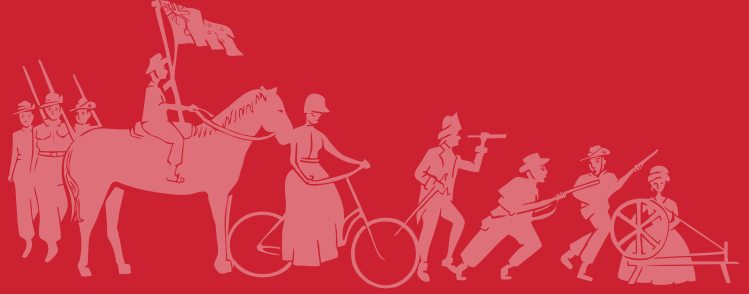


# 1



## Overview: the making of the modern world (1750–1918)

**Source 1.1** *Across the Continent: Westward the Course of Empire Takes its Way*, Frances Flora Palmer (1868)



# Before you start

## Main focus

Between 1750 and 1918, new political ideas of equality, human mobility, industrialisation and expanding empires all created a very different, modern world.

## Why it's relevant today

We live in a globalised world that continues to industrialise, particularly in countries like China, India and Brazil. Constitutional democracy based on principles of equality is an increasingly powerful political model. Studying the making of the modern world enables us to understand these broad patterns of change.

## Inquiry questions

- How did industrialisation change economic patterns and people's lives?
- What systems of unfree labour and reasons for migration caused the mass movement of people?
- Which ideas led to political revolutions and what were their consequences?
- Which countries were imperial powers and which areas became their colonies?

## Key terms

- colonies
- egalitarianism
- industrialisation
- settlers
- suffrage
- democracy
- imperialism
- modernity
- slavery

## Significant individuals

- Adam Smith
- John Locke
- Thomas Jefferson
- Catherine Helen Spence
- Mohandas Gandhi

# Let's begin

The invention of the steam engine, mechanisation, factories and mass production created new industrial economies and living conditions. At the same time, systems of unfree labour, including slavery and convict transportation, built colonies in the Americas, Australia and elsewhere. New political beliefs in individual rights and human equality sparked revolutions and led to new systems of constitutional democracy. Settlers and migrants moved around the world on a new mass scale. This modern world was captured by artists and writers, and in the new media of photography and film.



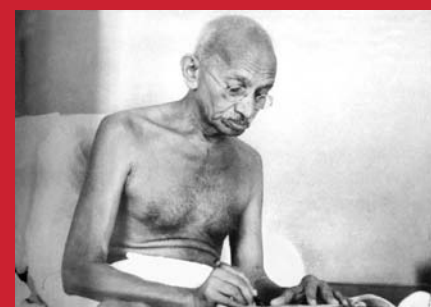
**Source 1.2** The East India ship *Mellish* entering the harbour of Sydney



**Source 1.3** Uniform of a convict of Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), c. 1830s-40s



**Source 1.4** Bas relief depicting end of slave trade in Britain



**Source 1.5** Mohandas Gandhi

# Timeline

## CHAPTER EVENTS

American Revolution **1775–83**

French Revolution **1789–92**

Slavery is abolished **1833**  
across the British Empire

Australia's states are **1901**  
joined in a federation

World War I **1914–18**

**1788** Britain begins to  
colonise Australia

**1807** Slave trade is abolished in  
the British Empire

**1857–58** Indian Rebellion  
against British rule is suppressed

**1902** Australian women are  
granted suffrage and the right to  
stand for parliament



**Source 1.6** George Washington at the Siege of Yorktown during the American Revolution



**Source 1.7** An angry crowd about to burn a portrait of Tsar Nicholas II on the streets of Petrograd



**Source 1.8** The Palace of Versailles became an opulent symbol of the power of absolute monarchy



**Source 1.9** Invitation to the opening of the first parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia





Source 1.10 The World: Commercial Highways (1910)



## The Industrial Revolution

Since the eighteenth century, industrialisation has been a major force in the modern world. It has driven large-scale economic changes that have shaped relations between industrialised countries (such as in Europe) and other countries – often colonies – that the wealthier countries came to depend on as sources of raw materials and as markets for manufactured goods. **Mechanisation**,

**mechanisation** the invention and use of machines for farming, production and transport

mass production and new forms of energy such as steam and electricity transformed the production of goods, the market economy based on those goods,

the standard of living of many people, and the way of life of even more. They also affected everyday aspects of life such as transportation, the structure of the household, and the nature of men and women's work. Prior to the Industrial Revolution, households were relatively self-sufficient. A wide variety of goods was produced on farms and in **rural** households, and most

**rural** of the countryside

items consumed by households were produced within their

region and sold locally at regional markets. With industrialisation from the eighteenth century, production became specialised. Whole factories, cities, regions and countries came to produce limited ranges of goods, and to be dependent on their ability to market those goods over distances in exchange for other goods or money.

The capability to market and trade goods over long distances has evolved gradually since the late eighteenth century, with improvements in transportation such as canals and better roads in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, railways and steamships in the nineteenth century, and cars and aeroplanes in the twentieth century. The invention of refrigeration and the introduction of refrigerated ships in the late nineteenth century made possible the marketing of fresh and frozen food over distances previously unimaginable. For a country like Australia, refrigerated ships could send frozen meat to Britain and elsewhere. Long-distance transportation also led to bigger markets, and bigger markets encouraged large-scale production. Changes in the production

and distribution of goods have meant that more goods have become available to more people around the world, creating an appearance of a

**homogeneous** Westernised culture based on materialism and consumerism. But inequalities

of wealth and power between nations have continued, and there has not been a blanket effect of cultural change.

**Indigenous** cultures around the world have absorbed

Western material goods in different ways, and have adapted them to their own ends.

In the period from 1750 to 1918, industrialisation in Europe, America and elsewhere was driven by a combination of technological, economic and social factors. It had broad-ranging consequences for European economies, political and social structures, and the daily lives of Europeans. The drive for raw materials, new markets and cheap labour was a major factor in

European global **imperialism** from the eighteenth century, and the expansion of the United States in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

The social consequences of industrialisation included the large-scale migration of peoples: slaves, **indentured labourers**, settlers and migrants. European colonies around the world felt

the impacts of these changes throughout the period, and by the twentieth century industrialisation had taken off in East Asia.

**homogeneous** similar or of the same type

**indigenous** native to, or belonging to, a particular land or region

**imperialism** the domination of one or more nations by another, which seeks to use the wealth and people of the dominated nation for its own interests

**indentured labour** a system in which workers enter contracts to perform labour at reduced wages for a certain period of time, usually at a place far from their home

## The Industrial Revolution in Australia

By the second half of the nineteenth century, most Australian colonies had gained self-government and were free settler societies with growing economies based largely on wheat, sheep (for both wool and meat) and cattle, and mining for gold, copper and other ores. Cities grew with a rapidity that astonished observers. Colonial governments oversaw the building of roads, railways, ports, gas lighting, the postal system, the telegraph and other utilities. But it was not only infrastructure



that was quickly built; Australian cities and towns also soon came to boast theatres, sports grounds, parks, libraries, museums and art galleries.

By 1901, the capitals of the Australian states had become flourishing cities, and Australia as a

newly federated nation needed a national capital. Federal parliamentarians carefully selected an inland site between the two rival cities Sydney and Melbourne. In 1913, American architect Walter Burley Griffin and his wife Marion Mahoney



**Source 1.11** Working-class families often lived in extremely cramped conditions. This 1890 photograph shows a family living in one room in a poor area of New York.

## *Times gone by ...*

Melbourne has made a place for itself, and is the undoubted capital, not only of Victoria but of all Australia ... I believe that no city has ever attained so great a size with such rapidity. Forty years ago from the present date [1873], the foot of no white man had trodden the ground on which Melbourne now stands ... It is impossible for a man to walk the length of Collins Street up by the churches and the club to the Treasury Chambers, and then round by the Houses of Parliament away into Victoria Parade, without being struck by the grandeur of the dimensions of the town.

**Source 1.12** The prominent English novelist Anthony Trollope on his travels around Australia in 1873

Trollope considered himself to be an urbane and cosmopolitan Briton. Reflect on what you think his comments suggest about the development of Australian colonies.

Griffin won the international competition for Canberra's design with a plan for a city centred on a lake, with separate governmental and civic sections, garden suburbs, parks and trees. Canberra's planning and construction would continue to be a national project for the rest of the twentieth century.

### How the Industrial Revolution affected living and working conditions

For those who worked in domestic service or the expanding number of factories, textile mills, mines and breweries, life could be a hard daily grind. Before industrialisation, the household was the centre of production and all members of the family participated in work, including children. Child labour in factories was therefore not new in and of itself, but the conditions and the hazards for child workers were new. As countries industrialised, the middle classes expanded and there was greater demand for education. Throughout the nineteenth century, schools grew in number in industrialised countries, and legal requirements were introduced for children to be kept at school until they were 12 or 14. In some poorer and colonised countries, access to education also improved, but in limited ways and often with racial restrictions. In settler societies

like Australia, a few Indigenous people attended mission schools, but education was fundamentally for the white settlers.

Industrialisation meant the separation of home and work, with the introduction of workshops, factories and office buildings. It also introduced a new gendered division of work that cast men as the 'breadwinners' with the important jobs and main incomes, and rendered women as dependents who kept house or, if they did work, deserving of only low wages. For many working-class women who had to support themselves and their families, this created limited opportunities and real hardships. Domestic service was a major area of women's work. Some women ran small businesses like boarding houses and shops; others worked on farms, perhaps with their husbands. Some sewed on machines in factories, or at home in poor conditions that became known as 'sweated labour'.

In Australia, industrialisation meant that men worked in tough and dangerous conditions down mines and in factories, and in hard construction labour on roads, buildings, railway lines, water and sewerage pipes, and telegraph and telephone systems. Some men drove drays and wagons; others worked as **drovers**, shearers and agricultural labourers on the pastoral stations and farms expanding across the continent.

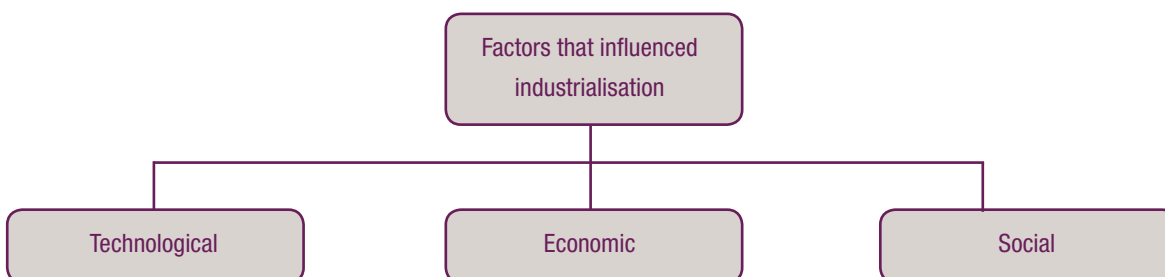
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**drover** a person who drives a herd of animals long distances

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### Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, list the factors that contributed to industrialisation in Europe, America and elsewhere in the period from 1750 to 1918.







**Source 1.13** A photograph of King William Street, Adelaide, taken from the Adelaide Town Hall in 1865 by Townsend Duryea. It is one of a series of 14 that comprise a full panorama of the growing city.

## Modernity and representation: art and photographs

As industrialisation changed ways of production, the places of production (from home to workshop or factory) and the conditions of work, it also changed the way the modern world was depicted and recorded. The printing press was invented as early as the fifteenth century. In the nineteenth century, cheap newspapers and books revolutionised the flow of information around the world and helped to rapidly raise levels of literacy. From the end of the eighteenth century, **lithography** enabled the mass production of the older art form of etchings. As part of the print revolution of the nineteenth century, lithographs allowed people to see views and scenery on a mass scale not possible with paintings. Lithographs

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**lithography** the process of making a drawing or design on a stone or metal plate, so that multiple impressions in ink can be taken from it

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were not only part of modern technology, but they also captured the rapid changes shaped by technology and industrialisation. For example, the famous 1868 lithograph by

Frances Flora Palmer for the company Currier and Ives, titled *Across the Continent: Westward the Course of Empire Takes its Way* (see the beginning of this chapter), shows two Native Americans on horses being forced aside by the settlement of towns across the American west, and the key part the railroad played in that process.

From the 1830s, the first kind of photographs, called ‘daguerreotypes’ after inventor Louis Daguerre, enabled what must have seemed the miracle of capturing actual images of people and scenes. Photography advanced and spread rapidly in the nineteenth century. In the early nineteenth century, prosperous families who wanted images of themselves would commission artists to paint portraits. By the late nineteenth century, photography studios sprang up in towns and cities, and people began to have their photos taken – at first in set poses with the background supplied by the photographer.

The emergence of photography in the mid nineteenth century coincided with the rapid development of Australian cities, and the photographic record allows us to see their



expansion and changes. A striking example is the Duryea Panorama, a circular series of 14 photographs of Adelaide in 1865 taken by photographer Townsend Duryea (see Source 1.13). Duryea took advantage of the scaffolding around the newly built tower of the Adelaide Town Hall as a vantage point to record the growth of buildings in the Adelaide city centre, the expanding suburbs stretching away, and the wide dirt boulevard of King William Street with only a few horses and drays.

### Changing nature of sources and depictions of life

By the end of the nineteenth century, photographs had captured the vast gulf in the standards of living between rich and poor. While they recorded the amazing growth of cities and the rise of bigger and taller buildings, bridges and other industrial triumphs, along with the splendour of the large houses of the wealthy, they also recorded the appalling living conditions of workers. In various industrialised countries, concern about the conditions of life for workers prompted some photographers to record the cramped and insanitary conditions of poor people living in slums and tenements.

In Australia, painting increasingly became a recognised part of national culture. In the late nineteenth century, artists of the Heidelberg School (a group of painters associated with Heidelberg, which was then just outside Melbourne) and others captured scenes of life in the bush and at the seaside, along with scenes of daily life, especially in and around Melbourne and Sydney. In the twentieth century, painting and other art forms increasingly recorded and reflected the Australian environment, life and culture.

At the end of the nineteenth century, French brothers Auguste and Louis Lumiere were the first to turn still photographs into the moving world of film. Their first film footage, recorded in 1895, showed workers leaving their factory. In the early twentieth century, silent films quickly became a huge part of popular culture around the world, with cinemas appearing in towns and cities. Silent films were often melodramatic, with many featuring aspects of modern life and technology such as cars, trams, factories and bustling cities. Australia soon had its own film stars, such as the swimmer and diver Annette Kellerman, whose first major film, *Neptune's Daughter* (1914), was an international success.



Source 1.14 *Allegro con brio, Bourke Street West c. 1885–86* by Tom Roberts

## Activity 1.1

Find a copy of an early twentieth century silent film – perhaps one made in Australia, or with an Australian film star such as Annette Kellerman. Watch the film and notice how different it is from the ‘moving pictures’ or movies with sound that were made later.

- 1 Describe the ways in which it resembles still photography.
- 2 Explain how well can you follow the plot without any audible dialogue.
- 3 Discuss how the film captures new aspects of the modern world of its time.

## Movement of peoples



Central to the changes of the modern world was the mass movement of people. In the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, free migrants and settlers chose to leave their homelands – particularly China and European countries – in the hope of more land and space, and better lives. Destinations ranged from North and South America to European colonies in Africa, South-East Asia and Australasia. Before the rise of free migration, however, increasingly large numbers of convicts and indentured labourers from Europe and enslaved Africans were shipped to the Americas, starting in the seventeenth century. By the late eighteenth century, slavery was a large-scale global system of **unfree labour** exploitation in the Americas, South Africa, Mauritius and elsewhere.

**unfree labour** a system in which labourers are compelled to work and are not paid wages

Britain shipped convicts to the Australian colonies for 80 years, from the founding of Sydney as a penal **colony** in 1788 until the end of the convict system in Western Australia in 1868. After slavery was abolished in the British Empire in 1833, schemes to transport indentured labourers from India and China to various parts of the world rose dramatically. Slavery, convict transportation and indentured labour were interconnected systems of unfree labour, and the economic basis of colonies and plantation societies around the world.

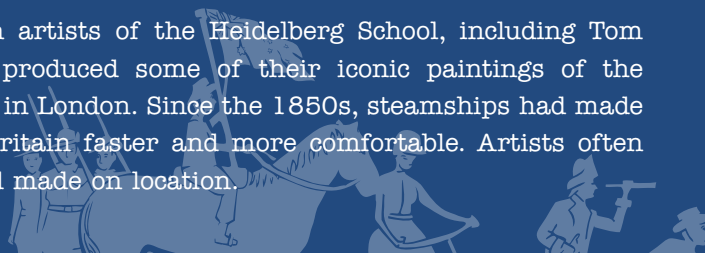
**colony** a settlement formed in conquered territory

## Research 1.1

Using your school library and online resources, research the early Australian film industry. How successful was it in the first decades of the twentieth century? Present your findings in a short report.

### HISTORICAL FACT

Some of the famous Australian artists of the Heidelberg School, including Tom Roberts and Arthur Streeton, produced some of their iconic paintings of the Australian bush in their studios in London. Since the 1850s, steamships had made travel between Australia and Britain faster and more comfortable. Artists often painted from drawings they had made on location.





## Slavery and indentured labour

Slavery, the enforced and unfree labour of some people for others, was practised from ancient times in Rome, Egypt, elsewhere in Africa and other places. When Europeans first sailed to sub-Saharan Africa in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the slave trade there was long established. Europeans took advantage of this trade, and greatly expanded it as they bought slaves to perform the hard labour of building their colonies around the Atlantic Ocean. Portuguese traders and plantation owners used enslaved Africans in the Azores, Madeiras, Cape Verde islands and Sao Tome, and from the 1530s in Brazil. Spanish settlers and officials introduced slaves into the Caribbean, Mexico, Peru and Central America. From the early seventeenth century, English settlers imported slaves into their North American colonies. The slave trade provided labour to all of these colonies and was enormously lucrative to the **merchants** who bought slaves in Africa and sold them in the Americas, then took sugar,

**merchant** a person who buys and sells goods

tobacco and other commodities from the Americas and sold them in Europe. Conditions for enslaved

Africans who survived the ‘middle passage’ across the Atlantic were horrifically cramped and vile. Work on plantations was back-breaking, and punishment harsh. In the eighteenth century, around 60 000 slaves annually were taken to the Americas. By the mid eighteenth century, dominance of the slave trade had passed in turn from the Portuguese, the Dutch and the French to the British and the Americans, and the Portuguese who supplied slaves to Brazil.

By the late eighteenth century, humanitarian opinion condemned slavery. The slave trade was abolished by Denmark in 1803, Britain in 1807, the United States in 1808 and Spain in 1845. Slavery as a system was abolished in British territory (South Africa and the West Indies) in 1833, French colonies in 1848, the United States in 1865 and Brazil in 1888. Centuries of the Atlantic slave trade did much to build the Americas, while it had long-term disastrous effects on Africa.

Indentured labour schemes had brought labourers to the Americas before the system of slavery eclipsed them. As slavery was outlawed in the nineteenth century, indentured labour grew rapidly because indentured workers were paid less than those receiving full wages. Indentured labourers from India, China, Africa and Melanesia



Source 1.15 *The Slave Trade* by Auguste Francois Biard (1840)



**Source 1.16** A group of Melanesian labourers (known at the time as 'South Sea Islanders') on a sugar plantation near Cairns, Queensland, in 1890

**mortality rate** the measure of total deaths in relation to a total population

were taken by recruiters to pastoral properties and plantations (often sugar) in places ranging from the Caribbean to Mauritius, South

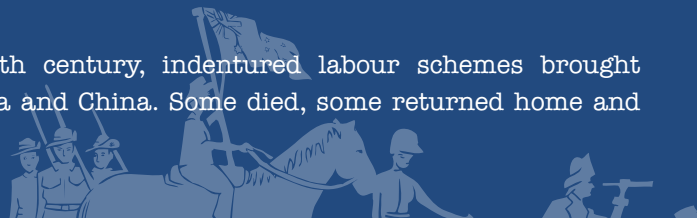
Africa, Fiji and the Australian colonies. In Australia, Chinese and Indian indentured labourers suffered high **mortality rates**, loneliness and racial discrimination. In the late nineteenth century, large numbers of Melanesian islanders did the hard work on Queensland's sugar plantations.

## Convict transportation

In the eighteenth century in British North America, indentured labour, convict transportation and slavery all coexisted as a means of providing labour from Britain and Africa to the colonies. Up until the American Revolution in the 1770s, the British government sold convicts to shipping contractors, who transported them to the southern colonies in America and the Caribbean, where they were sold to the planters as indentured labourers to work, for example, in rice and tobacco fields. In the first half of the eighteenth century, about 30 000

### HISTORICAL FACT

In the early to mid nineteenth century, indentured labour schemes brought workers to Australia from India and China. Some died, some returned home and others stayed.





people were shipped to America in this way. With the revolt of the American colonies, Britain lost this system and in the mid-1780s British officials cast around for alternatives, considering places like Canada, the Falkland Islands, West Africa, the West Indies and the East Indies. A few men were actually transported to Africa in 1784. This was the context in which the British government decided that the little-explored land

**penal colony** a colony that serves as a prison

on the other side of the globe was the best solution, and to establish **penal colonies** in Australia.

The system of transportation in the Australian penal colonies lasted from 1788 to 1868. Over

the whole period of transportation, the British government shipped more than 160 000 men, women and children to Australia. The convicts were distributed among government, military and civil institutions, as well as settlers, with the government having first choice. Up to 1810, the needs of the government for convict labour were overwhelming. Convicts worked on government farms, built roads and erected public buildings.

In the 1830s, the British government was persuaded by the argument that assignment of a convict to a private farmer was a form of slavery – which they had just abolished. So in 1839 the British government ordered the abolition of the assignment system in both New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land. Then in 1840 it abolished transportation to New South Wales, although it continued to Van Diemen's Land. After a large increase in the numbers of convicts in Van Diemen's Land, settlers there protested and transportation was stopped in 1853. Convicts were still sent to the Swan River Colony (Perth) until 1868.

Not all of the convicts transported to the Australian penal colonies between 1788 and 1868 were political radicals or from the white labouring classes. Perhaps up to a thousand convicts in Australia were slaves, former slaves and free blacks from the Caribbean; free blacks and former slaves from Britain; indigenous Africans sent from the Cape Colony and via Britain; African-Americans; and Malagasy slaves, former slaves, Indian convicts, and Indian and Chinese indentured labourers transported from Mauritius.

## Activity 1.2

- 1 List the Australian states that began as penal colonies.
- 2 Research which towns, cities or islands in particular began as penal colonies. What years did they serve in this way?
- 3 Discover whether your city or town had a convict station or was close to one. If not, did emancipated convicts move there in its early period of settlement? Are there any remains of buildings or other evidence of convict days?



Source 1.17 Ruins at the Port Arthur convict site, Tasmania

## Settlers

Slaves and convicts were shipped around the world by force. Indentured labourers had some choice, but were often compelled by starvation or tricked into entering their contracts. Those who chose to leave their homeland and try their luck in a colony or new country were settlers or migrants. Convicts who served out their terms and chose to stay, and indentured labourers who did not return home, could become settlers. From the sixteenth century onwards, millions of Europeans spread around the world, including the Portuguese settlers who went to Brazil; the Spanish who went to Mexico, Argentina and other parts of Spanish America; and the Dutch who went to South Africa and the Dutch East Indies. British settlers went first to the North American colonies and the Caribbean, while British merchants also headed to South and South-East Asia. From the late eighteenth century, settlers chose to make new lives in what would become the settler dominions of the British Empire: Canada, South Africa, Australia and New Zealand. Even more British migrants continued to sail across the Atlantic to the United States, along with immigrants from Southern and Eastern Europe, especially in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

Canada had both British and French settlers, and came under full British control only after wars in the mid to late eighteenth century. Steps towards self-government in British settler colonies began in the 1830s in Canada, where the French settlers particularly sought representation. Like in the United States, European settlement spread across western Canada in the nineteenth century through violent dispossession of First Nations people, along with a vast program of railroad building. More British settlers chose to go to Canada than Australia and New Zealand, partly because it was closer. In turn, more people migrated to Australia and New Zealand than to South Africa, although British colonies in Africa expanded rapidly in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Mobility was key to the modern period. Some migrants returned home to Europe, while others moved on from their first destination.

**Source 1.18** Growth of the Australian population

Year	Population
1820	30 000
1850	400 000
1888	3 000 000
1914	4 500 000

## Research 1.2

Divide the class into six groups. Assign each group to one of the following countries of origin of migrants: Britain, Spain, the Netherlands, Italy, Ireland and China. Using the school library and the internet, each group is to research the high period of migration from the country of origin, and the migrants' major destinations. Present your findings to the rest of the class as either a poster or PowerPoint presentation. Be sure to answer the following questions:

- 1 Identify what drove the migrants to move.
- 2 Consider what was happening in their country or region of origin at the time.
- 3 Explain why they chose their major migration destinations.
- 4 Reflect on whether those destination countries still have significant numbers of people of that ethnic group. Why or why not?





## European imperial expansion

Globalisation is currently a hot topic, yet it has been occurring for centuries, not least because of European imperial expansion from the sixteenth century onwards. Spain, Portugal, the Netherlands, Britain and France all acquired large empires in the early modern period of world history, as they sought spices in the East Indies, navigated and charted their way around parts of the globe unknown to Europeans, established trading posts and then expanded and defended the territories they acquired. The goal of Christian missionaries, both Catholic and Protestant, to

convert indigenous peoples around the world was allied to the desires of traders and the ambitions of armies. These European powers grabbed colonies in the Americas, South and South-East Asia, Australia, the Pacific, East Asia and Africa. European colonies in the Americas, including the Caribbean, soon had economies based on sugar, cotton, tobacco and coffee plantations.

Industrialisation and imperialism were interconnected. Profits made in the colonies were invested in Europe in stately houses and grand buildings, and in finance, business and industry.

**Commodities** from the

**commodity** an item that is bought or sold, especially a raw material or something that is manufactured, for which there is a commercial demand



Source 1.19 'Sugar growing in Mauritius', Empire Marketing Board poster (March 1927)

### HISTORICAL FACT

British imperialist Cecil Rhodes (1853–1902) wanted Britain to take control of Africa 'from Cape to Cairo'. Rhodes made a fortune from diamond mines in South Africa, helped to found the British colony of Rhodesia (now Zambia and Zimbabwe) and established the Rhodes Scholarships at Oxford University.



**Source 1.20** The extent of the British Empire, 1886

colonies were shipped to Europe for food and manufacturing. For example, cotton grown in the Americas was turned into clothing and ‘manchester’ (household textiles) in the British industrial Midlands which Britain then exported (including to its colonies) while sugar from the Caribbean and Mauritius was consumed in Europe, along with tea from India, Ceylon and Malaya. Australian wool, wheat, meat and fruit, timber from Burma, cocoa from the Gold Coast in Africa, New Zealand butter and apples, South African fruit and wine, tobacco grown in Africa, and Canadian timber and furs all found markets in Britain and elsewhere. Profits from trade sustained European imperial armies and colonial administrations in Asia and Africa. European industrialisation also provided their armies with superior military technology, including steamships and machine guns, which were critical to imperial conquests and control.

## European imperialism in Asia

In 1800, Europeans occupied or controlled one-third of the globe’s land surface. By 1870 this had leapt to two-thirds and by 1913 had become an overwhelming 84 per cent, including much of Africa, South America, Asia and the Pacific. Some parts of Asia came under formal imperial control and direct administration of European powers, while others such as China mostly remained independent but ceded small zones and were buffeted by European and American expansionist desires. From the seventeenth century, Britain increasingly established its hold on the Indian subcontinent. By 1763, the British East India Company controlled significant parts of India, and had defeated their French rivals; British control in India grew through the nineteenth century. The French turned their attention to Indochina.



The European imperial powers sought trade, profits and territorial control; they also introduced Christianity, turning it into a worldwide religion. Missionary societies based in Europe and America funded the work of missionaries across Asia, Africa and the Pacific. Missionaries sought to convert colonised peoples, and did much to destroy indigenous cultures, but they also provided practical help in the form of medicine, agriculture and education. Mission schools and hospitals spread across European colonies, and missionaries taught cricket, football, athletics and Western music, along with other subjects.

European colonies suffered from economic exploitation designed to benefit the imperial powers. For example, Britain suppressed cotton textile production in India in order to protect sales of cloth made in the British Midlands. In Java, Dutch colonial rulers forced farmers to sell certain parts of their crop to the colonial government at a low price; the Dutch made huge profits from this system. Colonial regimes also relied on racial hierarchies and discrimination in education, employment, official languages

and public spaces, and used violence and harsh punishments to stay in power.

By the late nineteenth century, anti-colonial nationalist movements emerged, especially among the educated and professional elite of the indigenous people. Elite Indians, for example, attended British universities before returning to India as lawyers, doctors, journalists and other professionals. Anti-colonial movements gained support in the twentieth century, both domestically and globally, and were a major reason for the dismantling of the European empires in the mid twentieth century, often through bloody warfare. Gandhi's nationalist movement in early twentieth century India helped to spread the ideas and practice of non-violent resistance around the world, while some of the religious and philosophical values of, for example, Buddhism and theosophy entered Western culture.



**Source 1.21** The house of a wealthy merchant in India, with servants (1895). The image is a magic lantern slide (a relatively early form of photograph) taken by William Henry Jackson.



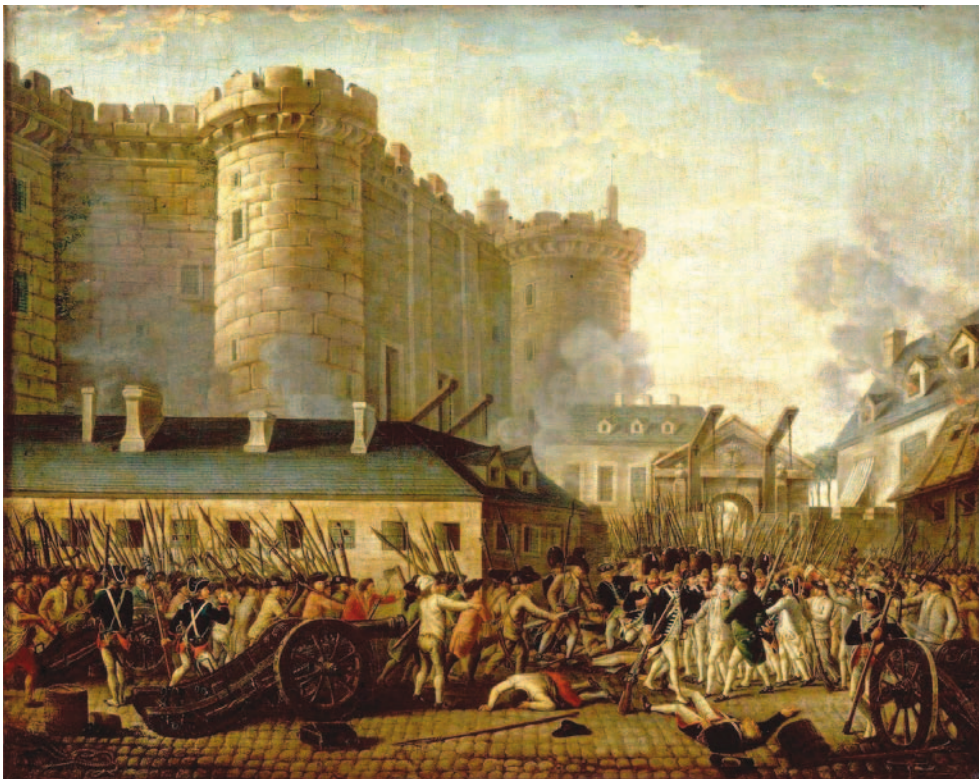
**Source 1.22** Painting of King Louis XVI of France by Antoine-François Callet (1789)

## *Times gone by ...*

We hold these truths to be self evident: That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness; that, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed.

**Source 1.23** A section of the American Declaration of Independence, drafted by the future President Thomas Jefferson

Explain whether the principles of political liberty applied to everyone or if they were limited. In your answer, refer to the system of slavery and the right to vote.



**Source 1.24** Painting by an unknown artist of the storming of the Bastille prison in Paris by a revolutionary crowd (1789)



## Colonies and independent states in Asia

By the late nineteenth century, Britain exerted control over all India, though in some princely states that control was indirect. The **British Raj** suppressed a major uprising against it in 1857–58

**British Raj** British rule in India

that began in the army, and India remained under British control until 1947, when on 15 August India

and Pakistan (the latter divided into western and eastern sections) became separate independent nations. In Indonesia, the Netherlands established trading posts in the early seventeenth century, which expanded by the nineteenth century into full colonial control of Java and parts of Sumatra, Borneo and Timor – and effectively dominance of the Indonesian archipelago. During World War II, the Dutch were ousted by the invading Japanese, then temporarily regained control before being forced to cede Indonesian independence in 1949. In Indochina, the French gradually expanded their influence and control over Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos until they became French colonies in the late nineteenth century. Early twentieth century anti-colonial nationalist movements were violently suppressed by the French. After World War II, the war for independence in Vietnam was initially

against the French, before it became a civil war between North and South in which the United States, Australia and other countries became involved.

Spanish traders and missionaries arrived in the Philippines in the sixteenth century and their interest in the islands spread until they were under Spanish control by 1570. In 1898, the United States purchased the Philippines from Spain, as it expanded its imperial control in the Caribbean and the Pacific, which would include Hawai'i. The Philippines gained its independence from the United States after World War II, though some military bases remained. China, long an imperial power in East Asia, did not fall under formal control of the European empires, though in 1842 Britain took Hong Kong as its victory prize from the Opium War. As China weakened internally in the nineteenth century, European and American demands for trade and influence resulted in open treaty ports such as Canton and Shanghai. Europeans and Americans established their own zones of residence and business in Chinese ports, and Christian missionaries arrived, but China maintained its sovereignty. Japan also remained independent, but in 1853 was forced by the United States to open itself to contact and trade, which had profound effects on its internal politics and economy.

### HISTORICAL FACT

The United Nations currently recognises 193 separate nations as member states.





## Economic, social and political ideas

### Revolutions, independence and equality

In Europe in the seventeenth century, a period of religious warfare was followed by an era of absolute monarchy, with an ideology of the divine rights of kings and queens, and expanded control by the monarch's central government.

**Absolute monarchy** was linked to strong royal armies. Monarchs sought to expand their territories, while emerging nation-states were represented by their king or queen. In England, after a bloody civil war in the 1640s,

**absolute monarchy**  
political system in which  
monarchs have complete  
power, including over  
armed forces

a bloodless revolution in the 1680s produced a new constitutional agreement between king and parliament. During this 'Glorious Revolution', the political philosopher John Locke developed his theory of liberalism. Locke suggested that power emanated from the people, not from a monarch's supposedly divine right to rule, and that there were basic rights to freedom of person and property.

Locke's political liberalism spread through the **Enlightenment** of the eighteenth century, and was dramatically enshrined by the American Revolution

**Enlightenment**  
a philosophical movement  
that placed emphasis on  
reason rather than tradition  
and gave rise to many  
progressive ideas

of the 1770s and the French Revolution of 1789–92. The American Revolution began with the American War of Independence against Britain. Britain's American colonies rebelled against British control particularly in the form of duties and taxes. Tensions escalated into war in 1775. The American colonies established their own Continental Congress, which approved the Declaration of Independence on 4 July 1776. The American colonies finally won independence from Britain in 1783, and their principles of political liberty gained global influence.

The French Revolution, which erupted in 1789, gained attention worldwide and has reverberated across the centuries since. The cry of 'liberty, equality and fraternity' that was the catchphrase of the French Revolution echoed around the globe, not least in France's own colony of Saint Domingue (Haiti), which rebelled against French control and rang a death knell for the system of slavery there. The French Revolution asserted the political power of the masses, and the political ascendancy of the middle class, in a direct challenge to the feudally derived power of the monarch and the aristocracy. In 1789, the self-proclaimed National Assembly stood up to King Louis XVI, while crowds took direct action such as storming the Bastille prison and burning tax offices. Then there were widespread revolts by the peasants in the countryside. On 27 August 1789, the Assembly passed the 'Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen', a manifesto of political liberalism that began: 'Men are born, and remain, free and equal in rights'. In 1792, the French Revolution entered a new and bloody stage, in which the ideals of liberalism became overshadowed.

The French Revolution set the agenda for the nineteenth century in Europe, and had ramifications for the rest of the world. The power of the monarch and the aristocracy was curtailed, but in the decades that followed the differences in the demands of the middle class and the working class became increasingly apparent. In the nineteenth century, conservatives (supporters of the old order) struggled against liberalism (represented by the first stage of the French Revolution) and socialism, which was spawned following the French Revolution. These political struggles would be waged around the globe in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, as liberalism gained power and was contested by socialism and communism (from the 1840s). In the twentieth century, communist regimes would become locked in global ideological struggle with capitalist democratic powers led by the United States and Britain. The struggle between capitalism and communism also would become important for anti-colonial movements in various parts of the world.



## Democratic values

Liberalism and political philosophies based on the rights of the individual spread globally from the eighteenth century. To some extent these ideas drew on ideals of democracy from ancient Greece and Rome, particularly those that originated in the Greek city-states from the eighth to the fourth centuries BCE. Because of the revolutions of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, ideas of constitutional democracy spread through the Western world. They included the consent of the people to be governed; the contract between the government and those governed; the balance of powers between legislative, executive and judicial arms of government; and basic civil rights. Differences emerged between, for example, Britain's Westminster system and its unwritten conventions, and the American system of a republic with a president (instead of a monarch) and a bill of rights.

**Capitalism** as an economic philosophy gained popularity in the mercantile world of the eighteenth

**capitalism** an economic system based on private ownership and free market enterprise

century and later. In 1776, Scottish philosopher Adam Smith outlined his ideas on capitalism in his book *The Wealth of Nations*, emphasising individual choice,

private enterprise and the operation of markets as opposed to state control of the economy. In the early nineteenth century, the opposing theory of socialism gained followers, with its principles

of the ownership of land, capital and means of production being vested in the community or the state. French philosopher Charles Fourier and British industrialist Robert Owen put forward their theories of communal cooperation. Socialist movements and parties grew in the late nineteenth century based on concern for working people.

The creation of nation-states from former regions, empires and colonies has been a central development of the modern world. Many countries have struggled to achieve nationhood and sovereignty. Our concept of the nation dates from the eighteenth century, when it came to refer to a state in which citizens claimed collective sovereignty and a shared political identity. The idea of the nation emerged along with political rights and constitutions, instead of loyalty to monarch or church. **Nationalism** fuelled anti-colonial movements for independence from imperial powers, but it has also been linked to racism and hostility

**nationalism** devotion to national identity or patriotism

to foreigners. The roles and rights of nations have changed over time, as has national belonging. It was only in 1948 that Australians, for example, started to be issued their own passports separate from British ones.

## Egalitarianism: social and political equality

In the nineteenth century, Australia became one of the world's social laboratories, with various

### Research 1.3

Using the school or local library, or the internet, research Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, the German socialists whose observations of the British working class in the 1840s formed the basis of some of their writings.

- 1 What did their 1848 work *The Communist Manifesto* claim?
- 2 Analyse how influential they were in the mid nineteenth century, and later?



Source 1.25 An Australian passport issued in 1973

early steps in political progressivism. Following Canada's lead, in the 1840s and 1850s the Australian colonies fought for self-government in evolving stages. Most Australian colonies received Responsible Government (constitutional self-government with bicameral legislatures) between 1855 and 1859. At the same time, well ahead of

**suffrage** the right to vote in political elections

Britain and other countries, the Australian colonies introduced manhood **suffrage**; that is, the right to vote for adult, white men. In 1858, the secret ballot was first introduced – a progressive reform that meant voters would not be intimidated by having to vote publicly. In the 1890s, Members of Parliament were first paid, which meant that working-class people who depended on a wage could now stand for parliament. In 1894, South Australia was the first Australian colony to grant women suffrage, and by 1902 all white women in Australia could vote and stand for parliament. However, at the same time, the White Australia Policy restricted the entry of non-European immigrants and represented the subordination of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. Not everyone was equal in Australia.

The organised women's movement in South Australia helped to win the early suffrage. One of the leaders was Catherine Helen Spence, who had arrived in the colony in 1839, when it was three

years old and she was aged 14. Although always aware of her Scottish heritage, Spence became a strong advocate of South Australia and what she saw as its reformist role. When Spence became a Vice President of the South Australian Women's Suffrage League in 1891, she was 66 years old, and a very well-known figure in the colony. She had come to prominence through her social work with orphans and the destitute, her fiction writing and work as a journalist, and her advocacy of the proportional representation system of voting. Spence spurred the debate about women's issues through her novels, including *Clara Morison* (1854) and *Mr Hogarth's Will* (1865).

Education was crucial to Australian **egalitarianism**. In the 1870s and 1880s, a system of primary schools in the various Australian colonies introduced elementary education and school leaving ages. It was not until the mid twentieth century that most Australians could also attend high schools, and even then

**egalitarianism** the idea that everyone should have equal rights and opportunities

only a small proportion of high-school graduates could go on to university. Around the turn of the twentieth century, for many Australians, public libraries, schools of art, mechanics' institutes and public concerts were important sources of education and culture, as well as part of the fabric of the new nation's blossoming towns and cities.



Source 1.26 Kapunda Primary School, South Australia, c. 1900



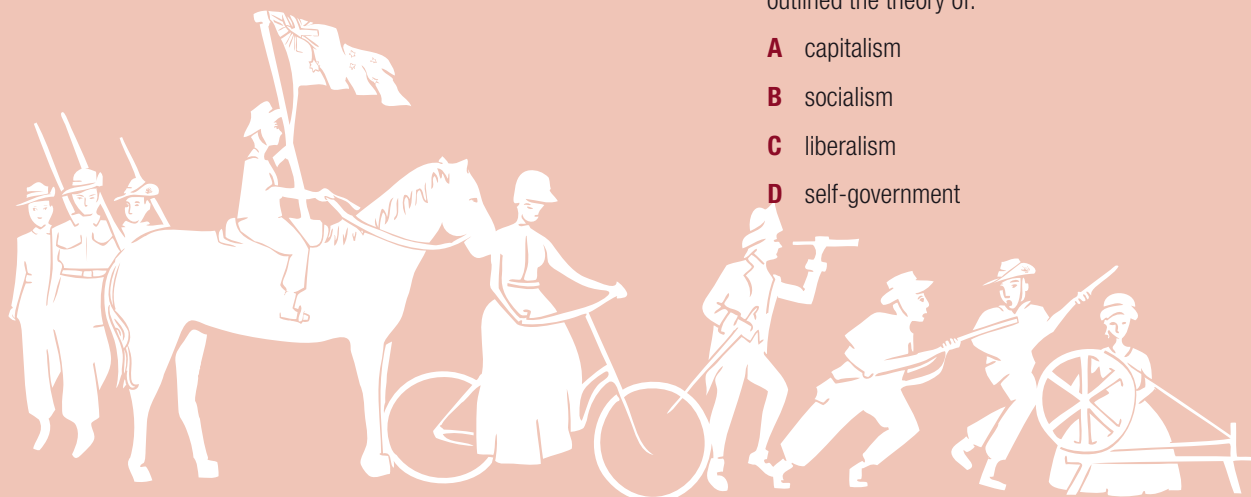
## Chapter summary

- Industrialisation changed both ways of production and the places of production from home to workshop, factory and office. Many workers had a hard daily grind and lived in cramped conditions.
- Slavery, convict transportation and indentured labour were systems of exploited labour that helped to build colonies and new countries.
- Settlers and migrants moved around the world in huge numbers, partly because of steamships and railroads. Cities sprang up and expanded quickly. The world's population grew.
- New technologies included photography and film, which recorded these dramatic changes along with art and literature. Films and cinemas became very popular forms of entertainment.
- Ideas of individual rights and human equality sparked political revolutions and led to new forms of government.
- The Australian colonies gained self-government, mostly in the 1850s, and federated as one nation in 1901.

## End-of-chapter questions

### Multiple choice

- Industrialisation was driven by:
  - steam engines
  - mechanisation and new forms of transport
  - electricity
  - all of the above
- Which of these countries did NOT have slavery?
  - United States of America
  - Brazil
  - South Africa
  - Australia
- Which of the following were colonies of the British Empire?
  - Canada
  - India
  - New Zealand
  - All of the above
- 'Liberty, equality and fraternity' was the catch-cry of which revolution?
  - American Revolution
  - Bolshevik Revolution
  - French Revolution
  - Revolution in St Domingue (Haiti)
- Adam Smith's 1776 book *The Wealth of Nations* outlined the theory of:
  - capitalism
  - socialism
  - liberalism
  - self-government



## Short answer

- 1 Explain how the daily labour for workers changed with the Industrial Revolution.
- 2 How did Australian cities grow and change in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries?
- 3 Describe why so many settlers and migrants moved around the world in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.
- 4 What benefits did the imperial powers receive from their colonies?
- 5 Identify the main constitutional changes in Australia in the mid nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

## Source analysis

Study Source 1.27 and answer the following questions.

The English have taught us that we were not one nation before, and that it will require centuries before we become one nation. This is without foundation. We were one nation before they came to India. One thought inspired us. Our mode of life was the same. It was because we were one nation that they were able to establish one kingdom. Subsequently they divided us ... I do not wish to suggest that because we were one nation we had no differences, but ... our leading men travelled throughout India either on foot or in bullock carts. They learned one another's languages and there was no aloofness between them. What do you think could have been the intention of those far-seeing ancestors of ours who established Shevetbindu Rameshwar in the South, Juggernaut in the South-East and Hardwar in the North as places of pilgrimage? You will admit they were no fools. They knew that worship of God could have been performed just as well at home. They taught us that those whose hearts were aglow with righteousness had the Ganges in their own homes. But they saw that India was one undivided land so made by nature. They, therefore, argued that it must be one nation.

**Source 1.27** Mohandas K. Gandhi, *Hind Swaraj* or *Indian Home Rule* (1908), p. 32

- 1 Based on your reading of this document, interpret what Gandhi is arguing for and what is he refuting.
- 2 What case is he making for Indian independence from Britain?
- 3 Discuss the aspects of Indian culture and society that Gandhi hopes will inspire Indian nationalism.

## Extended response

Undertake research on the American, French and Bolshevik Revolutions. Present your findings in a report and be sure to answer the following questions:

- What political goals did they have in common?
- What political principles were different?
- Did the earlier revolutions influence the later?
- Who were the main leaders of each revolution?
- Did slaves benefit from the American or French Revolutions?
- Did women gain any rights from any of the revolutions?
- How was each revolution shaped by its specific circumstances and time period?
- Which revolution would you regard as the most successful?