POWs after World War II

SOURCE STUDY

Source 6.135

A few days ago my brother came home. Home, after three and a half years as a prisoner of war in Malaya. I had pictured a dramatic meeting; but all he said was 'how are you?' It sounds casual, conventional; but what is there to say at such a moment? I recall what Tom had said to me a little earlier, 'You never heard a man sing or laugh on the Thailand railway turnout. It was a ghost town.'

Extract from *Australian Women's Weekly*, 27 October 1945, p. 10

Source 6.136

The former Japanese prisoner J T Haig found the family circle difficult to fit into; his mother had died while he was away, and he hankered restlessly after the company of his own kind, his fellow ex-prisoners. One of those prisoners ... returned with badly impaired vision and to a wife who felt she no longer loved him: she had become withdrawn from him after hearing nothing in three years, except that he was almost certainly dead. Their marital problem was finally overcome, but the damage to his sight was permanent.

A summary of interviews of World War II veterans from *We Were There*, John Barrett, Viking, Melbourne, 1987, pp. 379–387

INTERPRET 6.22

- 1 Use the evidence from this chapter, including Sources 6.135 and 6.136, to write a paragraph about the difficulties former prisoners of war would have faced after returning to civilian life. What difficulties would their families have faced? How do these sources help you to understand their difficulties?

Indigenous Australians

It is estimated that 1000 Indigenous Australians enlisted during World War I and 3000 in World War II, where they fought together with non-Indigenous Australians without the racism they experienced in Australia. On their return, however, they came back to a segregated society, where they were not permitted to enter a public bar, own property or vote. One ex-soldier, Tommy Lyons who had served at Tobruk in 1917, said on his return, 'In the army you had your mates and you were treated as equal, but back here you were treated like dogs.'

APPLY 6.14

- 1 Explain the different perspectives of the returned soldier looking for a job to support his family and the woman who was forced to resign to give him a job. Which perspective do you think would have been most accepted in Australia in the late 1940s? Do you think this attitude has changed today?
- 2 Conduct research into the treatment of Indigenous returned soldiers in the community and by the government after World War II. Compare this to the treatment of non-Indigenous servicemen after the war.

REVIEW 6.24

- 1 List the potential problems faced by veterans returning from both wars.
- 2 Explain why the government had to set up a Repatriation Department in 1917. Explain what its role was.
- 3 What were 'bride ships'? Explain why they were necessary.

AUSTRALIA AFTER WORLD WAR II

Australia's changing relationships with Britain and the USA

World War II changed the way Australians viewed their place in the world and fundamentally altered Australia's relationship with Britain. Stretched in its goals to defend itself and fight Germany and Italy in Europe and North Africa, Britain could only send limited resources to Asia. The fall of Singapore forced Australia to realise that Britain would always look after its own interests before those of its former colonies.

To address this changing situation, Australia now focused on a strategic relationship with the USA. Prime Minister John Curtin moved Australian troops from the Middle East, against the advice of the British government, and placed Australian forces under the control of the broader US military campaign in the Pacific. American General Douglas MacArthur would also establish his base for the south-west Pacific campaign in Australia.

The USA emerged from the war as a global superpower, and in the post-war years Australia continued to link its interests, its security and its future to the USA. This relationship with the USA was an important step in establishing an independent Australia and continues to have an important bearing on Australian foreign policy decisions.



Source 6.137 US sailors and soldiers on their arrival in Australia quickly made friends wherever they went, and were received with hospitality.

Social and economic changes

One million American service personnel came to Australia during the war, and their presence had a significant cultural impact. For some Australian women, these men would become boyfriends or husbands. The influence of American cinema, language and culture made its first major inroads into Australia during this period. Australians had mixed feelings about this cultural 'invasion'. On one level, many feared the loss of Australian culture and traditions. On the other hand, for many younger Australians there was a fascination with American music, dress and slang.

As in the period after World War I, wartime industries encouraged the growth of manufacturing and services after World War II. For the first time in the nation's history, farming ceased to be the major area of economic activity. Food processing and canning, the expansion of steel production, and the manufacture of consumer goods such as washing machines, refrigerators and cars increased during and after World War II.

The experiences of the war years also reshaped the role of Australian governments in people's lives and cemented the place of the federal parliament as the most significant of the three tiers of government in the nation. In order to fight the war, the federal government had significantly expanded the scope of its activities. Income taxation and its spending were now centrally controlled, and the banking system was regulated by government.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The first Holden car rolled off the assembly line at Fisherman's Bend, Victoria, on 29 November 1948, and cost the equivalent of two years' wages for the average worker – £675 (\$1350).

Post-war migration to Australia

After World War II, many Australians felt that they had only narrowly avoided a Japanese invasion. The government, under the new Prime Minister Ben Chifley, decided that Australia needed to increase its population to protect itself from future threats. The slogan 'Populate or perish' was first used by the Immigration Minister, Arthur Calwell, to promote this new immigration policy. The campaign initially focused on encouraging British migrants, but when this failed to increase the population enough, Australia began to seek migrants from continental Europe for the first time.

The war had left somewhere between 11 and 20 million **refugees** in Europe, including Holocaust survivors and people who had fled the Soviet occupation of Eastern Europe. In 1947, Australia reached an agreement with international organisations to eventually resettle approximately 180 000 refugees. The government also encouraged people from southern and central Europe to migrate to Australia. In the 20 years following the end of World War II, almost two million people migrated to Australia. This surge in migration forever changed the nature of Australian society, its migration policies, and Australia's relationships with the rest of the world.

Foundation of the United Nations

The **League of Nations**, which had been set up after World War I to prevent armed conflict and promote peace, had clearly failed. Even while World War II was still in progress, plans were underway to create a new international body that would be more successful. The **United Nations** (UN) officially came into existence in 1945, with 51 nations as founding members. Australia's Minister for External Affairs, Herbert 'Doc' Evatt, played a key role in drafting the Charter of the United Nations. Evatt argued that larger powers, such as the USA and the Soviet Union, should not dominate the system; and that smaller nations, such as Australia, had an important role to play. Evatt went on to become one of the first Presidents of the General Assembly.

APPLY 6.15

- 1 The Charter of the United Nations outlines the role of the UN as an international organisation to prevent war, with provisions to aid refugees, support post-war reconstruction and protect human rights. Other agencies of the UN include the:
 - World Health Organization
 - World Bank
 - International Atomic Energy Commission
 - International Court of Justice
 - United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization.Select one of these organisations and investigate its role and significance in today's world.

REVIEW 6.25

- 1 Which event made Australia realise it could no longer rely on Britain for its defence?
- 2 Who was given broader command of Australian forces in the Pacific during World War II? Who made that decision?
- 3 How was Australian society influenced by American culture during World War II?
- 4 Explain how the Australian economy changed as a result of World War II.
- 5 Outline the way the Commonwealth government became more powerful as a result of World Wars I and II.
- 6 What was the purpose of the 'Populate or perish' campaign?
- 7 Which Australian politician played a key role in drafting the UN Charter?



Source 6.138

Immigrants arrived from all corners of Europe as part of the 'Populate or perish' campaign.

EXTEND 6.18

- 1 One way of looking at the importance of Australia's increasing political links to the United States is to examine post-war treaties such as ANZUS. Find out who was involved in ANZUS, when it was introduced and what it guaranteed.

6.6

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WAS THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE WARS TO AUSTRALIA?

» Explain the impact of the wars on returned soldiers and civilians

1 Examine Sources 6.139 and 6.140 and answer the following questions.

- Describe the type of society that the soldiers in Source 6.139 would be returning to after World War I.
- What continuities and changes can you identify between Source 6.139 and 6.140?
- Outline some of the evidence you could use to support an argument that returning soldiers had difficulty adjusting to life in Australia after World War I and World War II. (15 marks)



Source 6.139

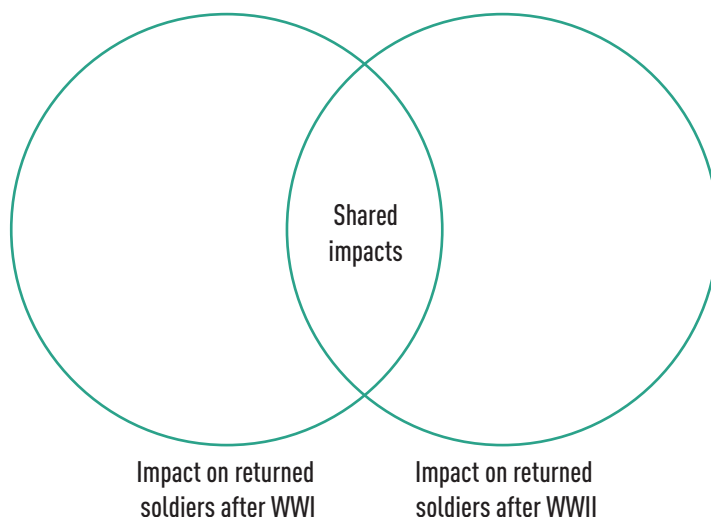
Australian soldiers returning from World War I as invalids in 1917 (AWM C01035)



Source 6.140

Australian soldiers and the Royal Navy seamen who were bringing them to Australia after World War II (AWM 125099)

- 2 Copy and complete a Venn diagram (such as the one shown below) to summarise the similarities and differences of the impact of war on servicemen returning from World War I and World War II. (10 marks)



- 3 Outline the specific difficulties Indigenous Australian soldiers faced when returning to civilian life. (5 marks)
- » **Analyse the changing relationship of Australia with other countries after World War II**
- 4 Outline the key decisions Prime Minister Curtin made to ensure the security of Australia during World War II, and the consequences for Australia's relationships with other countries. (10 marks)
- 5 Explain how the adoption of the 'populate or perish' migration program started to change Australia and its relationship with other countries. (5 marks)
- 6 What evidence is there of Australia's international standing at the time of the foundation of the United Nations? (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Returning home – the challenges

- Soldiers returning from World War I faced a number of challenges. In groups, select one of the following events. Find out what the incident was about, the role that returned soldiers played in it, and the viewpoints of opposing groups.
 - The Red Flag riots in Brisbane (1919)
 - May Day fights in the Domain in Sydney and Brisbane (1921)
 - The Fremantle Wharf Riot (1919)
 - Melbourne Police Strike (1923)
 - Anti-conscription protest in Melbourne (15 December 1917)
- Prime Minister William Hughes said Australia offered returning soldiers a 'land fit for heroes' at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919. Write a letter to Hughes from a disillusioned former soldier who has been involved in one of the protests/riots you researched, asking him where 'the land fit for heroes' was.
- As a class, discuss the way in which different perspectives can affect the way a source is used and interpreted.

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

6.7

SECTION

HOW ARE THE WARS COMMEMORATED?

In this section, we look at how Australia commemorates World War I and World War II. We also explore the growth of the ANZAC legend and discuss different perspectives on the importance of this legend in defining Australia's national identity.

COMMEMORATING THE WARS

Even before the end of World War I, Australians looked for a way in which the whole nation could recognise the efforts of the Australian forces and remember their sacrifices. Today, we continue this tradition with two official commemoration days – Anzac Day and Remembrance Day.

Anzac Day

In 1916, 25 April was chosen as a day of **commemoration** (a day to remember and show respect) for the ANZACs. Fittingly, this day became known as Anzac Day. Ceremonies and marches were held all around Australia, and 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 every year. Many Australians also travel to Gallipoli to be present at the dawn service at Anzac Cove. Anzac Day ceremonies traditionally conclude with the words from Laurence Binyon's poem 'For the Fallen' (see Source 6.141).

Source 6.141

They shall grow not old, as we that are left grow old;
Age shall not weary them, nor the years condemn.
At the going down of the sun and in the morning
We will remember them.

Laurence Binyon, 'For the Fallen'

Remembrance Day (Armistice Day)

Anzac Day is the main day for war commemoration in Australia and New Zealand. However, Remembrance Day, 11 November, is a more general recognition of the sacrifices made in war. This date marks the day and the hour when the Armistice (ceasefire) was signed, bringing an end to World War I. In many countries, people pause for one minute at 11 a.m. on Remembrance Day to remember those who gave their lives in war.

APPLY 6.16

- You may be familiar with some of these aspects and symbols of commemoration ceremonies in Australia. Conduct research on the origins and significance of some of these:
 - slouch hat
 - The Last Post
 - one-minute silence
 - riderless horse
 - red poppies
 - wattle
 - rosemary
 - flame of remembrance.
- How many of the aspects of the commemoration ceremonies are unique to Australia?

THE ANZAC LEGEND

The events at Gallipoli occupy a special place in Australia's history. The origin of the ANZAC legend that surrounds it can largely be linked to the fact that it was the first time that Australians had fought in a war. As a united country, Australia had only existed for 13 years at the time it went to war. Australians at home waited eagerly for accounts of the first encounter of the Australian Imperial Force. When news of the first battles at Gallipoli appeared in Australian papers on 8 May 1915, the fact that the landing had been a failure was almost completely overlooked.

Commentators at the time, and historians in the years since 1915, have developed the theme that Gallipoli was a defining national experience. It has been said that it was Australia's 'baptism of fire' and that Australia 'came of age' as a nation at Gallipoli. Some historians argue whether this ignores the importance of Federation and the decades after Federation when Australia led the world in social and political reforms. They argue that workers' rights, pension and votes for women are important parts of Australian history, and they helped to make the character of the nation and the characters of the brave men and women who served in the wars. In other words, did the characteristics of bravery and sacrifice, which are thought of as ANZAC characteristics, only first appear at Gallipoli or were they evident much earlier?

The ANZAC legend has not remained static. It was expected that as the last of the World War I diggers died (see Source 6.142), 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 there has been a resurgence of interest in the ANZAC legend and the Gallipoli story. The reasons for this are complex, possibly related to the attention paid to the declining numbers of World War I veterans, films such as *Gallipoli*, and the pilgrimage of Gallipoli survivors in 1990 to mark the 75th anniversary of the campaign.

Perspectives on the ANZAC legend

Perspectives on the ANZAC legend have changed over the decades, and there are as many views or perspectives on the idea of Anzac as there are Australians. Some have suggested that other war engagements are more deserving of national commemoration. The battles at Pozières and Villers-Bretonneux in World War I, Tobruk and Kokoda in World War II, and the Battle of Long Tan in the Vietnam War have all been suggested as possible replacements for Gallipoli. Others have argued that the focus on Anzac Day glorifies war and that other aspects of the national story, good and bad, should be recognised alongside (or instead of) the Gallipoli landing.

APPLY 6.17

- 1 As a class, discuss the arguments for and against the idea that 'Australia became a nation on the shores of Gallipoli'.
- 2 What evidence is there to show that political leaders and ordinary Australians see a need for Anzac Day?
- 3 Locate some articles and opinion pieces that have appeared in Australian newspapers about Anzac Day. Examine the contrasting perspectives on Anzac Day and its role in Australia's sense of national identity contained in these articles.



Source 6.142 Alec Campbell, the last living Gallipoli veteran. He died on 16 May 2002 at the age of 103. Campbell enlisted in the AIF at age 16, after lying about his age to meet the minimum age requirement of 18 years. On the day of his funeral, flags were flown at half mast around Australia and overseas, to pay respect to this final link to Gallipoli.

EXTEND 6.19

- 1 What evidence is there to show that governments in Australia see a need for Anzac Day?

Perspectives on the Anzac legend

Source 6.143

The legend of Anzac was born on 25 April 1915, and was reaffirmed in eight months' fighting on Gallipoli. Although there was no military victory, the Australians displayed great courage, endurance, initiative, discipline, and mateship. Such qualities came to be seen as the Anzac spirit.

Many saw the Anzac spirit as having been born of egalitarianism and mutual support. According to the stereotype, the Anzac rejected unnecessary restrictions, possessed a sardonic sense of humour, was contemptuous of danger, and proved himself the equal of anyone on the battlefield.

Extract from the Australian War Memorial website

Source 6.144

The qualities of egalitarianism, initiative and resourcefulness underpinned much of the immediate post-war ... portrayals of the 'digger' ... However, the personal post-war struggles of returned soldiers ... ill-health, permanent incapacity, alcoholism, unemployment and severe depression ... were conditions that characterised some of the lives of returned ... men ... Many men and their families would endure the mental and physical debilities ... silently and stoically ... they, perhaps unconsciously, supported the emerging 'digger' stereotype. It was ironic that the ceremonial tradition of the Anzac legend, through its powerful and symbolic celebration of the 'digger' and Empire loyalty, effectively muted the voices of dissent and veiled the many individual sufferings and unpleasant memories of returned ... soldiers and their families.

Extract from Dale Blair, *Dinkum Diggers*, Melbourne University Press, 2001, p. 194

Source 6.145

We suggest that Australians might look to alternative national traditions that gave pride of place to equality of opportunity and the pursuit of social justice: the ideals of a living wage and decent working conditions, the long struggle for sexual and racial equality. In the myth of Anzac, military achievements are exalted above civilian ones; events overseas are given priority over Australian developments; slow and patient nation-building is eclipsed by the bloody drama of battle; action is exalted above contemplation.

The key premise of the Anzac legend is that nations and men are made in war. It is an idea that had currency a hundred years ago. Is it not now time for Australia to cast it aside?

Extract from *What's wrong with Anzac?*, Marilyn Lake and Henry Reynolds, 2010. p. 167

INTERPRET 6.23

- 1 Do any of these perspectives on Anzac Day reflect primary sources? Do you think this is significant?
- 2 Categorise these sources into pro- and anti-Anzac Day perspectives. What evidence is used to support these perspectives?
- 3 Categorise these sources into official and non-official. Identify any links between these categories and their perspectives. Discuss your findings as a class.

REVIEW 6.26

- 1 When was Anzac Day first commemorated? When did it become a public holiday?
- 2 How long did it take Australian newspapers to publish news of the Australian landing at Anzac Cove on 25 April 1915? How did they report it?
- 3 Who was the last living veteran of the Gallipoli campaign?
- 4 Which battles are sometimes suggested as alternatives to Gallipoli as battles that could be commemorated?

HOW ARE THE WARS COMMEMORATED?

» Explain how and why Australians have commemorated the wars

- 1 Create a list of symbols and traditions that are used to commemorate Anzac Day, such as red poppies. How many of these are used in your school's Anzac Day ceremony and why are they used? (5 marks)
- 2 Explain how Sources 6.143, 6.144 and 6.145 help you to understand the way Anzac Day is commemorated in Australia. (10 marks).
- 3 In a short written statement, explain Anzac Day to an overseas visitor. (10 marks)

» Explain different perspectives on the Anzac legend

- 4 What evidence is there to support the idea that 'interest in Anzac Day has never been stronger'? (5 marks)
- 5 Outline the reasons why Anzac Day came to be recognised as Australia's national day. (10 marks)
- 6 Provide arguments that Anzac Day is no longer relevant to the Australia of the 21st century. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

An alternative national identity?

- 1 Conduct research on the Australasian Antarctic Expedition (1911–1914) led by Douglas Mawson. During your research look for evidence that would support this official statement by the Australian government: 'The AAE has joined the ranks of those expeditions that are legendary for the sheer tenacity of spirit, physical endurance, loyalty and accomplishment that was achieved under profoundly difficult circumstances.'
- 2 Analyse the characteristics of Mawson's expedition that could contribute to Australia's sense of national identity.
- 3 In a 500-word reflective piece of writing, consider the following questions.
 - a Why do you think Australians chose to celebrate Australia's nationhood through military achievements, such as Gallipoli, rather than the peaceful achievements of Australians in Antarctica?
 - b Do you think Australia's sense of national identity would be any different today if its involvement in Antarctic exploration had been seen as 'Australia's coming of age'?

Perspectives of war from around the world

- 1 Few Australians know about the heroic deeds of the Canadian troops on the Western Front during World War I. Canada was the oldest dominion of the British Empire and, in that sense, it was senior to Australia. The Canadians had more troops on the Western Front than Australia and fought in more battles.
 - a Conduct research to find out about the contribution of Canada's troops to the Allies' victories in World War I and compare it to Australia's involvement, including the achievements of forces under the brilliant Canadian commander General Arthur Currie.
- 2 It is likely that Canadian students would know little about the ANZACs, other than the fact that they failed at Gallipoli and came to the Western Front late.

Talk to someone in your community who grew up in another country to:

 - find out their level of knowledge and perspectives on the ANZACs at Gallipoli
 - find out about the military heroes and events that hold a place in the war legends of that country.

6.7

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

THE HISTORIAN'S TOOLKIT: CONCEPTS AND SKILLS

In Stage 4 History, you were introduced to a range of concepts and skills that historians use in their investigations. These historical concepts and skills can be thought of as the historian's 'tools of the trade', which form the basis of all historical inquiry (see Source HT.1). This toolkit reviews the range of historical concepts and skills that you need to keep developing in Stage 5 to become a successful student of history. Your understanding of them will continually improve as you gain experience working and thinking as a historian.

Source HT.1 The historical inquiry approach

Historians use an inquiry approach in their investigations. They:

- develop an inquiry question to clearly identify the problem or question
- form theories or hypotheses – stating what they think the likely answer might be
- conduct research to gather evidence from a range of sources
- evaluate the usefulness of the sources and analyse the evidence gathered from them
- confirm or modify their hypotheses on the basis of this evidence.

HT.1 HISTORICAL CONCEPTS

You should already be familiar with the six key historical concepts that are shown in Source HT.2. Using these concepts correctly, either individually or in combination, is at the heart of all historical inquiry.

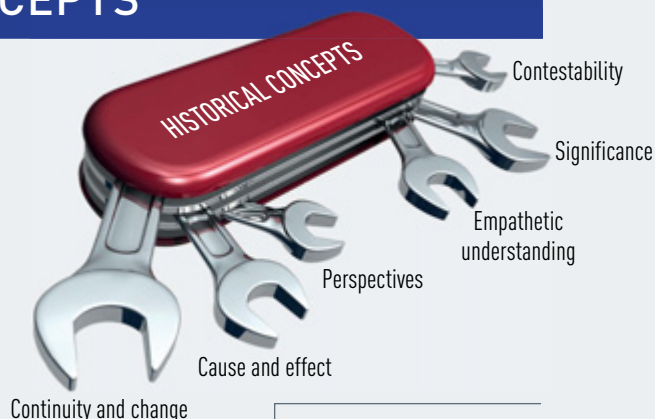
Continuity and change

Historians use the concept of continuity and change to help them understand the impact of developments and events on human societies – that while some things change over time, others stay the same. Those features that remain largely unchanged over time are referred to as continuities, while those features that change over time are known as changes. Throughout Stage 4 History, you would have practised identifying a number of continuities and changes over time. In Stage 5 History, you will also have to start considering the causes of the continuities and changes you identify.

Examples of continuity and change

The experiences of Australians at war, such as the different experiences of Australians on the home front during World Wars I and II, provide an opportunity to identify many examples of continuity and change.

- 1 Australia's support of Great Britain in both World Wars I and II is one example of continuity and change. Although Australia supported Great Britain in both world wars and committed Australian soldiers to fight abroad (continuity), the attitude of the Australian people from one war to the next diminished considerably (change).



Source HT.2 Historical concepts

At the start of World War I, there was proud and unwavering support of the British Empire among the Australia public. At the start of World War II, there was great sadness at the prospect of facing yet another devastating war and further loss of life. As a result, there was initially far less support for enlisting in the armed forces. Evidence of this change in attitude can be seen when comparing two speeches given by the sitting Australian prime ministers at the time – Prime Minister Joseph Cook at the start of World War I (Source HT.3) and Prime Minister Robert Menzies at the start of World War II (Source HT.4)

Source HT.3

Whatever happens, Australia is a part of the Empire right to the full. Remember that when the Empire is at war, so is Australia at war.

Prime Minister Joseph Cook during a speech before the Federal election, 1 August 1914

Source HT.4

Fellow Australians, it is my melancholy duty to inform you officially, that in consequence of a persistence by Germany in her invasion of Poland, Great Britain has declared war upon her and that, as a result, Australia is also at war.

Prime Minister Robert Menzies' announcement to the Australian people, 3 September 1939

- The use of propaganda in Australia during World War I and World War II is another example of continuity and change. 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.

Although propaganda campaigns were a significant part of both wars (continuity), the format and content of propaganda from World War I to World War II varied considerably (change). During World War I, the vast majority of propaganda took the form of printed posters that were displayed on the streets and in workplaces (see Source HT.5). Although printed posters were also important during World War II (continuity), a far greater percentage of propaganda at that time was delivered in the form of moving pictures known as newsreels (change). Newsreels were produced by governments with the goal of boosting morale for Australians at home, and were even sent to troops fighting overseas to lift their spirits. One newsreel of Australian troops on the Kokoda Trail, called *Kokoda front line!*, even won the Oscar for best documentary in 1942 (see Source HT.6).



Source HT.5 This propaganda poster from World War I encouraged Australia men to serve their country overseas rather than stay home in Australia.



Source HT.6 A still from an Oscar winner newsreel *Kokoda front line!* shows Australian soldiers happy to receive letters from home. Newsreels were effective forms of propaganda in Australia during World War II

APPLY HT.1

- Explain how Sources HT.3 and HT.4 provide evidence of continuity and change in Australia's attitudes towards going to war alongside Great Britain.
- Examine Source HT.5. What message does this poster convey?
- Explain how Sources HT.5 and HT.6 could be used in a historical argument examining continuity and change in 20th-century Australian history.
- Select another aspect of Australians at war and find sources that help you demonstrate the concept of continuity and change.

Cause and effect

Cause and effect is a critical concept in historical understanding. It is used by historians to identify the events or developments that have led to particular actions or results.

It is rare that there is a single, straightforward cause of an event. Generally, there are many, complex causes (reasons) that have led to an event or result. The effects can also be complex: there may be many effects or outcomes, both intended and unintended. Effects or outcomes may take place over a long period of time, so that the significance of the event or development may not be immediately apparent to people at the time.

Historians often consider a combination of historical concepts in their inquiries: an understanding of continuity and change can provide a deeper understanding of cause and effect.

Examples of cause and effect

A study to identify the causes of World War I is a complex task, which requires detailed investigation of a wide range of sources. As a history student, you can draw on secondary sources, such as this book, to help you understand the range of reasons given for World War I. The key factors that led to the outbreak of World War I are explored in ‘Causes of World War I’ in ‘Chapter 6 Australians at War (World Wars I and II)’.

It is also valuable to explore a single event and analyse its effects. A single event prior to the declaration of World War I in August 1914 was the assassination of the heir to the throne of Austria–Hungary, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, in June 1914.



Source HT.7 An artist’s impression of the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria–Hungary and his wife Sophie

APPLY HT.2

- 1 There is a considerable amount of historical information known about the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand. Investigate the event by asking and answering historical questions such as:
 - Who was involved?
 - Why did they do it?
 - What were they hoping would happen?
 - What did happen?
- 2 In your notebook, list the effects of the assassination in a table such as the one shown below.

Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand	
Intended effects	Unintended effects

Perspectives

People bring their own personal perspective to any event, shaped by their personal experiences, values and beliefs. Historical sources will usually reflect each participant's or commentator's perspectives, and it is critical that you learn to identify not only different perspectives, but why they are held. This will often depend upon historical context – the times in which an event takes place.

Examples of perspectives

Sources HT.8 and HT.9 both relate to the impacts of the Industrial Revolution. The first was written during the early stages of the Revolution, the second over 200 years later when people were reflecting on the long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution.

Source HT.8

Within the last twenty or thirty years, the vast increase of foreign trade has caused many of the Manchester manufacturers to travel abroad, and agents or partners to be fixed for a considerable time on the Continent, as well as foreigners to reside at Manchester. And the town has now in every respect assumed the style and manners of one of the commercial capitals of Europe.

'Manchester, account of its trade and manufactures', in New-York Magazine, 1797

Source HT.9

It was the fossil fuel coal that fuelled the Industrial Revolution, forever changing the way people would live and utilize energy. While this propelled human progress to extraordinary levels, it came at extraordinary costs to our environment, and ultimately to the health of all living things. While coal and other fossil fuels were taken for granted as being inexhaustible, it was American geophysicist M. King Hubbert who predicted in 1949 that the fossil fuel era would be very short-lived and that other energy sources would need to be relied upon.

The Ecological Impact of the Industrial Revolution, Eric McLamb, 2011

APPLY HT.3

- 1 Identify the perspectives on the Industrial Revolution that each source presents, and the evidence in the sources that shows you the perspective.
- 2 Explain why you think perspectives on the Industrial Revolution may have changed across time.

Empathetic understanding

Empathetic understanding requires you to understand the actions, values, attitudes and motives of people who lived in an earlier time within the context of that time. In other words, it becomes important to understand that the reasons why people in the past made decisions or acted in a certain way cannot be judged in accordance with today's attitudes and values. An easy way to understand this is to accept that what happened in the past is not better or worse, but simply different. It can be very difficult to apply empathetic understanding to slavery, for example, but that is the challenge a historian must meet.

Examples of empathetic understanding

Empathetic understanding requires that you understand the actions of people based on the context of their **society**, not your own. Consider the story outlined in Source HT.10. The context of this incident is a town in Virginia whose citizens voted overwhelmingly to secede (withdraw) from the northern states at the start of the US Civil War, and was a major supporter of the Confederacy. The Confederacy was comprised of the seven southern states that chose to secede from the Union, in part to defend their right to own slaves.

Source HT.10

A fine looking negro woman aged about 28 years, belonging to Mr. Joseph Cline, living about four miles from Staunton, becoming unruly, he determined to bring her to town and sell her. While she was going to get her clothes, she picked up an axe which she had concealed, and deliberately cut three of her fingers off, taking two licks at them. She was brought to town, placed in jail, and her hand was dressed by Dr. Baldwin. She did the act for the double purpose of preventing her sale and taking revenge upon her master.

Extract from 'Desperate Negro Woman', *Staunton Vindicator* (newspaper), Staunton, Virginia, 1861

APPLY HT.4

- 1 Would the community reading the newspaper article (Source HT.10) regard the slave as heroic or as deserving of punishment?
- 2 Why did the slave act in the way she did?
- 3 Was owning slaves illegal in Virginia at this time? What rights did Mr Joseph Cline have taken from him by the slave's action?
- 4 Explain this incident:
 - a from the perspectives of the slave
 - b from the perspective her owner.

Significance

The concept of significance relates to the importance that historians assign to aspects of the past, such as events, developments and movements, individuals or groups, discoveries and historical sites. Historians continually make judgements regarding the significance of these aspects of the past.

It is important to understand that significance is a concept that is not static – it constantly changes. It relies on interpretations that often change several times over the years. For example, on the day that Archduke Franz Ferdinand was assassinated in 1914, historians would have regarded it as an event with only local significance. Subsequent events proved its greater importance, and historians still argue today about its ultimate significance as a factor in the outbreak of World War I.



Source HT.11 A painting of the *Lady Juliana*, the first convict transport ship in the Second Fleet, which arrived in Sydney Cove in June 1790

Examples of significance

The Second Fleet transporting convicts to Sydney Cove landed in 1790. Source HT.11 is an illustration of the *Lady Juliana*, the first of the Second Fleet ships to arrive in June 1790, almost two and a half years after the arrival of the First Fleet that established the first European settlement in Australia. A key question for historians is whether this event was significant when it occurred, and whether its significance has changed across time. Different perspectives can also change the significance of an event.

APPLY HT.5

- 1 Consider the significance of the arrival from the perspective of:
 - a convict on the *Lady Juliana*
 - local Indigenous people as it was happening
 - Captain Arthur Phillip, the governor responsible for the new colony, and the convicts, sailors and marines from the First Fleet who faced starvation before the arrival of the Second Fleet
 - Indigenous Australians during the 1988 bicentennial celebrations
 - a student studying Australian history in the 21st century.
- 2 Explain how these different perspectives help you understand the nature of significance as a historical concept.

Contestability

When you listen to a song, watch a film or play a game, you respond to it in your own way, and develop your own interpretation. Someone else may do the same thing and respond differently. Neither view would be right or wrong – each is simply contested. This is exactly the same in the study of history. Two historians may examine the same sources and come to completely different conclusions. Alternatively, they may study different sources in isolation from each other and reach conclusions that could be changed as more sources are examined. Contestability explains why history is not about absolute truth; rather, it is about conclusions that can be supported by evidence. As the evidence changes, so too do the interpretations, creating more and more contestability.

Examples of contestability

The concept that Australia was *terra nullius* ('empty land' or 'land belonging to no-one') before the arrival of Europeans was legally accepted in Australia until late in the 20th century. This concept became increasingly contested in Australian history over the 200 years of European settlement. The Indigenous perspective was finally presented to the Federal High Court in the Mabo case in 1982. On 3 June 1992, the High Court ruled that the lands of the Australian continent were not *terra nullius* when Europeans first settled here. The competing understandings of *terra nullius* are a good example of historical contestability.

APPLY HT.6

- 1 Read the section '*Terra nullius*' in 'Chapter 4 Making a nation'. Briefly state what the concept of *terra nullius* means and outline the two competing views of *terra nullius* in Australia.
- 2 European relations with and treatment of Indigenous Australians has been one of the most contested areas of Australian history. Read the section 'Violence on the Australian frontier' in 'Chapter 4 Making a nation' and identify areas of potential contestability.

HT.2 HISTORICAL SKILLS

Historians work by conducting historical inquiries or investigations. To successfully complete these they apply a range of skills. You have already had some experience applying the skills shown in Source HT.12. The range of tasks in your Depth Studies will ask you to apply a single skill, or you may need to combine a range of skills to complete a more extensive investigation.



Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

Source HT.12 Historical skills

When we comprehend something, this means we understand it. The comprehension of chronology, as well as historical terms and concepts, will certainly help you to understand historical material.

Chronology

Chronology is the skill of sequencing historical events in the order in which they occurred.

Timelines are the most effective method of organising material in **chronological order**, and the method you would be most familiar with. You should now be able to understand the value of chronology in allowing you to understanding relationships such as cause and effect.

APPLY HT.7

- 1 Create a timeline in your workbook and place these events in chronological order:
 - Australia federates (1901)
 - Gold Rushes in Australia start (1851)
 - First Fleet established European settlement in Australia (1788)
 - Eureka Rebellion (1854)
 - Aboriginal resistance fighter Pemulwuy is killed (1802)
- 2 Why is knowing the correct chronological order important for the creation of this timeline?
- 3 In what way does knowing the correct chronology help you to establish relationships between any of these events and assist with your historical understanding of them?

Terms and concepts

Like all subjects, History has its own vocabulary. These are the terms and concepts that allow you to understand historical material. In Stage 4, you were introduced to:

- terms and concepts related to historical time, such as BC and AD
- terms and concepts related to sources, such as **evidence** and **provenance**
- the key historical concepts (see HT.2) that you will learn to apply with increasing complexity in Stage 5
- specific terms from your Depth Study topics that should form part of your vocabulary when you are creating responses to historical questions.

Your Stage 5 Depth Studies will require you to add to your historical vocabulary of specific terms with terms such as:

- **colonisation**
- **egalitarianism**
- **nationalism**
- **anti-Semitism**
- **dispossession**
- **industrialisation**
- **imperialism**
- **appeasement**
- **federation**
- **fascism**
- **commemoration**
- **reparation.**

Analysis and use of sources

The key points to remember when working with sources is to make sure that you:

- identify the type, origin, content, context and purpose of the source
- process the information from the source to use as evidence in a historical argument
- evaluate the reliability and usefulness of the source for a specific historical inquiry.

Identifying the type of source

Sources can be written, visual, oral or archaeological. As you have previously learned, when you are analysing sources keep in mind whether the sources are primary or secondary sources:

- **primary sources** – objects created or written at the time being investigated; for example, during an event or very soon after, or
- **secondary sources** – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated and that often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation.

Identifying the type of source makes it easier to interpret and draw evidence from the sources. It is also important to recognise that different societies created different types of sources. Indigenous Australians, for example, relied on a largely oral (not written) tradition. Despite what early British colonists may have thought about this at the time, oral traditions are in no way inferior to information passed on in written form by Europeans. Historians need to make sure they do not make value judgements based on the type of sources they are using, and their own personal cultural or religious backgrounds.

Identifying origin, content, context and purpose in sources

Making sure you know where a source originated is an important first step in source analysis. In your earlier studies in History you would have become aware of the different perspectives you might gain from, for example, the written account of an educated person, or an oral tradition passed down by illiterate (unable to read or write) peasants. If two countries are in conflict, the origin of a source is essential information you need to check for possible **bias** (pre-judgement about something, usually without considering facts).

Identifying the content of a source requires you to check what the source is saying and verify the information using another source.

Identifying the context of a source means looking at when and under what circumstances a source has been produced. Is a source more or less reliable if the author was paid or if it was testimony produced under torture, for example?

Purpose is also critical in source analysis. Is the source trying to persuade or simply relate information? Was it the result of personal involvement or gain? These are all important questions to consider about any source you are planning to use.

Examples

- 1 Wikipedia has recently emerged as a widely used historical source, but the origin and content it provides is often contested and reliance on Wikipedia is regarded by many historians as controversial. Wikipedia is a free Internet encyclopaedia that is written and edited by its users. It has become a much relied upon source for millions of people around the world. It is reviewed by a committed community of online users, who

APPLY HT.8

- 1 Find the meaning of the listed terms. When you come across one of these terms during your Depth Studies, check to see if your understanding of its meaning has changed when used in a specific historical context.

Origin: the URL is shown.

Content: largely factual information about the organisation WikiLeaks.

Context: the entry is open to widespread analysis for accuracy and impartiality.

Purpose: to give the reader basic information about the organisation WikiLeaks.

check that non-factual material is highlighted, commented on, and ideally removed. However, there is no guarantee of this. Wikipedia features entries on a vast range of topics. In recent years an entry was added on a group known as WikiLeaks. WikiLeaks is an organisation that is challenging established rules about what information is private and what is public. Source HT.13 is a Wikipedia entry about WikiLeaks that has been annotated to identify the origin, content, context and purpose.

Source HT.13

WikiLeaks is an international, online, non-profit^[3] organisation which publishes secret information, news leaks,^[6] and classified media from anonymous sources.^{[3][7]} Its website, initiated in 2006 in Iceland by the organization Sunshine Press,^[8] claimed a database of more than 1.2 million documents within a year of its launch.^[9] Julian Assange, an Australian Internet activist, is generally described as its founder, editor-in-chief, and director.^[10]

*Section of opening paragraph of Wikipedia entry on WikiLeaks
en.wikipedia.org/wiki/WikiLeaks*

- 2 Propaganda is information that attempts to influence behaviour or opinions. Propaganda posters were commonly produced in both world wars, using different techniques to prey on people's prejudices or instil feelings such as fear, anger, guilt or pride in order to convey their message.

Historians can gain insight into the period being studied by analysing sources such as the poster shown in Source HT.14. They would ask questions, like those below, to analyse this example of a World War II propaganda poster.

- *Are the messages in the poster visual or textual, or both?*
Image and text work together to convey the message.
- *What are the main colours used and what is their effect?*
The poster uses bright, bold colours to attract attention.
- *What image or symbols are used?*
The poster shows a hospital ship exploding and about to sink, with survivors attempting to reach lifeboats. The survivors in the foreground are obviously the female nurses. The ship clearly shows the Red Cross symbol and green bands that indicate it is a hospital ship.
- *Are images or symbols clear and memorable?*
The poster is memorable, using one clear and dramatic image.
- *Who is the intended audience?*
This poster is aimed at Australian soldiers and civilians.
- *What is the historical context of the poster?*

This poster was issued by the Australian government after the sinking of the hospital ship *AHS Centaur* in May 1943. It was torpedoed off the Queensland coast by a Japanese submarine. The ship exploded and sank within minutes and only 64 of the 332 passengers and crew were rescued.



Source HT.14 A poster issued by the Australian government in 1943 [AWM ART V09088]

- *What is the poster's intended message?*
It provokes people's anger about an attack on a hospital ship and the deaths of those on board, particularly Australian nurses. It sends the message that *all* Australians need to be involved in the war effort.
- *What is the purpose of the poster?*
It is meant to encourage all Australians to increase their war efforts.
- *Is this an effective poster?*
Yes, because it uses one memorable image, and has a simple, clear and direct message.

APPLY HT.9

- 1 Examine Source HT.13
 - a Can you identify any nonfactual material in this extract?
 - b What does the existence of footnotes in the article (shown by the numbers) indicate about the integrity of the article as a secondary source?
 - c In what circumstances would this be a useful source?
- 2 Examine Sources HT.15 and HT.16.
 - a Conduct some research and use the questions accompanying Source HT.14 as a guide to analyse the origin, content, context and purpose of these sources.
 - b Which of the three posters do you consider the most effective? Explain your reasoning.



Source HT.15 World War II poster (AWM ARTV09225)



Source HT.16 World War II poster (AWM ARTV00047)

Processing information from a range of sources as evidence in a historical argument

If you are looking for evidence to support a historical argument, it is vital that you never rely on a single source. It is also important that you include a source even if it does *not* support your argument. You have to allow your argument to fit the evidence, not just look for evidence to support your argument or point of view. It may require taking notes from your source, or asking questions of it to make sure you are able to extract the evidence you require.

Evaluating a source for reliability and usefulness

A source is reliable if you can check its **provenance**. Put simply, this means knowing where a source has come from. You should be able to trace a source from its origin to the form that you are accessing it in. In the digital age, manipulation of visual sources represents real challenges for establishing the reliability and provenance of sources.

A source's usefulness depends on the purpose you are using the source for. A soldier's account of his life in the trenches in World War I would be extremely useful for a historical inquiry into the conditions of World War I, but not as useful for an inquiry into the decision to place the trenches in that location, which would have been made at a much higher level.

APPLY HT.10

The sources below show the experiences of three generations of an Australian family.

- 1 Explain what you would have to do to establish the provenance of these sources.
- 2 Identify the type of source in each case, and comment on its probable context.
- 3 The sources are in chronological order. Explain whether this is essential to establish meaning.
- 4 Explain what sort of purpose each one would be useful for.
- 5 Which of the following aspects of 20th-century Australian history do these sources provide evidence for?
 - where Australians fought in World War II
 - Australian fashion
 - how Australians spend their leisure time
 - the influence of British and American culture in Australia
 - the changing role of women in Australian life

For those that are relevant, outline the evidence these sources could provide.



Source HT.17 A proud Australian car owner in 1920s Sydney



Source HT.18 Australian infantry forces during training in World War II



Source HT.19 Backyard cricket in Australia in 1960s Sydney

Perspectives and interpretations

It is an essential part of historical research to understand that different people have different perspectives on a wide range of events. These may include personal, social, political, economic or religious points of view. Historians can also interpret the same evidence very differently because of the perspectives they bring to their work.

Example

The **Holocaust** was the systematic persecution and murder of Jews and other 'undesirable' groups during World War II. Throughout Nazi-occupied territories, Jews were rounded up and initially imprisoned in **ghettos** (fenced-off parts of a city) or camps where the food and living conditions were very poor. This policy was followed by one of planned extermination where, as a 'final solution to the Jewish question', Jews were transported to **concentration camps**, where they were shot or gassed to death. It is estimated that over six million Jews died as a result of the Holocaust. Many other minority groups such as gypsies and homosexuals, also labelled as undesirables by the Nazi party, were rounded up and sent to camps or murdered.

Holocaust deniers assert that the Nazis had no official policy to exterminate Jews, and deny that six million people were systematically murdered during World War II. They are renowned for imposing a particular perspective and interpretation on sources. This is because they are trying to impose their own pre-determined perspective (their prejudice or bias) on sources, rather than developing their interpretation from the available evidence.



Source HT.20 Corpses at Belsen Concentration Camp

Source HT.21

This note is written by people who will live for only a few more hours. The person who will read this note will hardly be able to believe that this is true. Still, this is the tragic truth, since [this is the] place your brothers and sisters stayed, and they, too, died the same death! The name of this locality is Kolo. At a distance of 12 km from this town [Chelmno] there is a 'slaughterhouse' for human beings.

Extract from a letter written by a Nazi concentration camp prisoner, written on 2 April, 1943, Yad Vashem International Institute for Holocaust Research

Source HT.22

I have found that in numerous respects, Irving has misstated historical evidence; adopted positions which run counter to the weight of the evidence; given credence to unreliable evidence and disregarded or dismissed credible evidence ... In my opinion there is a force in the opinion expressed that all Irving's historiographical 'errors' converge, in the sense that they all tend to exonerate Hitler or to reflect Irving's partisanship [strong support] for the Nazi leaders. If indeed they were genuine errors or mistakes, one would not expect to find this consistency ... Mistakes and misconceptions such as these appear to be by their nature unlikely to have been innocent. They are more consistent with a willingness on Irving's part to knowingly misrepresent or manipulate or put a 'spin' on the evidence so as to make it conform with his own preconceptions.

An extract from Justice Gray's finding against David Irving, 2000

APPLY HT.11

- 1 Consider Source HT.21 and think about how a World War II historian and a Holocaust denier would approach the source.
- 2 Source HT.22 is an extract from a judge's finding against a Holocaust denier, David Irving. (Irving was attempting to sue historian Deborah Lipstadt and her publisher for portraying him as a 'Holocaust denier'.)
 - a What does the judge accuse Irving of, in terms of his use of historical evidence?
 - b Why does the judge think Irving misrepresents or manipulates evidence, rather than simply make 'historiographical errors'?

APPLY HT.12

- 1 From 1790, an Indigenous leader known as Pemulwuy led raids and attacks against the early settlers in the Sydney region. How could historical empathy help you understand Governor King's decision to call for Pemulwuy to be delivered dead or alive in 1801?

Empathetic understanding

As has been shown earlier, empathetic understanding requires that you interpret history through the actions, values, attitudes and motives of people from the past. In other words, you should not base your interpretations and historical understanding on what you personally think is right or wrong; you should instead consider all historical actions within the context of their particular time and place.

Research

Research is a critical process for historians and students of history, enabling them to draw conclusions if carried out properly.

Getting started

Research usually starts with a broad field of inquiry that is made more specific by posing specific questions linked to the field of study. Asking questions and evaluating their usefulness allows historians to develop a clear focus to frame their research.

For example, if you were told to conduct research about Australia at war, it would be necessary to ask a range of questions to develop a clear focus. These questions might include:

- *What is meant by 'Australia'?*
Does it include involvement of colonies before Federation? This is a useful question because it helps you establish limits on the time period you have to research.
- *Can I focus on only one war?*
This is a very useful question in a classroom situation. A historian would know where they wanted to concentrate, but a school student may have to ask the person setting the research for clarification.
- *Can I make the focus a personal one?*
This is a useful question if you have access to family history or sources.
- *Does the research have to include primary sources?*
This question will help you clarify your approach to the research, and the sources that will help you come to a conclusion.

Planning

Planning is an important part of the research process. It is vital that you have a plan that suits the purposes of your investigation, and is realistic in terms of what you can achieve. For example, if you plan to focus on primary sources you should first make sure you have direct access to them. The digital storage of information has made many sources easier to access, but realistic planning about available time and accessibility remain a crucial part of successful research.

Identifying, locating, selecting and organising information

The hard work in research comes in the process of gathering information. Professional historians can spend years to conduct research and write a book. You will have significantly less time to complete your research tasks, but will go through a similar process.

Identifying and locating information in the digital age often means starting with a search engine. That can be a useful first step; but, as with all research, it is important that you ask the right questions. A search engine cannot think for you, and will only search using the information you give it. It is therefore vital that you be as specific as possible when setting the limits of your search, and then only select the most appropriate information once you have located it. Refer to Source HT.23 as a guide to some of the most common websites and their reliability as sources for research.

Source HT.23 Guidelines for determining the reliability of websites

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, this 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.

If you are selecting digital information, make sure you ask these questions of your source:

- What is the domain name?
- Is an author identified?
- Are there links or other bibliographic information to help with confirmation?
- Is it fact or opinion?
- Does it access other verifiable sources?

If you feel that is still a useful source, make sure you record the URL (web address), the date you accessed it and brief comments about why it was useful and reliable. These will be required when you compile an annotated bibliography (comments on each source).

Also remember that librarians are trained professionals in information storage and retrieval, and can provide valuable assistance to you.

One golden rule of effective research is to never rely on one source. Always check information against another source, making sure you consider how useful and reliable it is. Another rule is to make sure that you put information in your own words, and acknowledge any direct quotes from sources.

APPLY HT.13

- 1 You have been asked to conduct research about the reasons why Australia was settled in 1788. List the questions you would ask before you start researching. How would you start looking for information?

Organising information requires a clear understanding of how you are going to use it. There is no perfect method for organising information, but the most important thing is making sure that your notes can be understood by you, and can be retrieved when you need them. You may find that you work best by putting points under relevant headings. Another approach may be using graphic organisers to lay out your information. Yet another may involve highlighting key words, terms and concepts. There is no magic formula, and it is important that you develop an approach that works effectively for your individual learning style.

Explanation and communication

No matter how well you have researched your topic, effectively communicating your findings is vital for success. In historical communication you are required to show your understanding, and support that understanding with specific reference to your sources. This allows the reader to see that your opinion is based on evidence, as this is what makes it valid.

Developing historical texts

Source HT.24 can be used as a guide to writing a historical argument that will effectively communicate the evidence from your research that supports your inquiry.

Source HT.24 Guidelines for writing a historical argument

Structure of a historical argument	
Introduction	- Clearly states the topic of the investigation. - Outlines the line of argument that will be followed and why that line is being taken. - The aim of the introduction is to make it clear to the reader the line of argument you are adopting.
Body	- Information should be presented in paragraphs that link sequentially and logically. - Each paragraph should introduce a key point of your argument and the evidence that supports it. - All evidence and specific examples used are analysed explaining why they are an important part of the argument. - Each paragraph is linked to the one that follows it in the body. - The aim of the body is to provide the evidence and specific examples that convince the reader of the validity of your argument. It should contain a range of relevant sources that support your point of view.
Conclusion	- Provides a short and clear overview of the main ideas presented in the body. - States a conclusion drawn from the evidence. - The aim of the conclusion is to reinforce to the reader why your argument is valid.

Selecting and using a range of communication forms

Examinations and other written assessments still focus on traditional written responses. It is important that you recognise the key terms that are often used in exam and assessment questions. Some of the key terms are shown in Source HT.25. A full list and glossary of the terms is available from the New South Wales Board of Studies website.

Key terms used in examination and written assessment questions

Identify	Recognise and give a name to a historical artefact or event
Outline	Provide the main features of an event or occurrence
Explain	Show the relationship between events; provide information about how and why something happened; indicate cause and effect
Describe	Indicate the physical features and characteristics
Sequence	Show events in chronological order (the order in which they happened)
Investigate	Conduct research; make inquiries about something
Analyse	Indicate the relationship between events; identify the implications of an event or occurrence
Assess	Make judgements about an event or choice in terms of its value and results, as well as its size and impact
Account for	Provide reasons for an event or a choice that was made; recount a series of events, providing reasons for those events

Other communication formats may be used in other tasks or assessments. In the digital age, the range of formats available to communicate your historical understanding is extremely diverse. Some common approaches include:

- oral – if you are required to produce an oral response, ensure that your information is organised into key points. You will need to consider what the main thrust of your argument is, and exactly which evidence is crucial to support your argument. Organising that information onto palm cards may help you remember these during your oral presentation.
- visual – you may be required to present information in the form of a poster, graphic organiser, cartoon or model. This also requires you to rearrange your research to ensure that there is a clear focus for your argument and the evidence required to support it.
- digital – it is important that you not allow all the possibilities available in digital formats to overshadow the argument. Visual and written material can be effectively combined in formats such as PowerPoint and Prezi, while formats such as Twitter require you to condense your argument into its most basic form. A website will allow you to create links to collections of primary and secondary sources that can add depth to the evidence supporting your argument. A variety of film-making software has increased opportunities to use visual material, but again, what your presentation looks like should not compromise or dominate the historical content.

Your teacher may specify the style of response required. If your teacher does not specify the communication format and asks you to choose, it is important that you think carefully about which is the most appropriate format for your argument and audience. Always revisit the criteria you are being assessed by before deciding on the most effective way of presenting your research.

APPLY HT.14

- 1 If you were asked to conduct research about conditions Australian soldiers faced at Gallipoli or Kokoda, how would you best present your research findings to an audience? Outline the strengths and weaknesses of each of the following formats for such a presentation:

- written
- visual
- oral
- digital.

Which one would you decide on if you were presenting to your classmates, and why?

GLOSSARY

A

AD the abbreviation of *Anno Domini* (in the year of our Lord), used to indicate any time after the birth of Christ (see also **CE**)

Agricultural Revolution 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 in order 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

anti-Semitism prejudice, hatred or discrimination against Jews

appeasement a policy adopted by Britain and France towards Germany from the mid-1930s until 1939; the policy was designed to avoid a second world war by granting certain allowances to Hitler and the Nazi government

aristocrat a person who (through wealth or birth) belongs to the upper class of a social group 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

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

B

BC the abbreviation of Before Christ, used to indicate any time before the birth of Christ (see also **BCE**)

BCE the abbreviation of Before the Common Era, used to indicate any time before the birth of Christ (see **BC**)

bias a prejudicial view or attitude towards someone or something that is not altered by the presentation of facts and evidence to the contrary

Blitzkrieg a German term meaning 'lightning war'; a military tactic adopted by German forces during World War II that involved launching sudden, intense attacks on enemies using fighter aircraft and tanks followed by the advance of ground troops

Boxer Protocol, the a document signed on 7 September 1901 after the Boxer Rebellion between the Qing Empire of China and the Eight-Nation Alliance (Austria–Hungary, Japan, Italy, Germany, France, Britain, Russia and the United States); it imposed penalties and fines on China

Boxer Rebellion, the a period of violent uprisings against foreigners in China that took place from 1898 to 1901; it was initiated by a group of Chinese peasants who became known as Boxers due to the name of their group, 'The Righteous and Harmonious Fists'

Brahmin a member of the highest (or priestly) class in Indian society according to the Hindu caste system

Buddhism a major world religion that originated in India based on the teachings of Buddha

C

capital a concept central to the theory of capitalism; wealth in the form of money or property (e.g. factories, machinery and equipment) owned and used by individuals, partnerships or companies to conduct their business

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

caste system a social system in which people are born into a social group (called a caste); the caste system is generally associated with the Hindu religion in India and is still used today

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

CE the abbreviation of Common Era, which refers to any time after the birth of Christ (see **AD**)

censorship the act or practice of banning or limiting access to information, books or ideas that are considered sensitive or damaging

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)

chronological order the order in which events happened or took place

chronology a record of events in the order they took place

circa a Latin word meaning 'around' or 'approximately' (abbreviated as 'c.')

circumnavigation the process of travelling all the way round something (e.g. an island) particularly by ship

civilisation a society with large-scale urban settlements, defined systems of government, social organisation, religion and technologies

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

commodity a raw material or primary agricultural product that can be bought and sold (such as coffee, coal and gold)

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

concentration camp a camp in which civilians, enemy aliens, political prisoners or prisoners of war are detained under extremely harsh conditions

concubine a woman kept for the entertainment and pleasure of a ruler or emperor (e.g. in imperial China)

Confucianism a code of behaviour established by the Chinese philosopher K'ung Ch'iu (commonly known as Confucius) in the early 5th century BC

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

consumerism a social and economic theory stating that constant increases in the numbers of goods and services being bought by consumers is good for the economy

contest, to to argue against an idea or theory because of new evidence, or because of a different interpretation of existing evidence; an idea or theory that can be contested is said to be contestable

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

counter-offensive a military term used to describe a large-scale military operation by a defending force against an attacking enemy force (see offensive)

culture the customs and traditions that a community, society or civilisation develops over time that are passed down from generation to generation

D

daimyo a Japanese warlord

Daoism a set of principles and religious beliefs that heavily influenced the development of Chinese society; Daoists believe they must become one with the life force (or Dao) and balance the yin (female) and yang (male) forces that control everything in the world

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)

delta a fertile area of land that forms at the mouth of a river

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

depression a sustained, long-term downturn in economic activity in one or more economies; usually responsible for high levels of unemployment, decreases in the number of goods produced; significant changes in the value of different currencies and often a crisis in the banking or financial industry

digger 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

empathetic understanding 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

emperor someone who rules an empire; imperial China was ruled by a series of emperors

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

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

feudalism set of legal and military customs that served to organise the society of medieval Europe and Japan; under feudalism, a lord gave a fief (parcel of land) to a person in exchange for loyalty and support

First Fleet 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

Forbidden City, the the Chinese imperial palace in Beijing, China, that served as home to the emperor and the centre of Chinese government for almost 500 years during the rule of the Ming and Qing dynasties

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

G

Geneva Convention, the a term used to describe a number of international treaties and agreements that established a code of conduct for all countries during times of war; the agreement outlines the rights of prisoners (both military and civilian), and outlines protections for the wounded, and for civilians living in or around war zones

genocide the deliberate and systematic (planned) mass killing of people based on their race, ethnicity, religion or culture

ghetto a section of a town or city established by the Nazis during World War II to confine and isolate Jews and other 'undesirables' from the wider population

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

Great Depression, the a period of severe economic downturn that began in the United States and quickly spread around the world during the 1930s and 1940s; it was triggered by the stock market crash in 1929 and was one of the long-term causes of World War II

H

hierarchy a way of organising things (or people) from top down in order of importance or significance; ancient societies had strict hierarchies with a ruler at the top and peasants at the bottom

historical inquiry the process of examining historical evidence, conducting research and asking questions about it to find out about the past

Holocaust, the the deliberate and systematic (planned) mass murder of Jews and other 'undesirables' by the Nazis during World War II (see also *Shoah*)

hyperinflation extremely rapid and uncontrolled inflation (the rate at which the prices of goods and services rise); Germany experienced hyperinflation from 1921–1924 during which time prices rose so rapidly that money was effectively worthless

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

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

internment camp a prison camp set up to confine enemy aliens, prisoners of war or political prisoners

L

laissez-faire a concept central to the theory of capitalism; the idea that all transactions that take place within an economy should be free from government regulation and interference

League of Nations an international organisation established at the end of World War I to maintain world peace and prevent the outbreak of future wars by encouraging nations to negotiate with one another; the League of Nations had some early successes but ultimately failed in its primary purpose of preventing future wars

legacy something passed down or received from an ancestor or predecessor (e.g. a language, way of doing something)

legalism a Chinese philosophy introduced under China's first emperor that emphasised the importance of strictly obeying the law

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

mandarin a government official or bureaucrat in imperial China chosen by examination; the term was first used by Europeans and is taken from the Portuguese word *mandar* meaning 'to command'

Mandate of Heaven a traditional Chinese belief based on the idea that the emperor was chosen to rule by the gods; the Mandate of Heaven also outlined the privileges and responsibilities of the emperor

Meiji Restoration a period in Japanese history starting in 1868 when the last shogun was overthrown and the emperor regained control over Japan; during the Meiji Period (1868–1912), Japan opened up to the West and underwent a period of rapid modernisation and formed a strong central government

migration the movement of people from one place to another

militia a term used to describe a fighting force that is made up of non-professional (civilian) fighters

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

missionary a person sent to a foreign country or region to carry out religious or charitable work; missionaries often attempt to persuade others to adopt their religious beliefs

mobilisation (in military terms) the process of organising and preparing resources in the lead up to war

monarchy a system, state or country ruled by a monarch (e.g. a king or queen)

monopoly a situation in which a single company or organisation has complete control over a particular market for goods and services; a monopoly normally results in higher prices due to a lack of competition

monotheism a belief in one god

mythology a set of beliefs held by a particular people to help explain things that were not understood (e.g. strange natural events); these may include individual stories called myths

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

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

offensive a military term used to describe an attacking military campaign (see counter-offensive)

oligarchy a political system in which a small group of wealthy nobles or aristocrats have rule over the wider population

opium a drug made from the opium poppy; used today to produce heroin

Opium Wars, the two wars fought between China and European powers over the importation of opium and trading rights; the first was between China and Britain (1839–1842) and the second was fought by China against Britain and France (1856–1860) over China's refusal to allow the importation of opium from India by British traders

P

paramilitary a military group whose organisation and purpose is similar to a professional army, but not considered to be part of the official armed forces of a nation or state; often made up of civilians

paternalism the policy controlling the actions of a country or people in a paternal (fatherly) manner, especially by providing for their needs without granting them rights or responsibilities

patriarchal a term used to describe a society or system of government controlled by men

patriotism love of and devotion to one's country; national loyalty

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

polytheism a belief in many gods

primary source a source that existed or was made at the time being studied

prisoner of war (POW) a person (particularly a member of the armed forces of a nation) who is captured by, or surrenders to, enemy forces in wartime

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

provenance the origin of something; the history of the ownership of a source or artefact, especially when authenticated and documented

province a territory or region governed or controlled by a foreign empire or country

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

repatriation the process of returning soldiers to their place of origin or citizenship

representative democracy a system of democratic government in which certain people are elected by the public to represent their interests in parliament

republic a system of government in which the power lies with a group of elected officials rather than a king or queen

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

Sanskrit an ancient language of India and the language used in documenting the holy books of Hinduism

Second Fleet 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

selector (in colonial Australian history) a person who was granted permission from the Crown to settle sections of unsurveyed land from 1861 onwards through the process known as free selection; selectors often came into conflict with squatters, who already occupied the land and often managed to evade the law

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

Shoah a Hebrew word meaning 'catastrophe', used to describe the extermination of Jews by the Nazis during World War II (see also Holocaust)

shogun a title given to Japan's top military ruler between the 12th and 19th centuries

significance a key concept in history: the importance given to a particular historical event, person, development or issue

Silk Road a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

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 a 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

steppe a vast stretch of grassland (i.e. without trees) with extreme weather conditions; typically found in places like Siberia and Mongolia

stupa (pronounced STOO•pa) a dome-shaped religious building used to store important Buddhist relics (religious objects)

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

Third Reich a term used to describe the German state from 1933 to 1945 when it was under the rule of Adolf Hitler and the Nazi Party

time period a block of time in history

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

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 1882-1915

Triple Entente the alliance formed between Great Britain, France and Russia that formed the basis of the Allied powers during World War I

U

Untouchable a member of the lowest class in Indian society according to the Hindu caste system; members of higher castes were forbidden from touching them; now referred to as dalits

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

White Australia policy 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

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

INDEX

A

Aborigines *see* Indigenous Australians

Adams, John 112

Aerial warfare 258, 279, 305, 309, 311

Afghans 159, 182

Africa 8, 10

imperialism and 8, 10, 54

Agricultural Revolution 5, 10, 22–23, 60, 63

Alliance system 274–276

American Revolution *see* United States of America, War of Independence

An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations 108, 125

animal breeding 5, 23, 63

anti-Semitism 270, 299–300, 305, 312–314, 328–330. *See also* Racism

Anzac Day 261, 268–269, 352–354

ANZACs 268, 280, 282–286, 352

legend of 353–354

appeasement 302–303

Arkwright, Richard 18, 31

Armistice 269, 296, 299–300, 352

Armistice Day *see* Remembrance Day

arms race 257, 276

Art of War, The 224

artillery 9, 258, 278–280, 283–284, 287–289, 310

Asia 8, 145–155

assimilation 178–179, 264

Ataturk, Mustafa Kemal 282, 286

atomic bombs 258, 267, 271, 298, 309, 311, 315–317

Auschwitz–Birkenau 312, 331–332. *See also* Concentration camps; and Holocaust

Australia

agriculture in 12, 25, 90, 101–102, 138, 166, 168–170, 173

capitalism and 138–139

communication 19, 27, 38, 159, 173, 182, 196

constitution of 95, 111, 144, 157, 202–209

defence of 204–205

development of 101–103

education in 191, 198, 201

Federation of 27, 61, 103, 109, 144, 159, 202–207, 210

government in 159, 202, 208–209

housing 193

identity 12, 115, 204, 256, 261, 352

Industrial Revolution and 27

landscape of 170–172

migration to 27, 54, 159, 205–206, 349

non-European people in 182–185

population of 10, 71, 103, 173–174, 190, 292, 338

post World War II 348

settlement of 11–12, 60, 71, 138, 160–161, 164–173, 188

timeline for 158–159, 205

transport 27, 102–103, 159, 170, 173, 182, 196–197, 264

way of life in 188–191, 194–198, 211–212, 264–265

working conditions in 192–194, 211–212

World War I and 256–262, 268, 277, 282–289, 292–296

World War II and 256–262, 305–309, 318–322, 338–341, 344–347

Australian Imperial Force (AIF) 277, 288, 296, 309, 318–319, 322, 325, 353

Australian Labor Party 109, 117, 188, 293, 338

Austro–Hungarian Empire 15, 109, 119, 243, 268, 273–276, 280

Axis powers 304

B

Bakewell, Robert 23

Balkan states 14, 273–275

banking 25

banners 223, 226

Barton, Edmund 159

Bastille prison 113

storming of 109, 113

Batman, John 158, 166–167, 170

Battle of Britain 270, 306

Battle of France 310

Battle of Hamel 259, 287–288

Battle of Midway 271, 309

Battle of Milne Bay 309

Battle of Omdurman 9

Battle of the Coral Sea 271, 309

Battle of the Somme 268, 279, 287 *see also* Western Front

Belgium 14, 26, 249, 257, 268, 270, 273–276, 278, 280, 287, 292, 299, 305, 310

World War I and 268, 270, 273–276, 278–280, 287, 289, 292

World War II and 270, 305, 310

Bell, Alexander Graham 19, 38

BHP 27, 192, 294

Blake, William 42

Blitz, The 270, 305–306

Blitzkrieg 258, 305, 310–311

Bonaparte, Napoleon (Napoleon I) 56, 114, 137

Boston Tea Party 112

Boucicaut, Aristide 137–138

Boxer Rebellion 219, 243–247

bride-price 232,

Britain

birth and death rates in 7, 21, 47, 63

China and 216, 218–219, 239–241. *See also* Opium Wars

Empire of 8–12, 15, 24–25, 60–61, 66, 70, 108–109, 112, 119–120, 150–151, 158, 160, 218, 241 *see also* Imperialism

India and 54, 120, 145, 150–151 *see also* Indian Mutiny

Industrial Revolution and 7–8, 20–25, 42–56, 62–64

naval power 25, 226, 282

population of 7, 21, 50, 63

social classes in 5, 7, 14–15, 20–22, 42, 44–45, 47, 51–52, 64, 86–87, 97, 115–118, 122, 128, 132–133, 136–138

world wars and 257–258, 268–282, 285, 287, 304–307, 310

British East India Company 25, 54, 112, 145, 150, 240

Brunel, Isambard Kingdom 19, 33, 41

Buddhism 146, 228, 234

bush myth 189–190

C

Canada 22, 24–25, 54, 70, 292, 355

world wars and 292, 355

canals 18, 21, 34, 272

capital 126

labour and 126–127, 131

capitalism 13, 25, 106, 108, 115–116, 124–133, 136–139

development of 124–125

impacts of 136–139

opposition to 132

captains of industry 129

Carnegie, Andrew 129

cars 19, 36, 196–197, 264, 348

caste system *see* India, caste system

Catholic Church 13, 115–116

censorship 260, 262, 293, 339, 341

census 95, 178, 205, 207

change within tradition 145

Changi 320 *see also* Prisoners of War (POWs)

Chartism, Chartists 7, 13, 15, 53, 68, 71, 103, 106, 108, 115, 122

child labour 6–7, 28, 30, 43–46, 64

China

arts 229–230

contact with Europeans 54, 216, 218–219, 238–247. *See also* Opium Wars

daily life in 226–227, 231–235

industrialisation 56

modernisation 219, 226, 242

nationalism in 247–249

physical features of 220–221

religion and culture in 228

social and economic features of 222–225

timeline for 218–219

World War I and 219, 249–250

See also Qing Dynasty

Chinese immigrants 185, 206, 210

gold rush and 185

reactions to 185, 206

Chisholm, Caroline 68

Churchill, Winston 282

cities

growth of 4, 47, 50–52, 62, 136

life in 47

Citizen Military Force 309, 318

Clive, Robert 150

coal 5, 16, 21, 25–26, 32, 35, 226, 359

demand for 32, 35

see also mining

code breaking 310

Cohong merchants 238–239

colonisation *see* European empires; and Imperialism

communism, communists 7, 117, 132–133, 264, 299, 329, 339

Communist Manifesto, The 109, 117, 132

competition 126–127

concentration camps 300, 312–314, 320, 335, 367

Confucianism 146, 220, 228, 232, 238

conscription 260, 269, 292–293, 338

Constitution of Australia *see* Australia, constitution

constitutional monarchy 114
 consumer goods 21, 51, 126, 264, 294, 348
 consumerism 136–138
 continuity and change 145, 356–357
 convicts 10–12, 60–61, 68, 74, 101, 160, 165–166, 203
 emancipation of 89
 experiences of 86–87
 punishment of 80, 88
 transport of 10–11, 15, 60, 64, 66–68, 101, 161
 Cook, Joseph 357
 cottage industries 28
 cotton 5, 8, 10, 16, 26, 30–31, 54, 74
 gin 18, 30
 see also textiles industry
 Council of Australian Governments (COAG) 209
 counter-offensives 284
 crime 10, 12, 27, 47, 58, 64, 66, 68
 Crompton, Samuel 18, 31
 Crompton's Mule 18, 30–31
 crop rotation 22–23, 63
 crop yields 5, 63
 Curtin, John 319, 322, 348

D

D-Day 271, 305
 Daimler, Gottfried 19, 36
 Daoism 228
 dark Satanic mills 42, 46, 64
 Darwin, bombing of 259, 271, 309, 325, 339
 Darwin, Charles 15, 109, 121–122
 Darwinism 13, 15, 106, 115, 121
 reactions to 15, 121
 social 15, 122
 Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen 114
 deforestation 55
 democracy 4, 70, 103
 in Australia 12, 68, 202–212
 origins of 4, 70
 department stores 137–138
 depression
 1890s 159, 188–189
 1930s *see* Great Depression
 Diesel, Rudolf 36
 disease, outbreaks of 80, 92–93, 263, 269, 344
 dogfights 279 *see also* aerial warfare
 dowry 232
 Dresden, bombing of 305–306

E

Eastern Front 258, 271, 280, 304–305, 307
 Edison, Thomas 19, 37–38, 41

education 4, 6, 21, 29, 43–44, 46, 64, 95, 100, 110, 117, 131, 139, 153, 179, 188, 191, 198, 234, 238, 249, 329, 345, 346
 egalitarianism 13–14, 106, 112, 118, 189, 354
 Eiffel Tower 35
Einsatzgruppen 314, 332
 electricity 5, 21, 32, 37, 264
 invention of 19, 37
 emancipists 89
 Empress Dowager Cixi 219, 237, 244–245, 247–248
 enclosures 5, 22, 63
 enemy aliens 260, 295, 338–340
 Engels, Friedrich 7, 13, 52, 109, 117, 132–133
 Enigma code 310
 Enlightenment, the 13, 108, 110–111, 115
 entertainment 50–51, 264
 mass 51, 264
 entrepreneurs 13, 115, 136–137
 Eureka Rebellion 92, 103, 122
 European empires 4, 8–9, 13, 15, 24, 100, 108, 114–115, 119–120, 204, 241–242, 273, 276
 expansion of 8–9, 13, 24, 108, 114–115, 119, 204, 241–242
 Indigenous people and 160–181
 Industrial Revolution and 8
 expatriates 89
 extermination camps 320, 331.
 See also Concentration camps

F

factories 4, 21, 37
 female 87
 factory system 5, 21, 28–29, 36
 farming 4–5
 machinery and 23
 fascism 299
 Father of Federation *see* Parkes, Henry
 Faraday, Michael 19, 37
 Ferdinand, Franz 257, 268, 273, 275, 358, 360
 feudalism 116, 124–125
 Final Solution 271, 305, 314, 328, 367 *see also* Holocaust
 First Fleet 60, 67–68, 80, 108, 158, 161
 Fisher, Andrew 293
 Flying Shuttle 18, 30–31
 foot binding 216, 233
 Forbidden City 227, 244
 forced-labour camps 320, 331 *see also* concentration camps
 Ford, Henry 19, 36
 France
 Empire of 8, 15, 24, 114, 119

 revolution in *see* Revolution, French
 Franklin, Benjamin 112
 free settlers 65, 70–71, 82–83, 86–87, 101, 168, 203
 experiences of 82–83, 90–91
 free trade 127, 204, 207
 French Revolution *see* Revolution, French
 Fulton, Robert 33

G

Gallipoli 291, 353
 Gallipoli campaign 258, 268, 280, 282–286, 353–354
 end of 285
 Galvani, Luigi 37
 Geneva Convention 320–321
 genocide 312, 334
 Germany
 aggression of 301–303
 formation of 109
 Treaty of Versailles and 298–299
 world wars and 257–258, 268–281, 287–288, 304–307, 310–311.
 See also Hitler, Adolf; and Holocaust
 ghettos 312–313, 367
 gold rushes 11–12, 27, 61, 70–71, 92, 101–103, 128, 159, 173–174, 185
 Griffith, Samuel 205
 Great Depression 265, 269, 299, 301, 303
 Greenway, Francis 68, 89

H

Hargrave, Lawrence 196
 Hargraves, Edward 61, 71, 92
 Hargreaves, John 18, 31
 Heidelberg School 189–190
 Highland Clearances 65
 Hiroshima, bombing of 258, 298, 309, 311, 315–317 *see also* atomic bomb
 historical concepts 356–361
 cause and effect 358
 contestability 361
 continuity and change 356–357
 empathetic understanding 359–360
 perspectives 359
 significance 360
 historical skills 362–371
 analysis and use of sources 363–366
 comprehension 362–363
 empathetic understanding 368
 explanation and

communication 370–371
 perspectives and interpretations 367–368
 research 368–370
 History Wars 181
 Hitler, Adolf 257, 263, 270–271, 299–305, 312, 328–329, 332, 367
 appeasement of 302–303
 death of 305
 Holocaust 258, 298, 305, 311–314, 328–335, 367
 death toll of 332–333
 deniers of 333, 367
 impact of 334
 survivors of 335–336 *see also* Refugees
 'House Divided' speech 98–99 *see also* Lincoln, Abraham
 Hughes, William (Billy) 260, 292–293, 296
 hulks 11, 66
 Hurriers 6, 135
 hyperinflation 299

I

imperialism 4, 8–9, 13, 15, 24, 100, 108, 114–115, 119, 150, 204, 241–242, 273, 276. *See also* European empires
 industrial 15
 India
 caste system 147, 149
 European powers and 54, 120, 145, 150–151
 religion 146
 society 147–148
 supplying resources 24–25, 30
 Indian Mutiny 150
 Indigenous Australians
 convicts and settlers and 93–95, 101, 166–168, 175–177, 181
 dispossession 162, 175
 Federation and 95, 207, 210–211
 government policies and 95, 144, 178, 181, 207, 210–211, 264
 missions 264
 traditional communities 162–163
 world wars and 259, 296, 325, 347
 individual freedom 25
 Industrial Revolution 4–8, 16, 20–21, 24–25, 60, 108, 111–112, 114, 116, 119, 128, 132, 136–137, 160, 272–273, 359
 cities and 10, 21, 47, 136
 European Empires and 8, 24, 54
 experiences of men, women and children in 42

impacts of 6, 12, 27–28, 48, 50–51, 55, 136–137

key inventions and innovations of 5, 16, 18–19, 21, 28, 30–38

living conditions and 6, 42, 64

movement of people and 7, 10, 16, 62, 70

origins of 20–21, 24–25

spread of 26–27

timeline of 18–19

working conditions and 5, 28, 30, 42–46, 133, 135

industrialists 13, 21, 42, 51–52, 128, 136

infant mortality rates 6, 190, 194, 212

internal combustion engine 5, 19, 36

internment camps 260, 295, 340

Inventions and innovations *see* Industrial Revolution, key inventions and innovations

Ireland, nationalism in 14, 103, 109, 119, 293

iron 5, 35

production of 9, 35

Irving, David 333, 337, 367

Israel, creation of 335–336

J

Japan 145–152

aggression of 26, 154–155, 303, 308–309

bombing of 309, 315–317, 340

European powers and 145, 152

immigrants from 159, 184

Industrial Revolution and 26

religion 146

society 148–149

World War I and 274–275

World War II and 271, 308, 309, 315–317, 320–322, 347 *see also* atomic bomb

Jefferson, Thomas 111–112, 114

Jewish persecution *see* anti-Semitism; and Holocaust

Jobs, Steve 41

July Crisis of 1914 273–274

K

Kay, John 18, 30

Kokoda Trail 259, 271, 322–323, 353, 357

Korea 154–155, 242

kowtow 227, 238–239

Kristallnacht 270, 329 *see also* anti-Semitism; and Holocaust

L

laissez-faire 126–127

League of Nations 296, 299, 303, 349

weakness of 303

Lenoir, Étienne 19, 36

life expectancy 6, 20, 47, 190

Light Horse Brigade 269, 280, 284, 286

Lincoln, Abraham 98–99

Locke, John 110–111

looms 18, 20, 28–31 *see also* textiles industry

Luddites 57, 68

Luftwaffe 305

M

MacArthur, Douglas 348

Macartney, Earl 239–240

Macassans 182

machine guns 9, 258, 278–280, 287, 310

machine-made tools 9

Maginot Line 310

Manchus 220, 222–223, 229–230, 233, 235, 247–249

Mandarin 223

Manhattan Project 315

manufacturing 4, 16, 42

employment and 42

Manzetti, Innocenzo 38

Marx, Karl 7, 13, 52, 109, 117, 132–133

mass communication 4

mass production 4, 6–7, 9, 16, 30, 264

mass shootings 258, 314, 332

mass transport 4, 36

Mawson, Douglas 355

Maybach, Wilhelm 19, 36

McCrae, Georgiana 96–97

McCubbin, Frederick 189

Meiji Restoration 26, 145, 153–155

Mein Kampf 312, 328

Menzies, Robert 318–319, 357

merchants 21, 25, 51, 74, 98, 101, 148, 188–189, 204, 216, 218, 222, 224, 238, 239–241, 243, 305

Meucci, Antonio 38

missionaries 54, 152, 238, 243

mobilisation 276

Monash, John 288

monopolies 125

Morgan, JP 129

Morse Code 19, 38

Morse, Samuel 19, 38

movement of peoples 4–5, 10–11, 54, 60–62, 70, 102–103, 173

assisted migrants 71, 166

impact of 5, 98

imperialism and 10, 54

Industrial Revolution and 7, 10, 16, 62, 64

pull factors 11, 70

push factors 11

to cities 5, 16, 62–63, 66, 136

see also convicts, transport of; Gold Rush; and Slaves, transportation of

Mughul Empire 146–148, 150

Myer 140–141

N

Nagasaki, bombing of 258, 298, 309, 311, 315–317 *see also* Atomic bomb

nationalism 14, 103, 106–107, 109, 115, 118–119, 216, 247–248, 257, 276, 293

World War I and 14, 276,

naval power 25

Nazi Party 257–258, 270, 271, 299–301, 305, 312–314, 328–334, 340, 367

rise of 299–300

New Lanark 29–30, 43

New Guinea

Australian control of 296, 299

German annexation of 206

annexation of 206, 296, 299

World War II and 257, 259, 271, 304, 309, 318, 322–324, 353, 357 *see also* Kokoda Trail

New World 11, 70–71

New Zealand

as part of Australian Federation 203, 205

World War I and 274, 280, 283–284, 286, 292 *see also* ANZACs

no man's land 287

nomadic lifestyles 94

Normandy 26, 271, 305

North America *see* Canada; and United States of America

Nuremberg war crimes trials 328, 331, 333–334, 336

Nuremberg Laws 329

O

offensives 284

On the Origin of Species 15, 109, 121

Operation Barbarossa 271, 305

opium 218, 240–241

Opium Wars 218–219, 240–241

Ottoman Empire 14–15, 119, 273–275, 280, 282

Owen, Robert 29–30, 43, 53, 133

P

Palestine 335–336

Parkes, Henry 159, 205, 214

Parsons, Charles 19, 37

paternalism 178

patriarchal society 148

patriotism 296

Pearl Harbor, bombing of 271, 309, 338

pearl industry 159, 184

Pemulwuy 60, 93, 362, 368

penal colonies *see* convicts

Perry, Matthew 152

philanthropy 129

Phillip, Arthur 160

phoney war 305

poison gas 258, 278, 310

political prisoners 68, 312

pollution 29, 55–56, 192

population growth 7, 10, 21, 50, 55, 63, 70–71, 103, 115, 173–174, 224

porcelain 224, 229–231

Potsdam Declaration 315–316

power stations 21, 37

prisoners of war (POWs) 259, 309, 320–321, 347

treatment of 320–321

progressive ideas and movements 4, 13, 110

timeline of 108–109

propaganda 214, 260, 262, 266, 277, 293–295, 300–301, 339, 357, 364

Q

Qing Dynasty 146, 155, 223, 226–235, 238–248 *see also* China

children in 234

women in 232–233

R

racism 103, 185, 204, 206–207, 210–211, 296 *see also* anti-Semitism

railways 19, 21, 32–34, 41, 51, 182, 196, 272

Rats of Tobruk 305 *see also* Tobruk

referenda 202, 205

refrigeration 194, 264, 348

refugees 71, 185, 335–336, 349

Remembrance Day 261, 352

reparations 296, 299

repatriation *see* returned servicemen

representative democracy *see* democracy

returned servicemen 344–346

revolution

1911 219, 248

Agricultural *see* Agricultural Revolution

American *see* United States of America, War of Independence

French 4, 13–14, 108, 111–114, 116, 118, 203

Industrial. *See* Industrial Revolution

Russian 109

right to vote 15, 53, 95, 108, 207, 211

Righteous and Harmonious Fists 243

rivers
 power and 7, 20, 30, 43
 settlement and 170
 roads 20–21, 27, 34, 67, 86, 103, 166, 170, 173, 209, 222, 272, 325
 Roaring Twenties 264
 robber barons 128–130
 Roberts, Tom 189
 Rockefeller, John D. 129
 Rousseau, Jean-Jacques 110–111
 Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF) 318, 320, 325
 royal families 272
 Russia
 World War I and 268, 272–275, 280, 282
 World War II and 304–305, 307
 revolution *see* Revolution, Russian

S
samurai 148, 153
 Schlieffen Plan 274
 Second Fleet 60, 68, 80, 161, 369
 selectors 90
 self-government 14, 157, 165, 202–212
 Self-Strengthening Movement *see* China, modernisation
 separation of powers 111
 sewerage 6, 20, 50, 194–195
Shoah 312 *see also* anti-Semitism; and Holocaust
Shogun 26, 148, 152
 Singapore, fall of 309, 318, 338, 348
 Slater, Samuel 26
 slave ships 75
 slavery 10, 54, 60–61, 65, 74, 359–360
 consequences of 98–100
 opposition to 60–61, 99
 trans-Atlantic 4, 10, 60, 74, 98
 slaves
 capture of 74, 76, 100
 descendants of 78, 100
 transportation of 10, 60, 74–77
 slums 6, 47, 66
 Smith, Adam 108, 125, 131, 139
 snipers 283–284, 288
 social contract 111
 Social Darwinism *see* Darwinism, social
 social divisions 52
 social mobility 137
 socialism 7, 13, 106, 115–117, 133, 138–139
 rise of 7, 52, 115, 132
 South Sea Islanders 159, 183–184, 210
 sovereignty 114
 Spencer, Herbert 122
 Spinning Jenny 5, 18, 30–31
 sport 50–51

squatters 90, 169, 172, 176–177
 steam engines 5, 9, 18, 21, 29, 32, 36–37, 108, 226 *see also* railways
 steam hammer 5
 steamships 5, 33
 Stephenson, George 19, 32
 Stephenson's Rocket 19, 32
 stormtroopers 300
 Summer Palace 229, 249
 Sun Yat-sen 219, 247, 249
 supply and demand 126–127
 survival of the fittest *see* Darwinism
 Swan, Joseph 37

T
 Taiping Rebellion 185, 218, 252
 tanks 256, 258, 279, 307, 310–311, 325
 tariffs 27, 125, 139, 204, 206–207, 211
 telegraph 19, 21, 27, 38, 51, 151, 159, 182
 invention of 38
 telephone 5, 21, 38, 51
 invention of 19, 38
terra nullius 144, 156, 161, 168, 361
 textiles industry 4, 21, 26, 28, 30–31
 child labour and 28, 44, 46
 see also cotton
 Third Reich 300–301
 Tibet 220–221
 ticket of leave 89 *see also* convicts, emancipation of
 timelines 18–19, 60–61, 108–109, 158–159, 205, 218–219, 268–269
 Tobruk 305, 353 *see also* Rats of Tobruk
 Tolpuddle Martyrs 15, 68, 133
 Torres Strait Islanders *see* Indigenous Australians
 Townshend, Charles 23
 trade, triangular 10, 65, 74
 trade unions 4, 7, 67, 117, 133, 139
 emergence of 7, 15, 52–53, 133
 trading power 25
 transformation 145
 treason 66, 88
 Treaty of Versailles 249–250, 263, 269, 296, 298–301
 terms of 298
 Trench warfare 258, 280–281, 284–285, 287–289, 310
 Trevithick, Richard 18, 32
 triangular trade *see* trade, triangular
 Triple Alliance 274
 Triple Entente 274
 Turkey *see* Ottoman Empire
 World War I and. *See* Gallipoli campaign

tycoons 128–129
 Tzu, Sun 224

U
 United Nations 334, 349
 foundation of 349
 United States of America
 Civil War 61, 98–99, 202, 359
 Constitution 111
 Declaration of Independence 112–114, 118
 Industrial Revolution and 13, 26, 41
 post World War II 348
 War of Independence (American Revolution) 4, 13–14, 24, 66, 108, 112–114, 116, 118, 160, 202–203
 world wars and 261, 271, 288, 304, 309, 314–316, 319–320, 323, 325
 Universal Declaration of Human Rights 328, 334
 urbanisation 47, 50, 52, 136 *see also* cities, growth of
 USSR *see* Russia

V
 Van Dieman's Land 11, 68, 158, 165–166
 Vanderbilt, Cornelius 128–129
 Vietnam 219, 242, 353
 Volta, Alessandro 37
 Voltaire 110–111

W
 wage, minimum 117, 139, 159, 211–212
 war commemorations 261, 267–268, 284, 286, 352–353
 War Guilt Clause 299
 water frame 30
 Watson, Thomas 38
 Watt, James 18, 32–33, 108
 websites 369
 Western Front 258–259, 268–269, 280, 287–288, 296, 310
 stalemate on 280–281, 287
 women on 288
 White Australia policy 103, 182, 204, 210 *see also* racism
 WikiLeaks 364
 Wikipedia 363–364
 Wilberforce, William 79
 Whitney, Eli 18
 women
 equality for 4
 joining armed forces 324
 work and 6, 260, 294, 318, 340–341
 world wars and 259–261, 288, 294, 318, 324–325, 340–341

wool, wool industry 5, 12, 16, 25, 30–31, 138, 160, 166, 168, 226
see also textiles industry
 workers' rights 4, 117, 139, 188, 192, 353
 World War I
 Australia and 256–262, 268, 277, 282–289, 292–296
 casualty rates 263, 285, 292
 causes of 14, 268, 272–276, 358
 China and 219, 249–250
 communications 258, 279
 end of 269
 impacts of 259–260, 292–294, 344
 nature of 278–279
 theatres of 268–269, 280–287
 timeline of 268–269
 women and 259–261, 288, 294
 World War II
 Australia and 256–262, 305–309, 318–322, 338–341, 344–347
 casualty rates 315, 323, 338
 causes of 298, 301–303
 end of 271, 309
 impacts of 260, 338, 344
 in the Pacific 271, 296, 304, 308–309, 315–317, 322–323
 nature of 310–311
 theatres of 270–271, 304–310
 timeline of 270–271
 women and 259–260, 318, 324–325, 340–341
 Wright Brothers (Wilbur and Orville) 19, 36

Z
 Zeppelins 258, 279
 Zhong guo 238

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This US poster dating back to World War II was created by artist J. Howard Miller for the Westinghouse Company's War Production Coordinating Committee in 1942. It features a fictional character now commonly known as 'Rosie the Riveter' who became a cultural icon in the United States. The poster was originally intended to improve production and to boost the morale of women working at the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company and encourage them to participate fully in production. It was not until the early 1980s that the poster was rediscovered and became famous. Today, 'Rosie the Riveter' has become a symbol of feminism and women's economic power.

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