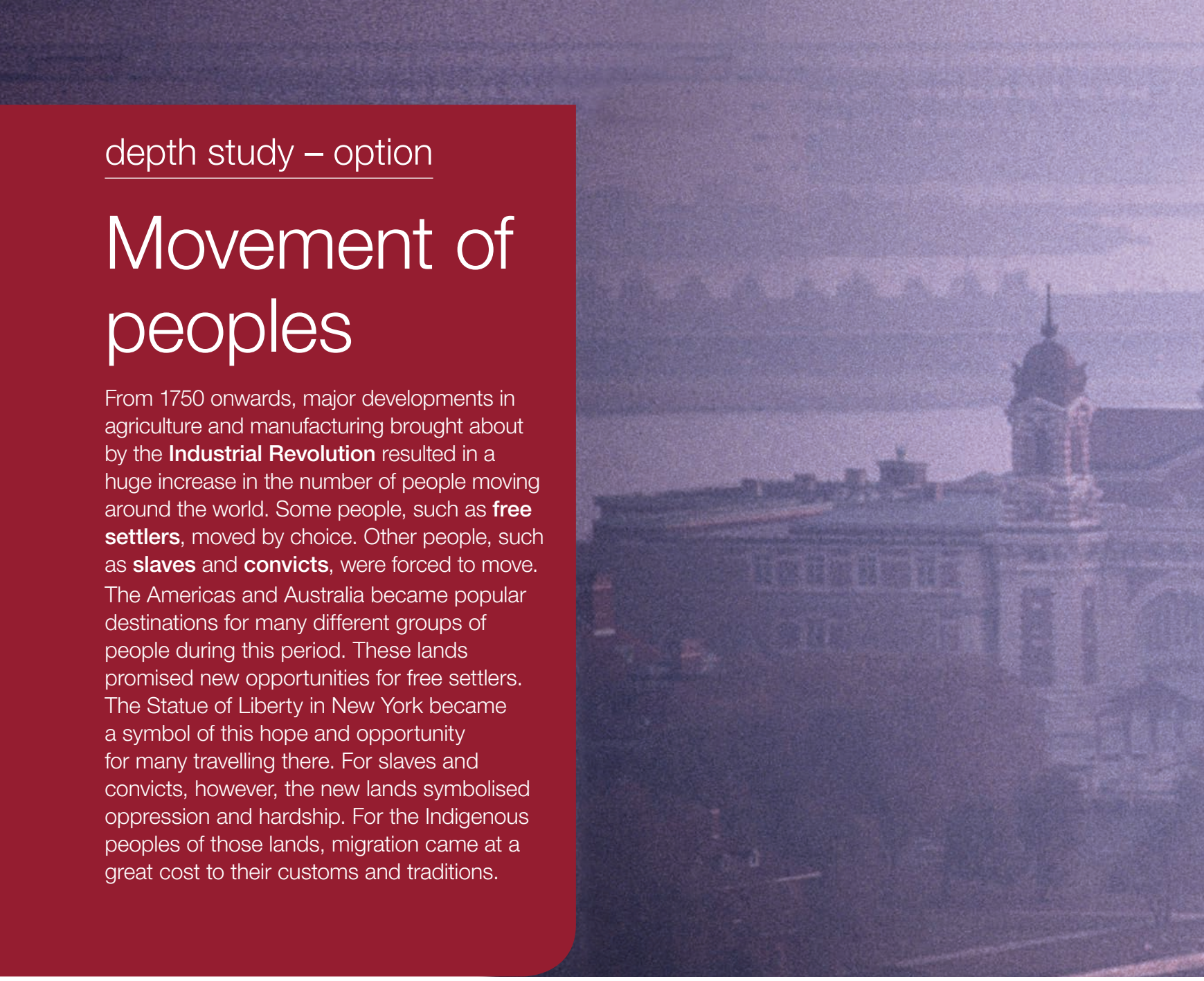


depth study – option

Movement of peoples

From 1750 onwards, major developments in agriculture and manufacturing brought about by the **Industrial Revolution** resulted in a huge increase in the number of people moving around the world. Some people, such as **free settlers**, moved by choice. Other people, such as **slaves** and **convicts**, were forced to move. The Americas and Australia became popular destinations for many different groups of people during this period. These lands promised new opportunities for free settlers. The Statue of Liberty in New York became a symbol of this hope and opportunity for many travelling there. For slaves and convicts, however, the new lands symbolised oppression and hardship. For the Indigenous peoples of those lands, migration came at a great cost to their customs and traditions.

6.1

What events influenced the movement of peoples around the world?

1 Make some predictions about the kind of events that might have caused people to leave their homelands between 1750 and 1901.

6.2

How did the movement of peoples affect the lives of slaves, convicts and free settlers?

1 In what ways do you think the experiences of convicts transported to Australia by force would have differed from the experiences of free settlers who came to Australia by choice?

chapter 6

Source 6.1 A view of the Statue of Liberty and Ellis Island in New York City. Ellis Island, shown in the background, was the main processing centre for new arrivals to the United States from 1892 to 1954.

6.3

What were the short- and long-term impacts of the movement of peoples?

1 The Indigenous peoples of Australia and America were affected greatly by the movement of peoples between 1750 and 1901. Brainstorm ways in which you think their experiences were similar and different.

Movement of peoples: a timeline

An oil painting depicting the arrival of the First Fleet in 1788

1806
The importation of African slaves to the USA banned

1770
The continent of Australia claimed in the name of the British Crown by Captain James Cook

1788
The first convict settlement established in New South Wales after the arrival of the First Fleet

1600 | 1750 | 1800

1776
Declaration of Independence of the American colonies from Britain; end of convict transportation to American colonies

1619
The first African slaves brought to the American colony of Virginia

1789
The United States of America established

An engraving titled *Introduction to slavery*, showing slaves being examined on a dock in Jamestown, Virginia, in the late 1610s

Source 6.2 A timeline of some key events and developments relating to the movement of peoples between 1750 and 1901

This wood engraving from *The Illustrated London News*, December 1848, shows an Irish peasant family being evicted from their cottage. They were unable to pay rent because their potato crop had failed due to potato blight.

Washington DC's black community celebrates the passage of the Thirteenth Amendment in 1865, which outlawed slavery

1836
The free colony of South Australia established

1838
Caroline Chisholm arrives in Australia and establishes help for female immigrants

1847
The Great Famine in Ireland, also known as the Irish Potato Famine, approaches its peak

1848
Gold is discovered in California, sparking a gold rush

1850

1851
Gold is discovered in New South Wales and Victoria, leading to an Australian gold rush

1861–1865
The American Civil War between the northern and southern states of the USA

1865
The Thirteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution formally ends slavery

1868
The end of convict transportation to Australia when the final convicts land in Western Australia

1890
The Battle of Wounded Knee marks the end of Native American resistance to western expansion

1900

1901
Australian colonies are federated

An engraving showing Caroline Chisholm meeting newly arrived immigrants on the Sydney wharves, *c.* 1845

Check your learning 6.1

Remember and understand

1 In what year were the first African slaves transported to America?
2 When was gold first discovered in New South Wales and Victoria?

Apply and analyse

3 Using the timeline, calculate the number of years that convict transportation to Australia from Britain took place.
4 Using the timeline, calculate the number of years that the transportation of slaves from Africa to the USA took place.

6.1 What events influenced the movement of peoples around the world?

The main causes of migration from 1750 to 1901

The period from 1750 to 1901 saw an unprecedented increase in the number of people moving around the world – a process known as **migration**. Some people moved within their own countries (e.g. from rural areas to urban areas) while others moved between countries (e.g. from England to new colonies in North America and Australia).

There were many reasons why people moved. Historians try to understand the different reasons for migration by organising them into four main categories:

- **economic migration** – moving in search of work. During the Industrial Revolution, mass migration took place as people moved from the countryside to growing towns and cities across England searching for work in factories and mines there. Later, once gold had been discovered in British colonies in Australia, thousands migrated in search of wealth.
- **social migration** – moving for a better quality of life or to be closer to family and friends. With steady work came an improved standard of living. Many people believed that industrial cities offered opportunities for a better life. Others believed that a fresh start in a far-off land offered these opportunities.

Source 6.3 *The Emigrant Ship*, a painting by Charles J Staniland, *c.* 1880, shows a ship docked in Liverpool, England, with emigrants to the New World on board being waved off by friends and relatives.

- **political migration** – moving to escape political persecution or war. A large number of people who moved from England to other parts of the world during the 18th and 19th centuries were political prisoners or radical thinkers who had criticised the monarch of England or challenged the authority of the government. These people were transported by force or fled persecution of their own accord.
- **environmental migration** – moving to escape natural disasters such as flooding and famine. In Ireland between 1845 and 1852, a period known as the Great Famine (or Irish Potato Famine) led to more than one million Irish men, women and children leaving their homeland in search of a safer environment in which to rebuild their lives.

As well as grouping migrants, historians also consider a range of other factors that influence people's decisions. These are known as **push factors** and **pull factors**. Push factors are negative things that tend to push people away from certain places, whereas pull factor are positive things that pull people towards a certain place. Some examples of push factors include poverty, famine, crop failure, lack of employment, overcrowding, natural disasters, war, and political or religious oppression. Some examples of pull factors include better job opportunities, more space and greater religious and political freedoms.

Source 6.4 *The Last of England*, a painting by Ford Maddox Brown, 1852–55, shows a couple emigrating with their baby in a ship named *Eldorado*, with the white cliffs of Dover (a city in southern England) in the background.

key**concept:** perspectives

Defining migration and understanding different types of migrants

Before learning about the events of the period, it is important to define some key terms and groups of people. These terms are used frequently throughout this chapter, so refer back to this list whenever you need to. They include:

- **emigration:** the departure of people from their homeland (country of birth) to settle permanently in a new country
- **immigration:** the arrival of people into a new country to settle permanently
- **migration:** the movement of people within a country or from one country to another
- **convict:** a person found guilty or a crime and sentenced to punishment by a court; convicts in Britain during the 18th century were often transported to serve a sentence in British colonies such as Australia
- **slave:** a person who is considered to be the property of another person and has very few (if any) rights; during the 18th century, many Africans were enslaved by Europeans and taken by force to the Americas
- **free settler:** a person who pays their way and chooses to settle in a new country
- **assisted migrant:** a person who receives assistance from a government or organisation to move to another country.

When learning about the movement of peoples during this period, we need to consider the perspectives of the various people involved. For example, the perspectives and experiences of slaves and convicts will be very different to the perspectives and experiences of free settlers. The perspectives of these different people will have influenced how they viewed or reacted to specific events at the time. They will also have influenced the ways in which people recorded and wrote about their experiences. It is always important to consider the impact that a particular perspective will have on a source.

For more information on the key concept of perspectives refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Push factors

Since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution in 1750, many factors have pushed people towards starting a new life elsewhere. A range of these factors is discussed below.

The Agricultural Revolution

Until the early 18th century, most people in Europe lived in rural areas and worked in agriculture. Land use had changed little since the Middle Ages, and families often worked the same land for generations. Most peasants worked enough to provide food to feed their families. Their lives were simple and there was a certainty about their roles as members of village communities.

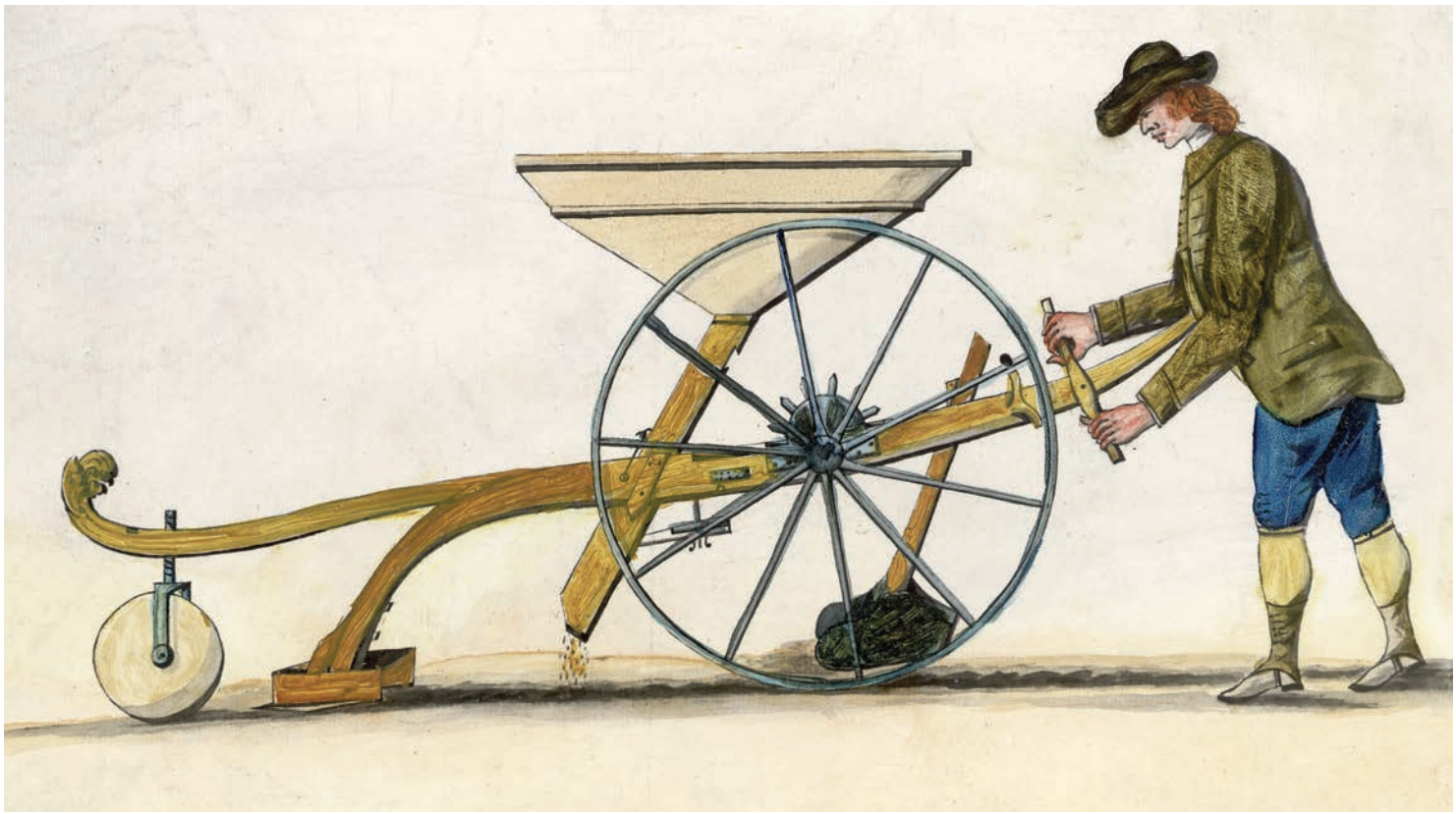
All of this changed with the development of new farming techniques and agricultural machines during the 18th century. The **Agricultural Revolution** began in Britain but quickly spread to Western Europe. New methods of crop rotation and animal breeding – as well as the invention of machines for ploughing, sowing seed and harvesting – improved crop yields and quality of meat (see Source 6.5). These new approaches to farming were beneficial for the landowners, but forced many peasants off the lands that their ancestors had farmed. Wealthy landowners enclosed fields for planting and grazing. They still required peasants to look after the crops and animals, but the new machines meant fewer labourers were needed. This was the first major example of technology claiming jobs.

The Agricultural Revolution resulted in a wave of migration from the country to newly emerging towns and cities. Many who had lost their livelihoods in villages, especially the young and single, flocked to the towns and cities looking for work. This migration coincided with the Industrial Revolution.

The Industrial Revolution

At the same time as new methods and machines were modernising agriculture, new approaches to manufacturing and food processing were emerging. The steam engine paved the way for the development of machines such as the locomotive, spinning and weaving machines, pumps to assist mining, and smelters to process the ores.

A vast unskilled or semi-skilled labour force was required to support this new industrial economy. Working conditions were terrible and there were also no laws banning child labour. As a result, children as young as six were put to work in the mines and factories (see Source 6.6). Their size made them valuable to employers because they could fit into small spaces and climb under machines. They often worked in great danger for very little money.



Source 6.5 The seed drill invented by Jethro Tull made the sowing of crops easier and involved far less waste of seed. It also required fewer labourers.

The great migration of people into towns and cities across England provided the labour force for the new factories. English cities such as Manchester, Liverpool and Birmingham grew rapidly. This resulted in overcrowding and unhealthy living conditions. For many of the poor in these industrial cities, as well as the displaced in rural areas, migrating to new countries in search of a better life provided a way out.

A great increase in crime, plus overcrowded jails, contributed to another of the major push factors behind emigration from Britain in the 18th and 19th centuries – the transportation of convicts to **penal colonies** in North America and Australia.

Population growth

During the 18th century, improvements in food production and new discoveries in medicine and hygiene led to a significant increase in population. The birth rate was rising, fewer children were dying and adults, on average, were living longer. Between 1750 and 1800, the population of Britain grew from 6.5 million to 9 million. This population growth created great pressures, especially at a time when new technology on farms and in factories was reducing the number of available jobs. Emigration provided a kind of safety valve in reducing pressure on jobs, housing and resources.

Source 6.6 Children were often forced to work in factories during the Industrial Revolution. This was a push factor for some families to emigrate.

Natural disasters: the Irish Potato Famine

Over the centuries, natural disasters have also been push factors motivating groups of people to leave their homelands in order to survive. One such natural disaster took place in Ireland in the middle of the 19th century. It resulted in one of the greatest movements of people from a single country, and occurred as a result of the failure of the potato crop in Ireland.

At the time of the famine, most Irish farmers rented the farming lands on which they lived and worked from wealthy English lords. The majority of crops and animals that the Irish farmers produced on these lands were paid as rent, leaving most peasant families to rely heavily on the potato crop in order to survive. In the 1840s, the potato crop failed several years in a row because of poor soil and a disease called potato blight that made the potatoes inedible. Most landowners refused to waive the rents, which would have enabled the Irish farmers to survive this tragedy.

The result was starvation in Ireland while tonnes of edible crops (paid in rent) were shipped to England. Those who were evicted from their cottages for non-payment of rent often finished up in workhouses where they received only the most basic accommodation and food. Disease was widespread in most workhouses, and the already starving and weakened peasants had little resistance. The most disastrous years of famine were from 1847 to 1849. The famine, which became known as the Great Famine, caused between 1 and 1.5 million deaths and resulted in up to two million people leaving Ireland in search of a better life.

Over the ten years of the Great Famine, the population of Ireland decreased by one-third. A small percentage of those who left Ireland travelled to Australia and New Zealand, but most went to North America because the journey was shorter and cheaper. However, it is estimated that up to one in five emigrants died making the voyage. As a result, the ships they travelled on became known as 'coffin ships'. Poor sanitation, overcrowding, lack of food and disease meant that many passengers, already weakened by starvation, were not able to survive the journey.

Discrimination and persecution

Over the centuries, many waves of emigrants have also left their homelands to escape religious or political persecution. Certain American colonies, for example, were established by Puritans (a group of English Protestants who believed in strict religious discipline) escaping religious persecution in Britain.

Jewish people had suffered discrimination in Europe for centuries and emigrated to escape persecution. They often became scapegoats when times were tough, because some Jews appeared to be more wealthy and successful than other groups in society. However, this perception was often untrue. Many Jewish people, especially in Eastern Europe, were not allowed to own land and were among the poorest peasants. During the 19th century there were organised attacks on Jews (see Source 6.7). This led to many Jews fleeing to countries like the USA.

Source 6.7 A 19th-century engraving showing an attack on Jewish citizens in Kiev, Ukraine

Forced migration

Not all people who left their homelands during this period of history did so willingly. In fact, the largest number of migrants at this time were forced to move. These groups included slaves and convicts.

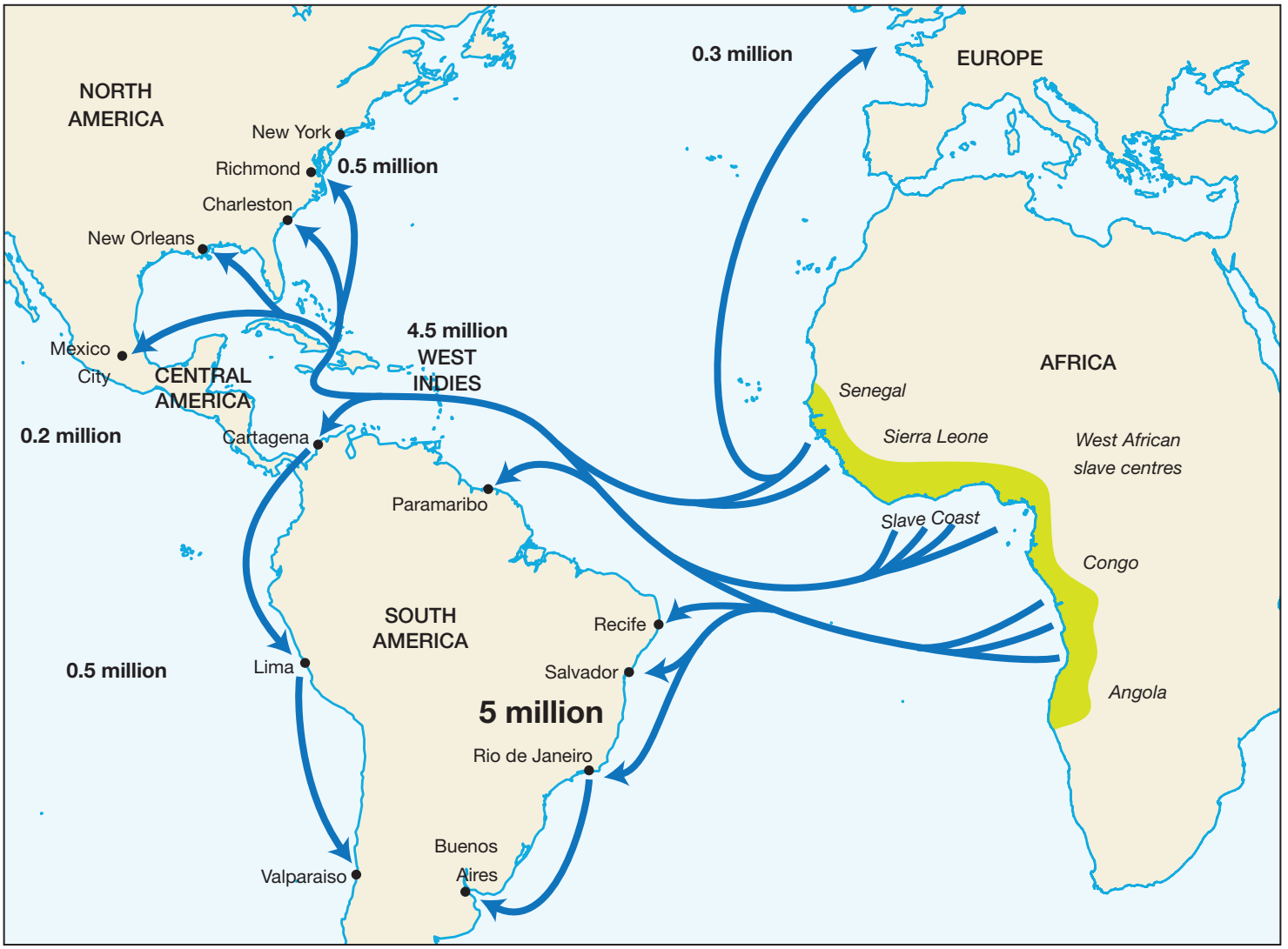
From the early 17th century, hundreds of thousands of African people were captured and transported across the Atlantic to America as slaves (see Source 6.9). This meant they were taken prisoner and then sold as goods. The purpose of this scheme was to provide a free labour force in the North American colonies.

A smaller scheme also involved the capture of people from islands across the Pacific and the transfer of these people to Queensland from the 1860s. These people, who became known as South Sea Islanders, were used as cheap labour on Queensland sugar cane and pineapple plantations (see Source 6.8).

In addition to the forced migration of slaves, between 1788 and 1868 over 165 000 convicted British criminals – many guilty of only minor crimes – were transported across the world to the Australian colonies. Although these people were forced migrants, great opportunities were offered to those convicts who worked hard and did not reoffend. After their release, many ex-convicts in Australia reflected that transportation had eventually provided a better way of life than they could ever have hoped for in Britain. Only a small percentage of convicts returned to Britain when they had completed their sentences.

Source 6.8 South Sea Islanders on a Queensland pineapple plantation in the 1890s

WORLD: SLAVE ROUTES



Source 6.9

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 6.2

Remember and understand

1. In your own words, explain the difference between emigration and immigration?
2. What are some of the 'push factors' that can caused people to emigrate from their homelands from 1750 to 1901?
3. Explain the difference between a free settler and an assisted migrant?
4. Name three cities in England that grew rapidly during the Industrial Revolution. What were conditions there like?
5. What percentage of the Irish population died as a result of the Great Famine?

Apply and analyse

6. Explain how population growth in Europe was a push factor for emigration.
7. How would the perspectives of a convict, slave, free settler and assisted migrant differ if they were explaining why they had emigrated to a new country?

Evaluate and create

8. Research the use of South Sea Islander labour in Queensland in the 19th century. In what ways is it similar to African slavery and in what ways is it different?

Pull factors

Some pull factors that encouraged people to migrate during this period included things like the promise of a better life, better employment opportunities, more space, more fertile soil, greater personal freedom and the opportunity to shape the future of an undeveloped land.

Between 1750 and 1901, millions of people were pulled towards particular destinations as a result of a range of these factors. North America and Australia offered stability, democracy and a future. The discovery of gold in both regions during this period also led to a dramatic increase in the population.

During the 18th and 19th centuries, North America, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa offered abundant land that many Europeans saw as theirs for the taking. In some cases, free grants of land were made to attract new settlers. Even when land was not free, prices were usually low and it was relatively easy for newcomers to set up small farms and build new lives. This pull factor, along with a range of other factors, is discussed below in relation to North America and the Australian colonies.

North America

From 1775 to 1783, thirteen colonies in North America fought a War of Independence to break free from British control. After winning their independence, a period of growth and expansion began and the country we now think of as the United States of America began to take shape. As people moved west across the country, new settlements and trade routes developed, creating employment and opportunities to own land.

By the late 19th century, other British colonies and settlements across Canada were also starting to expand. Like the USA, Canada had large areas of land available. To encourage development, land was given free to settlers along the route of the Canadian Pacific Railway – a railway line built during the 1880s connecting the east coast of Canada with the west coast.

In 1848, gold was discovered in California. This led to a gold rush that brought around 300000 people to California over the next five years, transforming the area. This was followed by a Colorado gold rush that led to the development of the area inland from California. Over time, the goal of developing the USA as a land of opportunity that stretched from the Atlantic Ocean in the east to the Pacific Ocean in the west was achieved.

The idea of 'America' as a prosperous democracy was a powerful pull factor for the many Europeans who had seen their lives worsen as a result of the Industrial Revolution.

key concept: continuity and change

Idaho Springs

In 1859, gold was discovered in Idaho Springs in Colorado, USA. This began the Colorado gold rush that followed the one in California. Like many areas, Idaho Springs was transformed by the sudden influx of goldminers and the support industries necessary to provide them with goods and services such as tools, meals and accommodation.

It is important to see how both the California and Colorado gold rushes transformed different areas, but it is also just as important to look how these areas stayed the same over time. Sources 6.10 and 6.11 are photographs taken over 100 years apart. As a historian, it is important that you train yourself to look for obvious changes, but also take the time to explore continuities. Continuities are often more difficult to recognise, but they are also important in historical study. For example, although the methods of transportation in Idaho Springs have changed, the basic layout of the town and a number of its buildings remain unchanged.

For more information on the key concept of continuity and change refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Source 6.10 A 19th-century street scene in Idaho Springs, Colorado, as goldminers flock to the area

Source 6.11 The same street in Idaho Springs in 2011

Australia

When the **First Fleet** arrived in Australia to establish a British colony in 1788, they were carrying around 750 convicts, soldiers and government officials with them. This was the first British population of Australia. Life was difficult in such a different climate, but gradually the first **colony** expanded. By the 19th century there were also colonies in Queensland, Victoria, Tasmania, South Australia and Western Australia.

As exploration opened the continent to settlement, the need for workers increased. Convicts were gradually replaced by free settlers and a new class of assisted migrants (people who were given financial assistance from the government to encourage them to move Australia). If workers in Britain possessed a particular skill, employers in Australia could apply for financial assistance to bring them over to settle and work here. Magazines often featured cartoons comparing life in England with life in the colonies (see Source 6.13). This kind of assisted migration continued throughout the 20th century and was an important way of boosting the number of immigrants arriving in Australia.

The discovery of gold helped transform Australia. Gold was first discovered in New South Wales in 1851. Between 1850 and 1860 the population of Australia more than doubled. In addition to the thousands who arrived in search of wealth on the goldfields (see Source 6.12) were groups of political refugees (known as **Chartists**), activists and religious orders. These groups believed there was greater opportunity to think and speak freely, express differing political views and practise one's chosen religion in Australia.

Source 6.12 This painting by ST Gill from 1869 titled *Digger's Wedding* shows a newly wealthy goldminer enjoying a drunken carriage ride. At the time, the upper classes feared wealthy miners with no social standing as a serious threat to their position and authority in society. (The subtitle of the painting is *The Dangers of Horrid Democracy*.)

Source 6.13 One of many posters used in Britain during the 19th century to encourage people to emigrate to British colonies such as those in Australia.

Check your learning 6.3

Remember and understand

1 What were the major pull factors that influenced migration between 1750 and the start of the 20th century?
2 Which areas of land in Canada were offered free to settlers?
3 Name two American states that experienced gold rushes.

Apply and analyse

4 Describe the assisted migration scheme to the Australian colonies. Explain why it was established.
5 Why do you think new arrivals might have stayed in the USA or Australia after the gold rushes? What do you think would have played a more important role in their decision-making: push factors or pull factors?
6 Can an analysis of the two Idaho Springs photos (Sources 6.10 and 6.11) allow you to develop a thorough understanding of the impacts that the gold rush had on Colorado? Explain your response. What other sources could help a historian reach a more reliable conclusion?

Evaluate and create

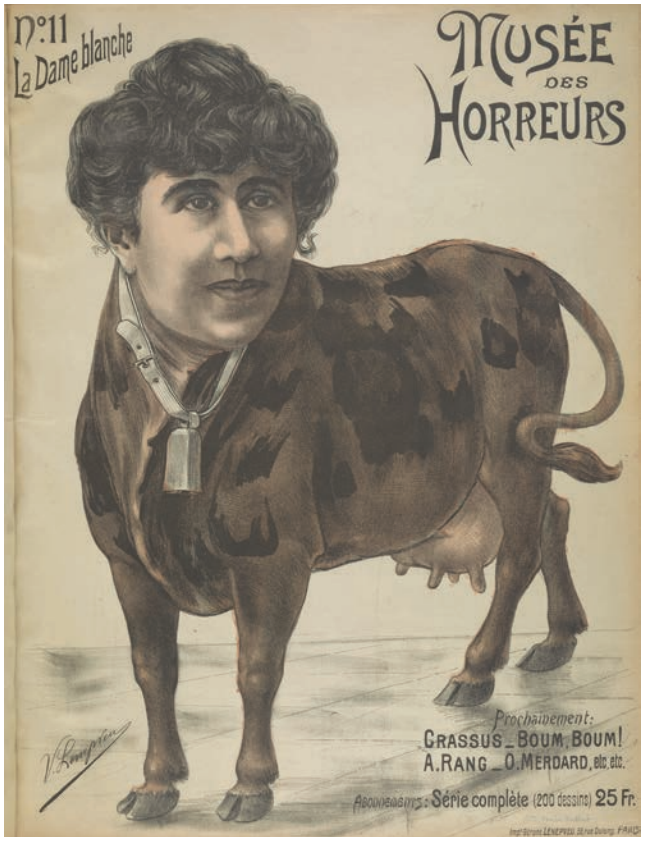
7 Select an area in the USA or Australia that was influenced by gold rushes in the 19th century and create a digital photo collection that allows you to show and explain continuities and changes in the area.

6.1 big**ideas:** rich task

The movement of Jewish people during the 19th century

During the 19th century, there was enormous movement of Jewish people around the world due to a range of factors and events.

Large numbers of Jews, many of whom were living in Europe, moved overseas – above all to the United States of America. Discrimination and prejudice against Jewish people (known as **anti-Semitism**) has existed for centuries, but became particularly severe at various times throughout the 1800s. Anti-Semitism in Europe during the late 19th century was demonstrated by an event known as the 'Dreyfus affair'.



Source 6.14 One of Lenepveu's anti-Semitic posters, depicting a journalist by the name of Caroline Rémy as a cow. Rémy was a defender of Dreyfus.

Source 6.15 Another of V. Lenepveu's anti-Semitic posters, depicting Dreyfus as a sea monster with many heads and labelling him as *le Traître* (a traitor)

The 'Dreyfus affair' took place in France in the 1890s. Alfred Dreyfus was a French Army Captain of Jewish faith who was accused of leaking military secrets to the Germans. He was found guilty on the basis of false evidence. During his trial, it became clear that the single motivation for the charges was the fact that he was Jewish. The Dreyfus affair created a political split in France and exposed widespread anti-Semitism at the highest levels of French government and culture. The controversial case led to widespread mob violence and an overall increase in anti-Semitism in France.

During Dreyfus' trial, an artist using the pseudonym (fake name) V. Lenepveu created a series of political posters titled the *Musée des Horreurs* (meaning Museum of Horrors or 'Freak Show'). These posters were published weekly and depicted prominent friends and supporters of Dreyfus (such as journalists and Jewish leaders) as animals.

skill**drill**

Writing a historical discussion using evidence from a range of sources

Historical discussions present different opinions about particular historical questions or issues. They consider evidence from a range of sources, and outline different possible interpretations of that evidence. This involves considering not only various primary sources (such as newspapers, photographs or political and legal documents from the period being studied), but also the ideas of other historians, presented in secondary sources such as textbooks and on websites. Historical discussions conclude with the writer's own point of view on the question or issue, and include a bibliography that references all sources used. The table summarises the structure of a written discussion.

Introduction	• Introduces the topic, question or issue • Outlines why the topic, question or issue is important
Main body	• A series of paragraphs that outline different arguments or opinions about the topic, question or issue • Each opinion or argument that is presented should also refer to the evidence which supports it
Conclusion	• Sums up the issue and gives the writer's opinion

Any sources that you have used in your written discussion must be referenced. First, you need to mention in your writing where information is coming from. Some examples of how you can do this include:

- 'According to the 19th-century American historian William Hickling Prescott …'
- 'The depiction of Jewish people in the French newspaper *La Libre Parole* (Free Speech) during the 1890s shows that …'.

You then need to include any sources you have referred to in your discussion in a bibliography. When citing a *book* in a bibliography, include the following information, in this order:

- Author surname(s) and initial(s); Year of publication; Title of book (in italics); Edition (if relevant); Publisher; Place of publication; Page number(s).

  Example:

Easton, M and Carrodus, G, 2014, *Oxford Big Ideas Geography/History 9 Australian Curriculum,* Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 18–19

When citing an *online source* in a bibliography, include the following information, if available:

- Author surname(s) and initial(s) or organisation name
- Year of publication or date of web page (last update)
- Title of document (article) enclosed in quotation marks
- Date of posting
- Organisation name (if different from above)
- Date you accessed the site
- URL or web address enclosed in angle brackets.

  Example:

Sarna, J and Golden, J, 2012, 'The American Jewish Experience through the Nineteenth Century: Immigration and Acculturation', accessed 30 March 2013, <http://nationalhumanitiescenter.org/tserve/nineteen/nkeyinfo/judaism.htm>.

Apply the skill

1 Write a historical discussion of 250–300 words outlining the main reasons why so many Jewish people emigrated from Europe during the 19th century.
   - Use the information and sources in this section as the basis of your discussion, but you will also need to conduct further research to locate a range of primary and secondary sources that provide evidence about other factors, events and attitudes that led to Jewish emigration in this period.
   - Make sure you include a bibliography that references all your sources using the instructions provided.

Extend your understanding

1 Using the library or Internet, find out about another example of anti-Semitism that caused Jews to emigrate, namely the anti-Jewish pogroms (attacks) in the Russian Empire in the 19th century.

  Copy the following data chart into your notebook and complete it as you conduct your research.

Details of event:	Year	Place	Cause/ motivation for the persecution	Impact on migration

6.2 How did the movement of peoples affect the lives of slaves, convicts and free settlers?

Slavery in the Americas

During the early part of the 18th century, the southern British colonies of North America (such as Virginia, North and South Carolina and Georgia) were experiencing major labour shortages. In these colonies, many of the farms were large plantations dependent on large numbers of workers performing hours of backbreaking labour in the hot sun. Workers of European background were unwilling to undertake plantation work unless they were paid very high wages. Employing them would have made the plantations unprofitable, so another solution had to be found. This solution came in the form of **slavery**. For the next 200 years, this practice was the backbone of the economy across much of North America. Slaves were regarded as the property of whoever bought them, and any children born to slaves also became the property of the slave owner.

Initially, there were slaves and slave owners in all of the original 13 British colonies across North America. However, by the time of the War of Independence in the 1770s and the signing of the Declaration of Independence in 1776, slavery was largely confined to the southern states.

Source 6.16 An 1824 engraving showing a slave and his wealthy master, southern USA

At this time, it was regarded as acceptable for European and American raiding parties to land in West Africa. By negotiation or force, they would gather boatloads of men, women and children, chain them together and transport them by boat to the Americas. On arrival, these African people would be sold to landowners who were desperate for cheap labour. These slaves were completely removed from their families, traditions and cultures, and left without hope. Their experiences were often horrific.

The journey

Slaves were kidnapped from the north-west coast of Africa – from places such as Guinea (a French colony) or Gold Coast (a British colony). Slave catchers used rope nets to capture young Africans, then herded them into cages. They were then loaded onto slave ships. Often African men were captured while they were out hunting, and their families had no idea what had happened to them.

The slave journey was a brutal and terrifying experience. Slaves were chained together in the ship's hold for up to 23 hours a day. They were allowed an hour's exercise on deck, purely to keep up their

Source 6.17 Slaves were shackled before being put in the ship's hold, *c.* 1835.

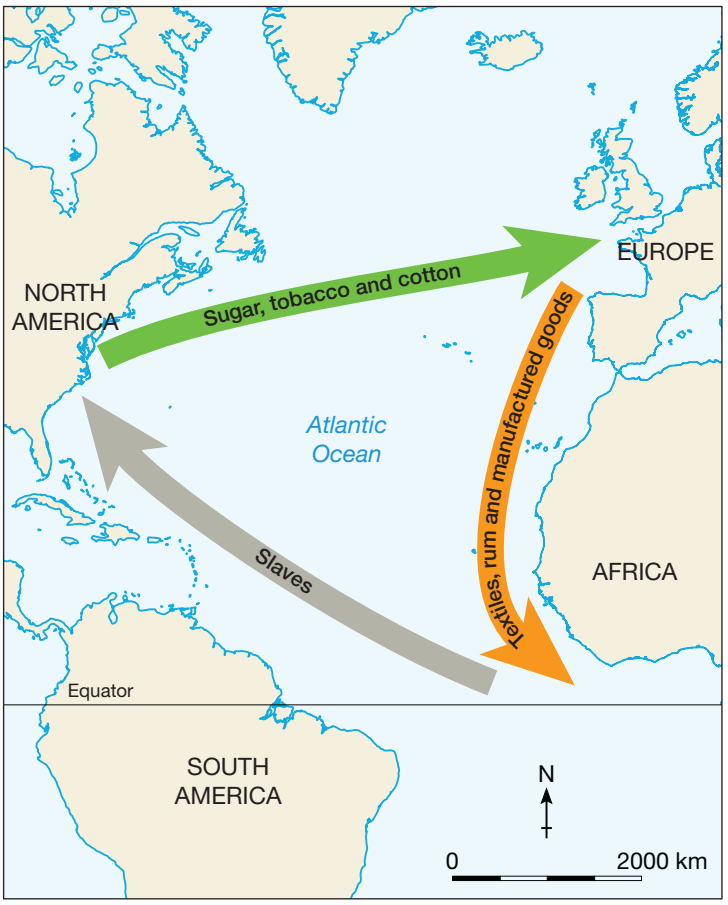
fitness so that they would fetch a good price on arrival in America. The holds were never cleaned and after a few days the stench was unbearable. Slaves were violently punished for any wrongdoings and female slaves were often assaulted by crew members. A ship's doctor described the situation on a slave ship like this: 'It is not in the power of the human imagination to picture a situation more dreadful or disgusting'.

The triangular trade

By the end of the 17th century, a **triangular trade** was firmly established (see Source 6.18). It functioned in the following way:

- Europeans purchased slaves who had been captured in Africa, then transported them by ship to the Americas. They were sold as labourers to work on sugar-cane, cotton and tobacco plantations.
- The raw materials from these plantations were then shipped back to Europe to be refined or sold in European markets. The mass production of goods during the Industrial Revolution created greater demand for raw materials.
- Some of the goods made from these raw materials (such as rum, textiles and manufactured goods) were then shipped to Africa to be sold in markets there. At this point, new slaves would be loaded and transported to the Americas again, continuing the cycle.

TRANSATLANTIC TRIANGULAR TRADE ROUTE



Source 6.18 Source: Oxford University Press

Arrival

When the slave ships docked at one of the American ports, slaves were unloaded and prepared for auction (see Source 6.19). Sores and wounds were covered with tar to hide them from potential buyers. Troublesome slaves were given laudanum (a drug to calm them down), while lethargic slaves were given a small sip of brandy (to make them seem more alert). Slaves were paraded like animals before interested buyers. Potential buyers would examine them thoroughly, look in their mouths, feel their muscles and even comment on their ability as potential breeders of more slaves. The entire process was dehumanising and undignified, especially as the slaves had no idea where they were or what was ahead of them.

The majority of slaves brought to North America worked on southern plantations and farms. They were given English names and usually went by the surnames of their masters. The men worked long hours in the cotton or tobacco fields. They were accommodated in simple huts and had few comforts. Women slaves were more likely to work in the owner's house, although some tended animals and vegetable patches. Female slaves were often at the mercy of male members of the household.

Slaves who tried to escape were punished severely (see Source 6.20). Whipping was common for those who were caught, and repeat offenders could have their teeth filed into points so that it was obvious to all that this slave was troublesome.

In the southern states most slaves worked on farms or plantations, but there were also slaves in the towns working as house servants, messengers, labourers, coach drivers and blacksmiths. By 1800, slavery had been abolished in all of the northern states. Half a million black people living in the northern states were no longer enslaved, but they did not enjoy equality with the white population.

Source 6.19 An artist's impression of a slave auction

Most ex-slaves in the north still held the most unskilled jobs, lived in the worst conditions and were discriminated against in a range of ways.

In some ways, some enslaved people had easier lives if they had 'kind' masters as their basic needs – such as food and shelter – would be met. Slaves who were freed were left to fend for themselves, which often meant that they had difficulty surviving because of the discrimination they faced.

Source 6.20 An illustration of a slave owner whipping a slave to death after she attempted to escape

The Caribbean

Slavery had been part of life in the Americas since the arrival of the Spanish at the end of the 15th century. The islands of the Caribbean (such as Barbados, Haiti and Cuba) were particularly profitable areas for growing sugar cane and tobacco. Sugar became hugely popular in Europe as it made the flavour of many foods more acceptable. This led to demands for slave labour to increase and maintain the supply of sugar and tobacco to Europe.

The British moved to abolish slavery in this region in the 1830s, and France followed soon after. The increase in numbers of Africans into the Caribbean had a significant impact on the local population. Many Caribbean people claim African heritage, and restoring those cultural links has become a significant part of Caribbean life.

An end to slavery

Despite the claim in the Declaration of Independence (signed in 1776) that 'all men are created equal', it was not until 1808 that the US Congress officially banned the importation of slaves from Africa. It was not until much later that the practice of slavery was officially outlawed in all states of the USA. In December 1865, after a civil war between northern and southern states, the Thirteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution came into effect. It abolished slavery for good. At this time, around 40 000 slaves were officially freed in states such as Kentucky, Kansas and Louisiana.

Check your learning 6.4

Remember and understand

1 In your own words, define and explain the triangular trade as shown in Source 6.18.
2 Using Source 6.20 and the information provided, describe the kind of treatment slaves were generally subjected to.
3 What were troublesome slaves given to calm them down before being auctioned?
4 What were the two main products that slaves produced in the Caribbean?

Apply and analyse

5 Explain how labour shortages on American plantations contributed to the development of the transatlantic slave trade.
6 The American Declaration of Independence states that 'all men are created equal'. How do you think slave owners and members of Congress in the US justified the use of slave labour after this time? Which concept for historical understanding would best help you to understand this situation? Why?
7 How did people make money from the triangular trade?
8 How do Sources 6.17 to 6.20 support the hypothesis that slavery was a cruel and dehumanising experience?

Evaluate and create

9 Put yourself in the position of a slave captured in Africa and transported to the Americas. Create a number of diary entries recounting your experiences of being captured in Africa, your journey to the Americas, and your arrival at auction.

Significant individual: George Washington

George Washington (1732–1799) became the first President of the United States in 1789. Although he was a slave owner for most of his life, his attitude towards the practice of slavery changed significantly over his lifetime. In 1799, Washington drew up a secret will, without his family's knowledge, that would free all the slaves he owned after his wife Martha died. The question of how George Washington came to this decision is one that has continued to intrigue historians because during his lifetime he never spoke out publicly against slavery and did little to prevent its spread.

Washington's background

George Washington was born on his father's plantation in Westmoreland County, Virginia, on 22 February 1732. In 1743, his father died, leaving most of his property to George's older half-brothers. As the oldest child living at home, George helped his mother manage the plantation where they lived. There he learned the importance of hard work and efficiency. The death of his father made a European education impossible for George due to the high cost of studying abroad. Instead, he attended local schools and his formal education ended around the age of 15.

When his father died, 11-year-old George inherited ten slaves. The practice of slavery at this time was commonplace. Slaves, like land and other property, could be bought, sold, given away, rented out and inherited. As a young man, George Washington shared the attitude common among plantation owners, that there was nothing morally wrong with slavery.

By the time of his death, 316 slaves lived and worked at his Mount Vernon plantation. As on other plantations during this era, Washington's slaves worked from dawn until dusk unless they were injured or ill. They could be whipped if they ran away or broke the rules of the house.

When they died, slaves were often buried in unmarked graves on his plantation (see Source 6.22). Historians believe around 150 slaves were buried at Mount Vernon.

Washington's changing attitude

Before the the **American War of Independence**, Washington expressed no moral doubts about slavery, but by 1778 he had stopped selling slaves because he did not want to break up families. This was despite the fact that he had too many slaves, including elderly slaves who were no longer able to work. Some historians believe that Washington's thoughts on slavery changed as a result of the war – including the fact that so many blacks enlisted in the army to fight for independence.

After the war, Washington often privately expressed his dislike of the institution of slavery. In 1786, he wrote in a letter to Robert Morris (an influential merchant and future politician) about his desire to see the lawful end of slavery: 'I can only say that there is not a man living who wishes more sincerely than I do, to see a plan adopted for the abolition of it; but there is only one proper and effectual mode by which it can be accomplished, and that is by Legislative authority …'.

Source 6.21 George Washington

Source 6.22 The slave burial ground at George Washington's home, Mount Vernon

Washington's later actions against slavery

In 1794 while President, Washington attempted to lease property at Mount Vernon to English farmers on the condition that former slaves would work as paid free labourers. This idea had been suggested to Washington by his friend the Marquis de Lafayette, in 1784. However, the plan proved to be impractical and no buyers of the land could be found. Although Washington himself could have freed his own slaves and paid them as workers, he never did. He also did nothing as President to publicly fight slavery. Many historians believe this is because he did not want to risk splitting apart a new nation over such a contentious issue.

At this time, it was illegal in every slave state to simply let one's slaves go free. Each state had laws regulating 'manumission' (the legal process by which a slave owner could free his slaves). It was an expensive thing to do, requiring slave owners to pay fees and provide certain amounts of money, materials and education for the slaves. Even slave owners who had begun to oppose slavery on principle were unable or unwilling to pay the costs associated with freeing their slaves.

Washington did not free his slaves during his lifetime. However, he wrote in his will that all of his slaves were to be freed upon his wife's death, and that special provisions were to be made to care for older slaves no longer able to work. The younger slaves were to be given an education so that they could get a job. Twelve months after Washington's death, and 16 months before her own death, his wife made sure his wishes were granted and freed all of their slaves.

Check your learning 6.5

Remember and understand

1. How old was George Washington when his father died? What did he inherit after his father's death?
2. When and why did George Washington first begin to change his views on the institution of slavery?
3. How did George Washington believe that the abolition of slavery could be effectively achieved? What is 'manumission'?

Apply and analyse

4. Why did Washington not abolish slavery when he became president?
5. How do you explain the many contradictions in Washington's actions and attitudes in relation to slavery?

Convict transportation from Britain

The largest and most significant movement of people to Australia in the early years of European settlement was brought about by the transportation of convicts from Britain.

Conditions in England

The idea of transporting convicts first came about as a result of significant changes that took place in Britain and Europe in the 17th and 18th centuries. Increasing populations across Europe and the movement of people to rapidly growing towns and cities were significant changes brought about by the Agricultural Revolution and the Industrial Revolution. These factors combined to produce a further effect: a massive increase in crime rates in Britain. Most criminals were poor, unskilled and uneducated people from overcrowded British towns and cities or from poor rural areas. The movements of people away from rural villages into towns and cities created great pressure on available jobs, housing and the supply of food and services. For some, petty crime was an easy way out; for others, it was a necessity – a case of steal or starve. There was little mercy for petty crime resulting from poor living conditions. It was possible to be sentenced to a prison term (and later, transportation) for stealing something as small as a loaf of bread for your family.

At that time, there was no understanding of (or support for) rehabilitating prisoners. Instead, the only response to the rapid growth in criminal activity was punishment. Those found guilty of crimes such as murder, **treason**, or theft of valuable goods could be sentenced to death. In the late 18th century in Britain, at least 200 crimes were punishable by execution.

Those who escaped the death penalty were imprisoned in overcrowded jails where conditions were far worse than in the poorest slums. John Howard, an investigator of prison conditions, wrote about the state of British jails in 1777 (see Source 6.23).

Source 6.23

> Air which has been breathed is made poisonous to a more intense degree by the effluvia [smells and secretions] from the sick … My reader will judge of its malignity when I assure him that my clothes were, in my first journeys, so offensive that in a post chaise [horse-drawn carriage], I could not bear the windows drawn up; and was therefore obliged often to travel on horseback … even my antidote, a vial of vinegar, has after using it in a few prisons, become intolerably disagreeable.

Extract from *The State of the Prisons in England and Wales, with Preliminary Observations, and an Account of Some Foreign Prisons* by John Howard, Warrington, 1777

When jails became so overcrowded that they could not hold any more prisoners, a new solution had to be found. Rather than building new prisons, criminals were imprisoned on ships that were no longer considered seaworthy. These ships, known as hulks, were moored in

Source 6.24 An artist's impression of convicts on the First Fleet arriving at Sydney Cove in 1788 – only the lucky ones survived the journey from England to New South Wales.

British harbours and filled with so many prisoners that they were even more cramped and unhealthy than the jails (see Source 6.25). It was also more difficult to make them secure, so riots and escapes were constant problems.

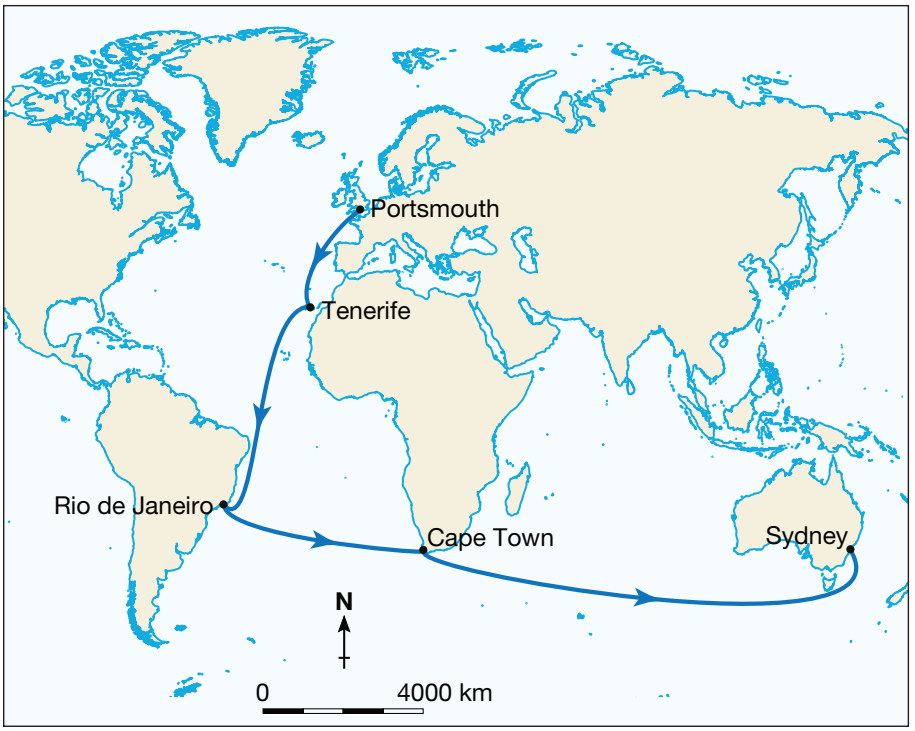
In 18th-century Britain, new theories for treating and dealing with criminals became popular. One theory in particular was widely supported. This theory argued that crimes could be stopped by the removal of the 'criminal class' from the wider population. In line with this theory, convicts were first sent to British colonies in North America, such as Virginia and Maryland, from the mid-17th century until Britain lost control of these colonies in 1783, after the American War of Independence. It was at this time that Joseph Banks, who had sailed with James Cook to Australia and the South Pacific in 1770, suggested Botany Bay on the coast of New South Wales as a location for a new penal colony. Britain, soon after this, turned to the newly discovered land of Australia as a place to send its convicts. Between 1787 and 1869, about 162 000 people were transported from Britain to Australia.

The arrival of the First Fleet

The First Fleet of 11 ships left Britain for Australia in 1787. Of the 1400 passengers on board, more than half (around 770 people) were convicts. It took around six months to complete the journey to New South Wales (see Source 6.26). Arriving at Botany Bay on 18 January 1788, it was soon found that the area was unsuitable for settlement and the fleet moved on to Port Jackson (Sydney Harbour). They landed at Sydney Cove on 26 January 1788. Before the arrival of the British, this place was called Warrane by the local Cadigal people. The arrival of the First Fleet would have a devastating impact on the Indigenous population – one that is felt to this day.

Source 6.25 Prisoners being rowed out to a hulk, 1829

WORLD: THE ROUTE TAKEN BY THE FIRST FLEET



Source 6.26 Source: Oxford University Press

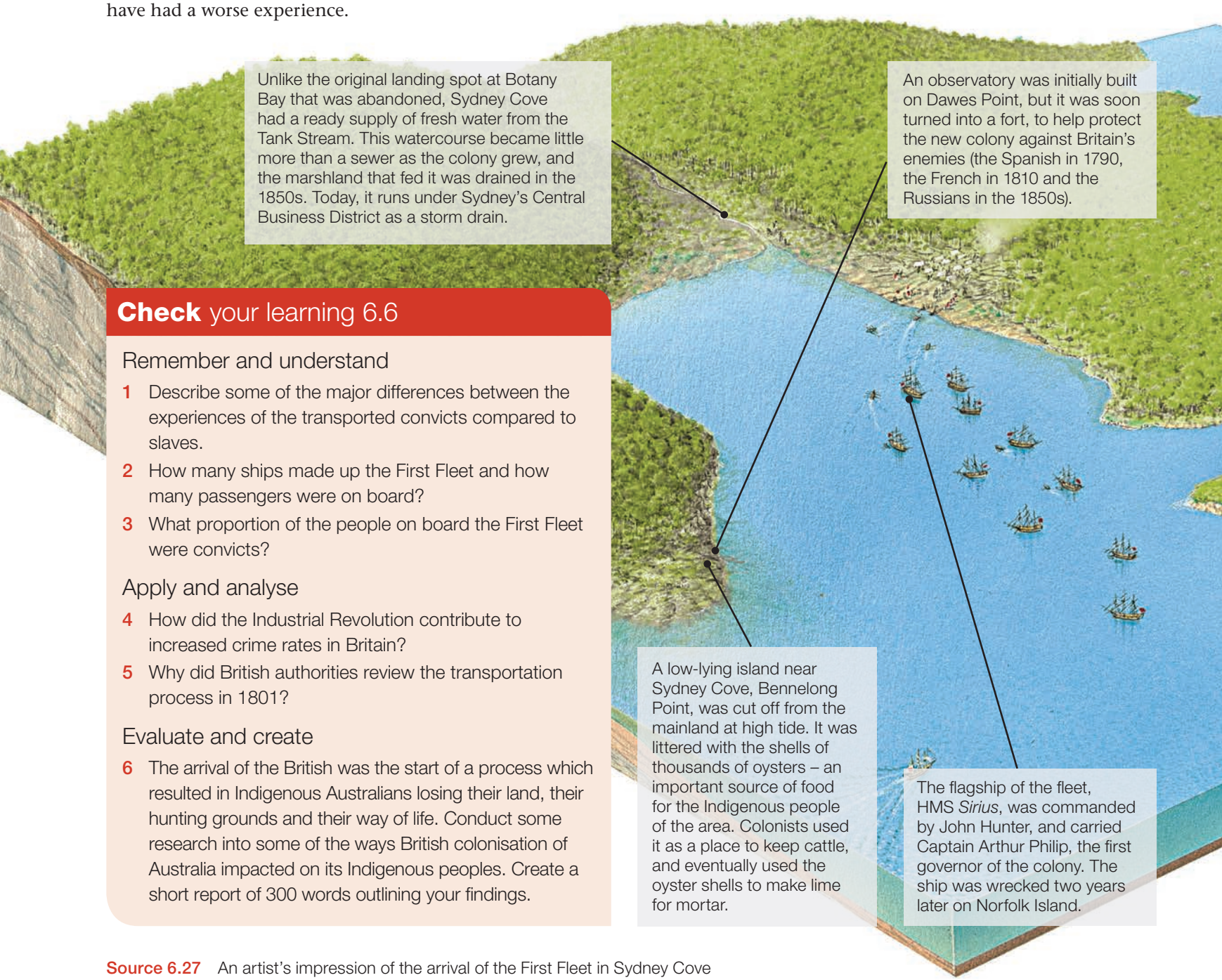
Conditions for convicts

Although conditions for convicts being transported during this period were not generally as cramped as they were for slaves, conditions on board the First Fleet were extremely harsh. Convicts spent most of the voyage restrained below deck. Most of the convicts who arrived in 1788 arrived in reasonable condition, but must have been stunned by the sight of their new environment. The seasons were reversed, the heat was unlike anything they had previously experienced, and the soil seemed too poor to sustain the new colony.

Later convict arrivals, during the 18th century, appear to have had a worse experience.

Cruel treatment at the hands of captains and crew on top of diseases such as scurvy, dysentery, typhoid and seasickness combined to make the journey a horrendous experience.

By 1801, so many convict lives were being lost on the journey that English authorities reviewed the process. Ships were only despatched twice a year at the end of May and beginning of September so that convicts did not arrive in Australia during the cold winter months. Independent surgeons were appointed to supervise the treatment of convicts. Finally, a bonus was paid to ship captains and crew members for the safe arrival of convicts.



Check your learning 6.6

Remember and understand

1 Describe some of the major differences between the experiences of the transported convicts compared to slaves.

2 How many ships made up the First Fleet and how many passengers were on board?

3 What proportion of the people on board the First Fleet were convicts?

Apply and analyse

4 How did the Industrial Revolution contribute to increased crime rates in Britain?

5 Why did British authorities review the transportation process in 1801?

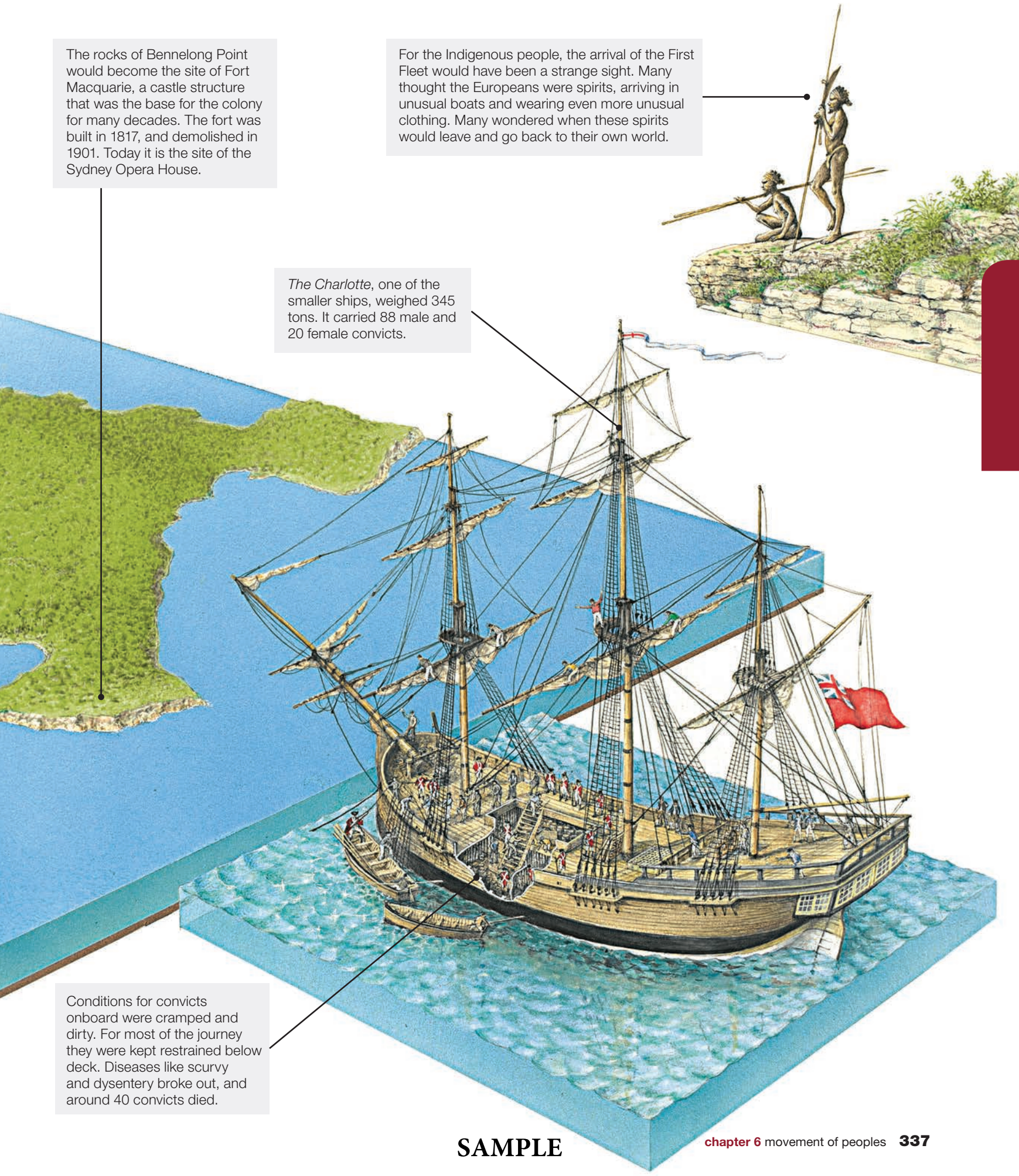
Evaluate and create

6 The arrival of the British was the start of a process which resulted in Indigenous Australians losing their land, their hunting grounds and their way of life. Conduct some research into some of the ways British colonisation of Australia impacted on its Indigenous peoples. Create a short report of 300 words outlining your findings.

Source 6.27 An artist's impression of the arrival of the First Fleet in Sydney Cove

The rocks of Bennelong Point would become the site of Fort Macquarie, a castle structure that was the base for the colony for many decades. The fort was built in 1817, and demolished in 1901. Today it is the site of the Sydney Opera House.

For the Indigenous people, the arrival of the First Fleet would have been a strange sight. Many thought the Europeans were spirits, arriving in unusual boats and wearing even more unusual clothing. Many wondered when these spirits would leave and go back to their own world.



The Charlotte, one of the smaller ships, weighed 345 tons. It carried 88 male and 20 female convicts.

Conditions for convicts onboard were cramped and dirty. For most of the journey they were kept restrained below deck. Diseases like scurvy and dysentery broke out, and around 40 convicts died.

Convict life in Australia

A wide range of convicts made the journey to Australia in the 18th and 19th centuries. Crimes that could result in transportation to the colonies in Australia included petty theft, receiving stolen goods, bigamy (being married to more than one person) and counterfeiting coins. In addition to these kinds of criminals, a significant number of convicts transported to the Australian colonies were political prisoners. These were people who had criticised the king or opposed the authority of the government in some way. Workers who formed the first trade unions (organisations established to protect the rights of workers) were among those sent to the colonies. One such group – six agricultural labourers from the English village of Tolpuddle – had met to set up a trade union to bargain for better wages with local landowners. They were transported to the colony of New South Wales for seven years in 1834. However, the men became popular heroes and only two years into their sentence they were pardoned and returned to England. For their sacrifice, they earned the title 'Tolpuddle Martyrs' (see Source 6.28). Other political prisoners included:

- a group of workers known as **Luddites** (rioters who were against the use of machinery in factories that led to the loss of jobs)
- a group of activists known as **Chartists** who were linked to trade unions and who proposed a 'People's Charter' to give all men the vote and stop the wealthy from dominating the political process. These political prisoners played a crucial role in the establishment of **representative democracy** in the Australian colonies as they developed.

In addition to the colony of New South Wales established at Sydney Cove, penal colonies were also established in Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), Moreton Bay in Queensland, Port Phillip in Victoria, Norfolk Island and on the Swan River in Western Australia. For more than 80 years, convicts and ex-convicts provided a labour force that helped to develop the Australian colonies. Over this time, more than 160 000 convicts were transported to the Australian colonies before the practice ceased in 1869.

Source 6.28 Four of the six Tolpuddle Martyrs sentenced to seven years' transportation to New South Wales

Source 6.29 An engraving of the prison at the penal colony established at Port Arthur in Tasmania, *c.* 1854

Making a go of it

Once convicts arrived in Australia, their future was largely dependent on their attitude. For many, it was desperation to improve their life that led to their transportation. If they served their time, there were plenty of opportunities in a colony establishing itself on the other side of the world. Skills in building and food preparation ensured a bright future.

The experiences of convicts in Australia varied greatly. In the first decades in New South Wales, many convicts were housed in government barracks similar to prisons and were sent out daily, often in jail gangs, to build roads, bridges and houses. Others were assigned to work for free settlers on farms or to act as labourers in private businesses. These people became known as assigned convicts. The treatment of assigned convicts depended on the nature of the master. Most masters were harsh, but some also showed compassion and fairness, teaching assigned convicts skills that would assist them once they had served their terms.

The majority of convicts played an important role in the development of this country. In most cases, their labour in the towns and on the farms went unnoticed or unacknowledged. However, some ex-convicts went on to take up significant positions in colonial society.

Source 6.30 An artist's impression of a government jail gang in Sydney, 1830

Well-known ex-convicts included Francis Greenway (architect), James Blackburn (engineer), William Bland (surgeon), John Davies (journalist and publisher), William Field (**pastoralist** and businessman), Simeon Lord (merchant and magistrate), Mary Reiby (businesswoman), Robert Sidaway (theatre organiser), Samuel Terry (merchant) and D'Arcy Wentworth (surgeon and pastoralist).

D'Arcy Wentworth was the father of William Charles Wentworth, one of the most significant figures in New South Wales society for much of the 19th century. There is some dispute as to whether D'Arcy should be described as a convict because he volunteered to go to Botany Bay before he was sentenced for highway robbery.

Case study: Elizabeth Needham (*c.* 1761–1825)

Elizabeth Needham was sentenced to a term of transportation for seven years on 19 July 1786 for the theft of two pairs of silk stockings. She travelled on the First Fleet, and was married to another convict by the name of William Snailham within days of arriving in Sydney. Both Elizabeth and her husband received land grants after serving out their sentences. Land grants like these were designed to encourage convicts to remain in Australia and contribute to the new society once they had served their time.

After her husband's death, Elizabeth took over the licence of the Wheatsheaf Inn and worked as a seamstress. She married again in 1797 to another freed convict named John Driver. With her new husband she established a shop and public house (inn). She retained control of her own money and invested in shipping. In 1801 after traveling home to England for a time, she returned to Australia as a free settler. After her second husband's death in 1810, Elizabeth remarried for the third time to Henry Marr. He was also a former convict but had made a name for himself as a dealer and successful publican (inn keeper). By the time she died in 1825, Elizabeth Needham had returned to England three times to visit, but chose to live her life in her new country.

Elizabeth Needham's story indicates the opportunities that existed for convicts in the new colony. Like Mary Reibey, who was also sent to Australia as a convict (and whose face is on the $20 note), Elizabeth's story reveals that there was social and economic progress in convict Australia, regardless of one's origins or gender.

Check your learning 6.7

Remember and understand

1 What types of crimes could result in transportation to the Australian colonies in the 18th and 19th centuries?
2 In addition to New South Wales, where were the first Australian penal colonies established?
3 Who were the Tolpuddle Martyrs and why were they sent to Australia?
4 Name two groups of political prisoners that were transported to the Australian colonies. How did they contribute to the establishment of Australia's current political system?

Apply and analyse

5 Based on what you have learned, discuss the degree to which experiences of convicts in Australia varied.

Evaluate and create

6 In pairs, discuss the suggestion that Australia benefited more from receiving convicts than Britain did by removing them. What position do you take? Use the Internet to collect three sources that support your point of view.

The arrival of free settlers

From the time of the First Fleet, free settlers chose to come to Australia. They found ways of paying for the journey and establishing themselves in new homes and on farms. In the early years of each colony, many of these people became the first landowners, establishing pastoral properties that were to form the backbone of the country's thriving wool industry.

By the 1820s, although convicts (and former convicts) still made up the largest segment of the population, there were growing numbers of free settlers arriving in the colonies. The need for workers had increased as land exploration opened up the continent.

Assisted migration

Over the course of European **colonisation** and settlement of Australia, a great many migrants were assisted to emigrate. Even with the convict population providing a labour force in the early years, shortage of workers was a constant problem in the Australian colonies. There was also an idea that the colonies needed 'a better class of settler' and this led to the idea of assisting respectable immigrants. From the 1820s, a range of schemes was developed to attract and assist migrants who would be useful and productive citizens.

In 1822, the government of New South Wales began paying or subsidising the passage of settlers – this was called assisted migration. A government agent in London assessed single men and families to make sure that they had the qualities required in the new colonies. Youth was one of the desired attributes, and most assisted migrants were under 30. People with skills were also given preference over the unskilled. The greatest demand was for workers with a background in agricultural work. There was also a need for workers in trades such as building, food processing, quarrying, road making and dock work. Some later complained that the agents were not honest about what migrants could expect in Australia, but most adjusted to their new life and many prospered.

By the 1830s, new colonies had been established in the states we know today as Tasmania, Western Australia, Victoria and South Australia. Labour shortages were a problem in all colonies, partly because land was cheap and settlers took advantage of the ability to become landowners. In Western Australia the first settlement on the Swan River had not been successful for several reasons, including the low price of land. If a settler could become a landowner, then he would have no wish to work for someone else.

The colony of South Australia, established in 1836, was based on a plan developed by EG Wakefield. Land was to be sold at a higher price than in the other colonies, and the money earned was to be used to bring out assisted migrants who would work for wages. One of the essential elements of the plan was that the colony should be for free settlers

Source 6.31 *The Emigrant's Farewell*, a painting by James Fagan, 1853, showing a family group of free settlers saying goodbye to loved ones before their departure from England to the colonies

only and that there should be no convict labour. By 1835, enough land had been sold to finance migration to the colony. Between January 1836 and December 1840, over 9000 applications had been received. By December 1840, almost 5000 immigrant labourers had arrived in South Australia. Among them were many Germans who settled in the Adelaide Hills and Barossa Valley, pioneering South Australia's wine industry.

The colony of Port Phillip (later renamed Victoria) was also established as a free colony. An attempt to set up a convict colony at Sorrento had been made in 1803, but this colony was quickly abandoned because of insufficient water. When John Batman and John Pascoe Fawkner crossed from Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania) in 1835 to establish Melbourne, the new colony was to be a free settlement. Some pastoralists who came to Port Phillip from Tasmania and New South Wales brought assigned convicts with them. There were also some gangs of convicts sent from Sydney to help with public works. But overall, the convict presence in the colony was minimal and Victoria, like South Australia, prided itself on being free of the convict stain.

In the late 1830s, a new program known as the Bounty Scheme was developed. The conditions varied from colony to colony but the general principles were the same. Landowners or business owners would pay the passage of a labourer or sometimes a whole family. In return, the migrant would work for the employer for two to five years, to pay back the cost of the journey. The landowner or employer would also receive a payment or bounty from the government. On a property or farm, the assisted migrant would be provided with food and lodging and sometimes a token income, until the passage was paid.

Costs of passage also varied but, in 1841, the price for a man and wife (both aged under 30) was 30 pounds (£30), with £5 for each child over one year of age. Between 1834 and 1850, approximately 70 000 migrants came to Australia under some sort of assistance scheme. Around half of these were female. The majority of men listed their occupations as labourer or unskilled worker. Most women were farmhands or domestic workers.

key**concept:** perspectives

Settlement of the Yorke Peninsula

After surveys of the area had been conducted in the 1840s, settlers applied for licences to run sheep on the Yorke Peninsula in South Australia. Twenty-three applications had been made by the end of 1847. By August 1849, there were 63 horses, 270 cattle, 50 000 sheep and 106 people living in the area on seven stations.

For these new settlers, this was a land to be opened up. Being the first settlers into a new area usually meant large areas of the best land to farm. The most attractive areas to white settlers were the open plains where sheep could graze, and near existing waterholes.

The Yorke Peninsula was also the traditional country of the Narungga people. Kangaroos, wallabies and emus grazed on the grasses of the clearer areas. The Narungga regularly fired the grasslands to maintain their health and continue to attract animals that were an important part of their diet. The wells and waterholes were under the supervision of various families for the benefit of all.

Typical of the settlement of the Australian frontier, there were two very different perspectives regarding the land of the Yorke Peninsula. To the Narungga, this was their home, a place where they had intimate knowledge and a connection as long as time. The four 'totem' groups of the Narungga were the Emu, Red Kangaroo, Shark and Eaglehawk. This further emphasised the deep connection between the land and the people.

For the settlers, the land represented the opportunity for wealth. It was a resource that, if exploited correctly, could set a family up for life. This meant grasslands for sheep and cattle, and waterholes for animals and wells to support farms.

These different perspectives would translate into physical clashes right across the Australian frontier as European settlers moved into the new colonies.

For more information on the key concept of perspectives refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Source 6.32 A sheep farm on the Yorke Peninsula, South Australia

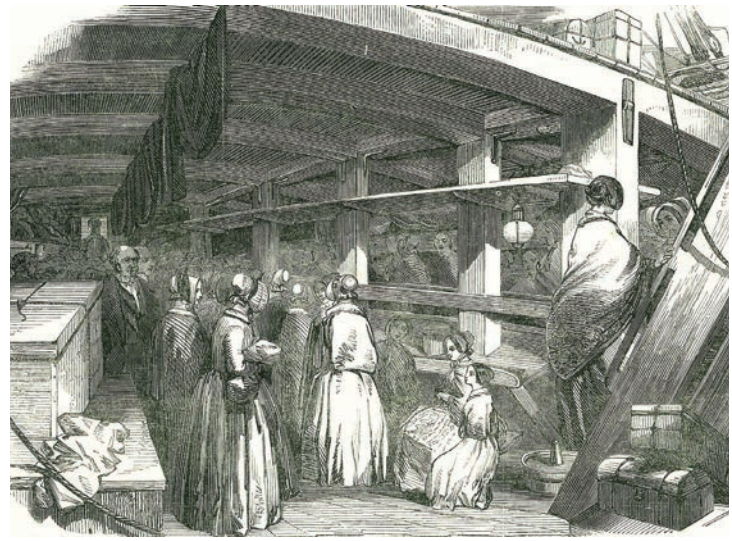
Female immigrants

In the earliest years of each colony there was a marked gender imbalance. Men greatly outnumbered women. Apart from convict women, most female migrants were the relatives of male settlers. As the government and bounty schemes developed from the 1820s, there was a push to attract female free settlers to the colonies. As well as supplying much-needed labour as nannies, domestics, and factory and farm workers, there was a belief that women would have a civilising influence on colonial societies (see Source 6.33).

One of many schemes in the 1830s was run by the London Emigration Committee. Even though wages for women were much lower than those for men, there was still high unemployment among women in Britain and few prospects for young, single girls. Helping women to emigrate seemed to meet the needs of Britain as well as the new colonies. The Committee's scheme lasted for four years and brought almost 3000 women to Sydney. In its advertising, the committee appealed for 'unmarried women or widows … between the ages of 18 and 30 and … of good health and character'.

Under another scheme developed after 1838, the Irish Poor Law Unions offered free passage to Australia for poor girls aged between 14 and 18 years. Young women, many of them orphans, were chosen from the workhouses. This scheme had the advantage of reducing the number of dependent young women in Ireland as well as providing a labour force for the Australian colonies.

Unfortunately, little support was offered to these women when they arrived in the colonies. Many had no choice but to stay in unsuitable and often unsafe lodgings where they were vulnerable to all sorts of exploitation. Some were lucky and found work. Others gained domestic posts with families but many were 'employed' by single men, including ex-convicts, who took advantage of them. Some of those who could not gain employment turned to theft or prostitution to survive.



Source 6.33 A ship carrying poor needlewomen (sewers) to Australia, from *The Illustrated London News*, 17 August 1850. There were no private cabins for assisted migrants.

key concept: empathy

Caroline Chisholm

An improvement to the situation of immigrant women came with the arrival of Caroline Chisholm in 1838. Chisholm became aware of the appalling conditions in which many young women were living in Sydney and took matters into her own hands. She began by appealing to Governor Gipps for a building in which to house immigrant women. Not put off by his initial refusal, she persisted and was eventually rewarded with the use of a large but rat-infested shed. Within months, this shed had become home to up to 100 young women. Over the next few years, Chisholm opened a further 16 hostels for immigrant women to ease their transition to colonial life.

Caroline Chisholm's work extended beyond providing housing. She taught skills to the girls and helped them to find jobs that were safe and adequately paid. Her care for them was recorded by Roger Therry in 1862. He wrote that she sometimes 'accompanied them to their places and left them there with an earnest admonition to the heads of each family to be careful of those whom she said she regarded as her children … '.

For more information on the key concept of empathy refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Source 6.34 Caroline Chisholm.

Source 6.35 Many new arrivals ended up living around The Rocks in Sydney.

The gold rush

The discovery of gold in 1851 brought a new wave of free settlers, tripling the population of Australia in only 10 years. Although the gold migrants were still predominantly British, there was a broader range of nationalities, including Chinese, Germans, Italians and Americans. The new arrivals were also slightly better educated, and many of them were more politically aware than earlier migrants. Chartists and those who had experienced the 1848 revolutions in Europe were among the gold seekers. The **Eureka rebellion** in Ballarat in 1854 was partly about unfair practices and taxes on the goldfields but it also reflected growing concerns about political rights. It is suggested that the constitutions drawn up by the colonies in the 1850s were more democratic than they might have been had the Eureka rebellion not occurred.

The migrants who came for gold made an enormous contribution to the economic development of Australia. The gold wealth ensured that from 1860 to 1890 there was an economic boom. In the later decades of the century more migrants, some of them assisted but most paying their own way, poured into the Australian colonies, adding to the growing population of native-born Australians.

In 1902 at the time of **Federation**, 2 908 303 people (77.2 per cent) counted in Australia were Australian-born, and 857 576 (22.8 per cent) stated that they were born overseas. Of those, 679 159 were born in Britain, which was 18 per cent of the entire population. Of the 74 673 from other European countries, and 47 014 from Asia, the overwhelming majority had arrived in Australia in search of gold or a better life.

Source 6.36 Tom Roberts' *Coming South*, 1886 depicts a group of free settlers making the long journey to Australia from Europe.

Check your learning 6.8

Remember and understand

1. When did the assisted migration scheme first begin?
2. What sort of qualities, skills and attributes were most desired in free settlers?
3. Who developed the plan to establish South Australia?
4. From which countries did many of the gold rush migrants come from, and how were they different to earlier migrants?

Apply and analyse

5. Describe some of the key reasons behind the development of the assisted migration scheme.
6. Explain how the Wakefield plan worked.
7. Why was the Bounty Scheme important for Australia's development?

Evaluate and create

8. Examine Source 6.32. What perspective would European settlers have of the photo? What would be the perspective of the Narungga people?
9. Research the experiences of women in colonial Australia and create an interview with a young woman who either:
   a. finds herself working in the city
   b. finds herself working in the outback.

6.2 big**ideas:** rich task

The treatment of convicts in Australia

Between 1788 and 1868, 165 000 convicts were transported to Australia. Transportation to New South Wales officially ceased in 1840, although there was a short-lived revival in 1849. The experiences of convicts varied considerably, essentially according to luck of the draw.

The following sources provide evidence about some of the different experiences convicts had upon their arrival in Australia.

Source 6.37 Convicts writing letters at Cockatoo Island, New South Wales in 1849; *Canary Birds* by Phillip Doyne Vigours

Source 6.38

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

An extract from 'Ralph Rashleig or the Life of an Exile' by James Tucker, 1845. Tucker was a convict who wrote this while in the penal settlement of Port Macquarie in New South Wales.

Source 6.39

Moreton Bay

One Sunday morning as I went walking
By Brisbane waters I chanced to stray
I heard a convict his fate bewailing
As on the sunny river bank I lay
I am a native from Erin's island
But banished now from my native shore
They stole me from my aged parents
And from the maiden I do adore
I've been a prisoner at Port Macquarie
At Norfolk Island and Emu Plains
At Castle Hill and at cursed Toongabbie
At all these settlements I've been in chains
But of all places of condemnation
And penal stations in New South Wales
To Moreton Bay I have found no equal
Excessive tyranny each day prevails
For three long years I was beastly treated
And heavy irons on my legs I wore
My back from flogging was lacerated
And oft times painted with my crimson gore
And many a man from downright starvation
Lies mouldering now underneath the clay
And Captain Logan he had us mangled
All at the triangles of Moreton Bay
Like the Egyptians and ancient Hebrews
We were oppressed under Logan's yoke
Till a native black lying there in ambush
Did deal this tyrant his mortal stroke
My fellow prisoners be exhilarated
That all such monsters such a death may find
And when from bondage we are liberated
Our former sufferings will fade from mind.

A folk song written by a convict named Francis MacNamara (also known as 'Frank the Poet') during his time at the Moreton Bay penal settlement (Queensland) in the 1830s. Patrick Logan (mentioned in the song) was the Commandant of the Moreton Bay penal settlement and was hated for his harsh treatment of convicts.

Source 6.40

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

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

Source 6.41

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

An extract from a letter by convict Richard Dillingham to his parents written in 1836

skill**drill**

Processing and synthesising information from a range of sources for use as evidence in a historical argument

The primary sources that historians use to form opinions and arguments about the ways in which convicts were treated after their arrival in Australia tell different stories. It is the job of historians to analyse these sources, to identify what evidence they provide to support or disprove particular arguments, and to come to a conclusion about their usefulness and reliability. It is important to identify who created each source and the reason why it was created. That way you can identify any potential bias. Once you have done this, you can write your argument, using the sources as evidence. You should explain why particular sources support your argument, and give reasons why the sources that disagree with your argument are not as important or valid.

Apply the skill

1 Examine Sources 6.38–6.41 carefully and complete a copy of the table below in your notebook.

2 Once you have completed the table, use the information you have gathered to write a historical argument about the ways in which assigned convicts were treated after their arrival in Australia, using the plan provided here.

- **Title**: How were assigned convicts treated after their arrival in Australia?
- **Introduction**: Between 1788 and 1869, over 160 000 convicts were transported to Australia … (introduce the context of your piece and the focus on how convicts were treated within that context).
- **Paragraph 1**: Some sources say … (explain which sources indicate that convicts were treated badly. Give examples of some of the ways in which the convicts' experiences were negative).
- **Paragraph 2**: However, other sources say … (explain which sources indicate that convicts were treated well. Give examples of some of the ways in which the convicts' experiences were positive).
- **Paragraph 3**: We have to be careful about which sources we use because … (explain the problems with some of the sources in terms of reliability and bias).
- **Conclusion**: Overall, the evidence suggests … (summarise the evidence and give your informed opinion about the ways in which assigned convicts were treated between 1788 and 1869).

	What evidence does this source provide about the ways in which convicts were treated after their arrival in Australia?	Who wrote or created it?	Why was the source created?	Is the source reliable?
Source 6.38				
Source 6.39				
Source 6.40				
Source 6.41				

Extend your understanding

1 Re-read Source 6.39, 'Moreton Bay' – a folk song by a convict about his experiences in a penal settlement in Queensland.

a Put yourself in the position of Captain Logan. Do some research on the Internet to find out about the attitudes of colonial authorities such as Captain Logan towards convicts.

b Write an alternative version of 'Moreton Bay', from the perspective of Captain Logan. Make sure this version reflects his likely experiences and attitudes towards convicts.

6.3 What were the short- and long-term impacts of the movement of peoples?

Impacts of the movement of peoples on Australia

Australia changed dramatically in the period between 1788 and 1918. It started as a tiny, struggling British colony on Sydney Harbour. By 1901, Australia was a united (federated) and independent nation – one that would soon be mourning the enormous number of Australian lives lost in foreign lands during World War I.

The main reason for this transformation was the arrival of people who had been prepared to move to Australia and help build a new nation. From the start, colonial Australia was populated by those willing to do something different and make a go of their situation. This applied equally to convicts who were forced to come here, free settlers and **diggers** seeking gold.

It appears that most convicts chose not to return to Britain. The dramatic rise in native-born Australians during the 19th century supports this conclusion. After transportation ended in 1868, there were enough settlers to allow Australian colonies to develop. The gold rushes marked the change in Australia when free settlers began to dominate.

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

Source 6.42 Henry Burn, *Swanston Street from the Bridge,* Melbourne, 1861. Melbourne grew rapidly as a result of the gold rushes.

Source 6.43 A view of Sydney *c.* 1800 by an unknown artist

Impact of convicts on Australia

Historians still debate the impact convict transportation had on the development of an Australian identity. They argue that the original convicts had to be tough to survive the original jailing in Britain, the journey to Australia and assignment on arrival. Once they were here, the old and weak died, and the lazy or angry clashed with authority, who responded with floggings and forced labour on chain gangs. Those convicts who survived and prospered were the ones who saw transportation as a fresh start. They developed their skills, used whatever education they had, and usually married.

These things combined to give them a level of respectability they could never have dreamed of having in Britain. Children born in Australia were no longer the dregs of society – instead, they were the start of a new society. In this way the Australian colonies became places of opportunity and social mobility. With so many sharing criminal backgrounds, being an ex-convict was less of a social stigma or reason for shame.

Impact of free immigration on Australia

Free immigrants have been coming to Australia since the time of the First Fleet. In the early years of New South Wales and Tasmania, free settlers were outnumbered by convicts. By the 1830s, however, the majority of settlers in the Australian colonies were either immigrants who had paid their own fares or those who had been assisted. There was also a growing population of locally born children to both free settlers and convicts. By 1850, there were six colonial settlements, and the cities of Sydney, Hobart, Brisbane, Perth, Adelaide and Melbourne had been established.

Free immigration also led to the emergence of **squatters** (see Source 6.44). These were settlers who moved into wilderness areas and laid claim to the land they used. This practice completely ignored Indigenous claims, and originally relied on landmarks to show boundaries. Farms were established near water sources, and sheep in particular became a major source of wealth. Successful squatters could become wealthy and move up the social ladder very quickly. By December 1837, sheep stations stretched for 1600 kilometres from southern Queensland into South Australia.

The farms of squatters developed rural Australia. In 1836, the New South Wales colonial government legitimised squatting by charging a pound an acre for the homestead lot. The squatter was then entitled to as much land as they could reasonably take possession of. Large landholdings developed, and wheat and wool became two main products that produced much of Australia's wealth. Modern rural Australia still reflects many of the settlement patterns and family histories of the squatter period.

Source 6.44 A painting by ST Gill showing an early squatter farming sheep

Impact of European settlement on Indigenous Australians

The settlement of Australia was always going to cause conflict with Indigenous Australians. Until the arrival of the British, most Indigenous Australians had led lives of continuity. Their culture was based on links to each other and the land. The land sustained a population that was able to eat well. Indeed, when Bennelong, an Indigenous man captured by Governor Phillip, lived with the settlers, he struggled to live on their rations. A week's food for the colonists was barely enough for a day's worth of meals for Bennelong.

Source 6.45 An etching, *c.* 1860, by Samuel Calvert, entitled *Natives attacking shepherd's hut*

Source 6.46 A painting from 1826, by Augustus Earle, entitled *A native family of New South Wales sitting down on an English settler's farm*

For the Europeans, living successfully depended on private ownership of land, cultivation of the soil, building houses and fences, and outward displays of progress. Indigenous Australians had a totally different concept of land ownership and use. They believed that they belonged to the land and that it existed to meet the needs of the whole community. There was no concept of private ownership or of demonstrating ownership with boundaries and fences. They had learned to live in harmony with the land and they had an elaborate culture and spirituality that gave meaning to their lives.

The early years of colonisation

Governor Phillip, the first governor of New South Wales, was instructed to treat the Aboriginal people kindly and to attempt to share with them all the 'benefits of white civilisation'. However, there was no mention of any recognition of their rights to the land. There was also little attempt, in any of the colonies, to understand Aboriginal society or culture. Well-meaning but misguided settlers, including Phillip, gave the Aborigines European food, clothing, alcohol and tobacco. Not only were these bad for their health but the Indigenous people gradually also lost many of their hunting and food-gathering skills, which led to further disintegration of their culture.

One of the most devastating impacts of white colonisation was disease. Aborigines had no resistance to serious diseases such as smallpox and cholera. Even illnesses such as influenza, the common cold, measles and chicken pox could prove fatal. Sexually transmitted diseases and depression also severely affected the birth rate. Aborigines were dying in their thousands while the number of newborn babies was declining year by year.

In Port Phillip, an estimated Indigenous population of up to 30000 at the time of settlement in 1835 had shrunk to between 3000 and 5000 by 1850. Apart from disease, the displacement of Aborigines from their land was a major cause of their decline. Aborigines appeared **nomadic** and showed no outward signs of possession. This led many settlers to believe that they could be moved from place to place with no negative consequences. As the pastoralists and their flocks moved across the Western District and Gippsland, Aborigines were simply driven off their traditional lands. This often resulted in clashes with other groups further out. Indigenous Australians responded in various ways. Some decided it was better and easier to accept their fate and become dependent on the white settlers. Others strongly resisted what they saw as invaders in their land. Robbed of their traditional game they speared sheep and cattle for food and some also attacked white property (see Source 6.45). These attacks often led to retaliation by white settlers.

Violence on the frontier

The whole question of the extent of violence towards Indigenous Australians is a complex one, with considerable controversy among historians. Some argue that violence and massacres were widespread and others suggest that these claims have been exaggerated. It is difficult to get to the whole truth about many of these violent clashes because they took place in remote areas. Also, because it was illegal to attack Aboriginal people, people found to have killed them could be tried for murder. Therefore, massacres were often denied or numbers were underreported.

Nevertheless, violent attacks on Aborigines certainly took place. La Trobe University historian Richard Broome has examined conflicting figures about Victorian massacres and suggests that around 1000 Aborigines in Victoria died as a result of white violence. Among these attacks were a series of massacres against the Kurnai people of Gippsland. Warrigal Creek, Boney Point and Butchers Creek were all scenes of violent killings of Aboriginal people.

At Warrigal Creek in 1843, hostilities began with a drunken attack by white settlers that resulted in the death of several of the Kurnai people. To avenge these deaths, the Kurnai killed Ronald Macallister, nephew of a powerful landholder in the district. In retaliation, a planned series of attacks was made on the Kurnai, resulting in many Aboriginal deaths. Estimates range between 60 and 150, but it is difficult to gain an accurate number. Rumours and even some drunken boasting about the massacre brought the event to the attention of the authorities. However, no one ever officially admitted to participating in or witnessing the massacres so no official action was ever taken.

At Myall Creek, New South Wales, in June 1838, 12 stockmen murdered 28 Aboriginal people, many of them women, children and the elderly (see Source 6.47). The event, known as the Myall Creek Massacres, is one of the worst examples of a brutal and unprovoked attack on Aborigines. It is also the only case in which white men were found guilty and punished for violence against Aboriginal people. Seven men were convicted and hanged for the events at Myall Creek.

Although the exact numbers of attacks and deaths are contested, it is clear that there were considerably more Aborigines killed by whites than there were whites killed by Aborigines.

The gold rushes

By the time of the gold rushes, the numbers of Indigenous Australians in all colonies had severely declined. Disease, malnutrition, violence and a low birth rate had all taken their toll. It is estimated that the Indigenous population in 1850 was only about 10 per cent of the total at the time of settlement in 1788. There were gold-rush migrations to New South Wales and Victoria in the 1850s, and to Queensland and Western Australia later in the 19th century. New settlers continued to displace the remaining Aborigines from their land and their culture.

The gold rush was a mixed blessing for the remaining Aborigines. The departure of many stockmen to the goldfields meant that skilled Aborigines working on properties were now in greater demand. Most had been working for little or no pay before 1851. Following the discoveries of gold, some pastoralists actually began paying wages to Aborigines that were comparable to wages for white workers. However, the gold discoveries also meant the end of any chance of traditional living for many Aborigines in the areas where gold was discovered.

On goldfields from Victoria to Queensland, from the Northern Territory to the west, Indigenous Australians were exploited. Aboriginal guides were used by prospectors branching out into unsettled areas. Without the assistance of these guides, many Europeans would have become lost and died of thirst. However, the guides were poorly paid (often with tobacco or alcohol) and often exploited and abused by European goldminers.

Source 6.47 A plaque commemorating the Myall Creek Massacre. The inscription reads: 'In memory of the Wirrayaraay people who were murdered on the slopes of this ridge in an unprovoked but premeditated act in the late afternoon of 10 June, 1838'.

The situation at Federation

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

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

The waves of immigration from 1788 had helped to make Australia one of the most prosperous, free and democratic nations on earth by 1900. Unfortunately, the country's original inhabitants were denied full participation in the benefits of this new nation.

Source 6.48 *Australia – news from home*, an illustration by George Baxter, 1853, showing white settlers on the goldfields reading of home while two Aboriginal men look on

Source 6.49 Blankets being distributed to Aborigines in New South Wales, *c.* 1888.

key**concept:** significance

Pemulwuy

Historians still debate how much resistance there was to white settlement by Indigenous Australians. There is no doubt that a Bidjigal man led significant resistance to the early British settlement in the region that is now Sydney. He has become known as Pemulwuy, but was also given other names and spellings by Europeans who were struggling to understand the Darug language.

Pemulwuy appears to have been born around 1750 and, in 1790, speared Governor Phillip's gamekeeper John McIntyre. When McIntyre died, Phillip sent an expedition to hunt Pemulwuy, but they found no trace of him. By 1792, Pemulwuy was leading resistance in the Parramatta area to the west of Sydney. He would often raid for food or in retaliation for ill-treatment of Indigenous Australians. In 1797, he led a raid on the government farm at Toongabbie. Settlers led a reprisal party that shot Pemulwuy seven times. He was captured and placed in hospital.

Despite having a chain around his leg, he escaped, and was among a group of Aborigines who met the Governor's party at Botany Bay a month later. This helped create the legend that he could not be killed by bullets. Among Aboriginal people in the Sydney region, Pemulwuy became revered as the leader of resistance.

So effective was Pemulwuy's campaign that on 1 May 1801 Governor King issued an order that Aborigines near Parramatta, Georges River or Prospect could be shot on sight. In November, King outlawed Pemulwuy and offered a reward for his capture, dead or alive. The following year, Pemulwuy was shot dead. His head is supposed to have been removed and sent to Britain. This certainly occurred during the early years of British settlement. The return of Aboriginal remains to Australia has been an ongoing issue for British and Australian governments.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Source 6.50 The only known illustration of Pemulwuy – by Samuel Neele

Check your learning 6.9

Remember and understand

1 At what point did the Australian population start to consist of greater numbers of free settlers rather than convicts?
2 How many colonial settlements were there by 1850?
3 What was 'squatting' and when and why was it legitimised?
4 What attitude was Governor Phillip instructed to take towards the Aborigines?
5 What were some of the diseases that were introduced to Australia by the settlers and that killed many Aborigines?
6 What were some of the ways in which Indigenous Australians responded to being driven off their traditional lands?
7 Why is it difficult to get precise evidence about the number of Aboriginal people killed in massacres in the early days of European colonisation and settlement of Australia?
8 How were Indigenous Australians regarded in the 1901 Federal Constitution?

Apply and analyse

9 Describe some of the ways in which the attempts at kindness shown by some settlers towards Australia's Indigenous peoples led to horrible consequences.
10 What problems do Pemulwuy's life and achievements present for historians?

Evaluate and create

11 Research the Battle of Sand Creek in 1864. How should it be commemorated?
12 Why is Pemulwuy important?
13 Should Pemulwuy's skull be returned to Australia? What should happen to it if it is?
14 Create a memorial for Pemulwuy that celebrates his achievements.

Impacts of the movement of peoples on the USA

There were several similarities between the USA and Australia in the period 1750–1901. Both were expanding from British colonies to become independent countries. As they expanded, there was confrontation with their Indigenous populations. Frontier settlement meant conflict and, ultimately, dominance by the European population.

The settlement of the USA has fuelled a century of popular culture. The clash of 'cowboys and Indians' was a staple of films, television and comics in the 20th century. Like Australia, the USA was also changed by a series of gold rushes. This started a period of mass migration that transformed the country.

In 1800, the population of the USA was just over 5 million. By 1920, this had grown to 106 million. This had been a massive movement of people, mainly from Europe. British transportation of convicts to North America had stopped in 1776, when the American colonies fought their War of Independence. The newly independent country became increasingly attractive to free settlers in the 19th century. Like Australia, it seemed a land of great promise at a time when the standard of living for many Europeans was affected by the Industrial Revolution.

Westward expansion

In the years after the War of Independence, immigrants to the USA poured out across the central plains in search of land and new opportunities. They travelled on foot or horseback, by riverboat and barge or by horse-drawn vehicles. From the 1860s onwards, wagon trains carried settlers westwards. Cattle ranchers drove herds of cattle across the plains, and railways crossed the land carrying supplies to the west and bringing meat and other produce back east.

All this 'progress' took place at the expense of the Native Americans. On the central plains lived a number of Indigenous tribes, the largest of which was the Sioux. To the Sioux, the buffalo was the lifeblood of existence. Every single part of the buffalo was used. There was no waste, and a buffalo was only killed when the people were sure that it could be used in its entirety.

George Catlin spent a number of years in the 1830s travelling in the lands of the Sioux people. He recorded his observations in writings and paintings. Catlin wrote of the dependence on the buffalo (see Source 6.52).

Source 6.51 *Buffalo Hunt* painted by Karl Bodmer, 1832–34

Source 6.52

> There are, by a fair calculation, more than 300000 Indians, who are now subsisted on the flesh of the buffaloes, and by those animals supplied with all the luxuries of life … The great variety of uses to which they convert the body and other parts of that animal, are almost incredible to the person who has not actually dwelt among these people, and closely studied their modes and customs. Every part of their flesh is converted into food. The [skins] are worn by the Indians … The horns are shaped into ladles and spoons … their bones are used for war clubs … Their sinews are used for strings and backs to their bows …

Extract from *Letters and Notes on the Manners, Customs, and Condition of the North American Indians* by George Catlin, 1857

Source 6.53 *Ration Day at the Reservation* by Joseph Sharp, 1919, depicting Native Americans applying for rations at a Government Agency

Destruction of the buffalo

One of the first casualties of westward expansion was the buffalo. It is estimated that in the early 19th century, there were upwards of 13 million buffalo on the plains. By the mid 1880s that number had shrunk to fewer than 1000. Many thousands of buffalo were shot in order to provide meat for the American army troops stationed in the west and for the crews building the Union Pacific Railroad. Many buffalo were also shot for sport, and their remains were left to rot where they fell. The loss of the traditional source of so many basic needs had a devastating impact on the native people of the plains.

One of the consequences of the destruction of the buffalo herds was that the plains people began attacking the cattle herds and white settlements in order to survive. This gave the colonists the excuses they wanted to attempt to move the remaining Native Americans into **reservations**.

The discovery of gold in the Black Hills of Dakota brought more settlers into the area. North Dakota was Sioux territory and the Sioux resisted settlers moving onto their land for as long as possible. The famous Battle of Little Bighorn was fought between the Sioux and the US army in 1876. Although the Sioux, with the help of the Cheyenne and Arapahos people, were victorious at Little Bighorn, the battle marked the end of their freedom.

By the 1880s, most native peoples of the plains were confined to reservations. Here they were dependent on handouts and for many there was a loss of pride and self-esteem. They were encouraged to forget their traditional culture and customs, and assimilate into the white American way of life.

White settlement

The settling of the west became an important part of America's understanding of itself as a nation. It became accepted that white settlers had a 'manifest destiny' to settle the land of the Native Americans. This meant that they believed they were following God's plan by expanding westwards and settling the entire continent of North America, from the Atlantic to the Pacific coast.

Land Run of 1889

An example of the white attitude to Native American land was the Land Run of 1889. After lands in Oklahoma Territory had been purchased from Native American tribes, President Harrison authorised the opening of 2 million acres. Over 100000 prospective settlers lined up to stake a claim for land. At a signal from the army, this huge line of people dashed across the countryside to try and claim pieces of land to establish farms.

Source 6.54 Oklahoma City in 1889

This happened so quickly that Oklahoma City and the cities of Norman and Guthrie literally sprang up in a day. Small landholdings became farms, and Native Americans were forced to give up all rights to lands that white settlers could use. This process was repeated over the next four years, as millions more acres were granted to the ever-expanding demands of white settlement.

Colorado – the 'Centennial State'

The story of Colorado is typical of the settling of the American West. It was home to a range of Native American tribal groups. They often followed different ways of life, with the Pueblo people living a settled life in cliff dwellings, while the Comanche, Arapaho and Cheyenne were more plains-style nomads who were forced out of the area.

In 1858, the discovery of gold in the Rocky Mountains in Colorado brought on a gold rush (see Source 6.55). Prospectors came flocking to the region, with cattle ranchers following the miners. This led to the displacement of the Native American tribes. Conflict between white Americans and Native Americans continued to escalate, and peaked during the massacre at Sand Creek in 1864, where a large number of Cheyenne and Arapaho women and children were massacred by the US army. This was initially portrayed as a heroic victory, but investigations revealed the brutality of the soldiers.

With an increasing population, Colorado was proclaimed a state by President Ulysses Grant in 1876. As this occurred shortly after the celebrations for the centenary of American independence, it has become known as the Centennial State.

Impact of slavery

From the 16th to the 19th centuries, an estimated 12 million Africans were shipped as slaves to the Americas. The USA became the destination for 645 000 of these Africans who had literally been stolen from their homes. Slavery became limited to the southern states by the 19th century. As campaigners started to question the morality of the entire concept of slavery, it became an increasingly divisive issue in the USA.

Source 6.55 A poster promoting the gold rush city of Denver (capital of Colorado) in the early 20th century

Source 6.56 An artist's impression of one of the bloody battles of the American Civil War

Civil war

By 1860, the USA was divided over the issue of slavery. In the 1860 presidential election, Abraham Lincoln was elected on a platform of preserving the unity of the nation. He set out his vision in his famous 'House Divided' speech (see Source 6.57).

Source 6.57

> A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure, permanently, half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved – I do not expect the house to fall – but I do expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other. Either the opponents of slavery will arrest the further spread of it, and place it where the public mind shall rest in the belief that it is in the course of ultimate extinction; or its advocates will push it forward, till it shall become alike lawful in all the States, old as well as new – North as well as South.
>
> Abraham Lincoln, in a speech delivered in 1858

Lincoln's election led to the secession (withdrawal) of 11 southern slave states. They created a new nation, the Confederate States of America. The southern army fired the first shots of the Civil War on 12 April 1861. The war was fought bitterly for four years. It tore the nation apart, often dividing friends and families as well as armies and leaders. In 1863, President Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation freeing all slaves in the Confederate states. When the war ended in April 1865, slaves in the middle states, which had not seceded, were also freed.

The freed slaves

The Civil War brought slavery to an end but it did not lead to equality for the descendants of those kidnapped from the African coast hundreds of years earlier. The responses of slaves to the Emancipation Proclamation in 1863 depended to some degree on their circumstances and age. Some left their masters immediately and took to the roads, usually heading north. Often they did not get far and it was not long before makeshift camps developed on the edges of southern towns and cities. A few of the ex-slaves damaged property and looted plantation mansions before they left. One group of slaves on a plantation in Mississippi drove the master out and began farming the land themselves. Nearly 200000 African Americans, most of them former slaves, joined the northern army when they were allowed to, after 1863.

In some cases, ex-slaves rented parts of former plantations and began to cultivate the land themselves. However, many older slaves and those who had not been treated badly by their masters chose to remain. This was sometimes out of a genuine belief that they were better off staying put, but often because they did not know where to go or how to fend for themselves (see Source 6.58).

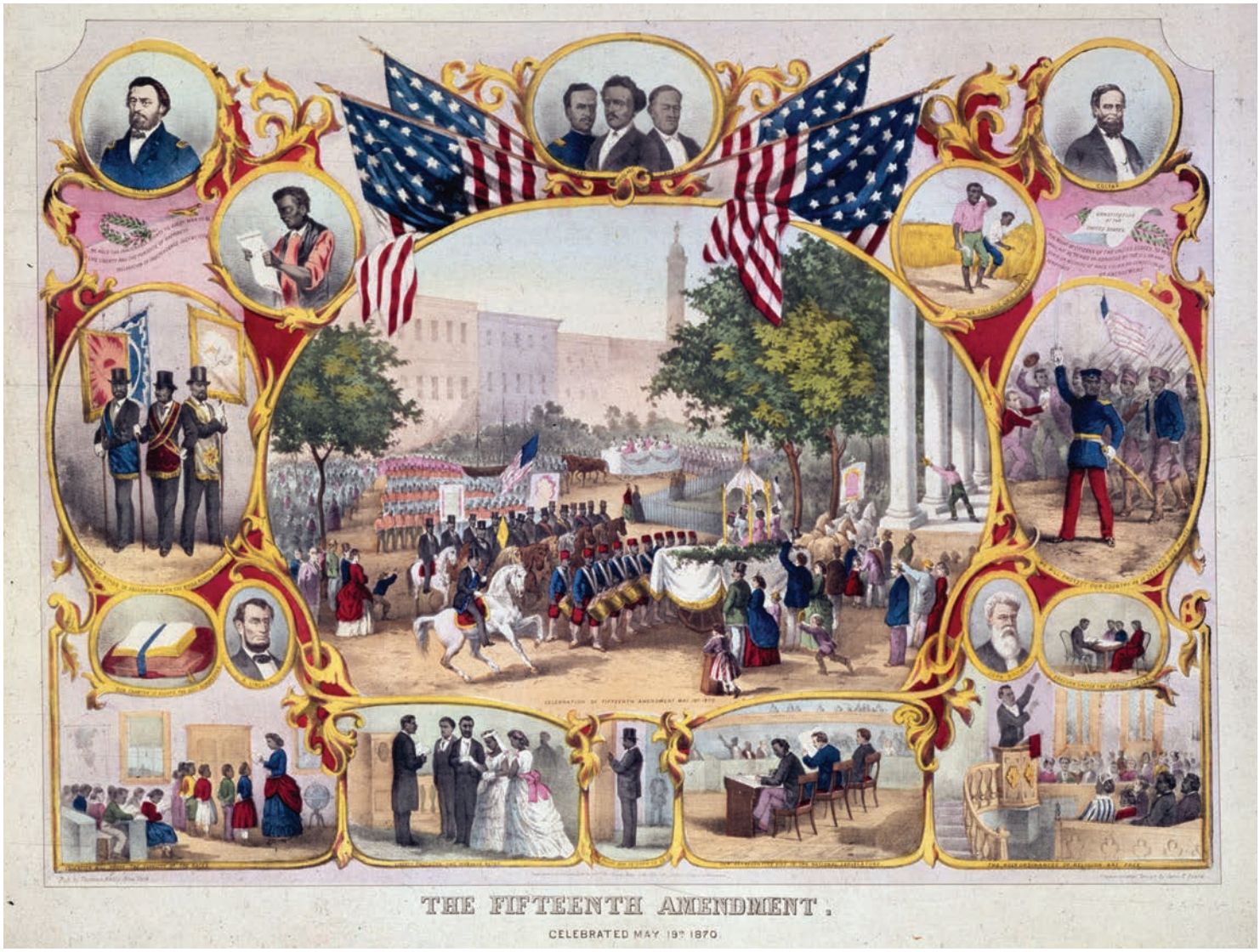
Source 6.58

> Slavery was better for some of us. Had no responsibility; just work, eat, sleep. Slaves prayed for freedom, got it and didn't know what to do with it. Slavery was a bad thing. But the freedom they got, with nothing to live on, that was bad too.
>
> I've been working for white folks washing and cooking, ever since freedom came.
>
> Extracts from an interview with Patsy Mitchner, a former slave who was interviewed in 1937 at the age of age 84

Reconstruction

The years immediately after the Civil War were known as the Reconstruction period. Between 1865 and 1870, a series of laws and arrangements brought all the rebel states back into the USA. Congress also passed several amendments that were supposed to ensure the future security of the former slaves. The most important of these was the Fifteenth Amendment, which stated that no one could be denied the right to vote 'on account of race, colour or previous condition of servitude' (see Source 6.59).

Many ex-slaves took advantage of this and used their vote to elect black politicians or whites known to be sympathetic to their cause. In South Carolina by 1877, the majority of members of the lower house were former slaves.



Source 6.59 A poster celebrating the passing of the Fifteenth Amendment in 1870

The Jim Crow years

This situation was not to last. As the northerners gradually withdrew from overseeing Reconstruction during the 1870s, southern state governments began to undo many of the changes. The racist organisation Ku Klux Klan developed at this time (see Source 6.60). By 1900, many black southerners lived in what was described as 'a state worse than slavery'. Various tricks and methods of intimidation were used to stop African Americans from using their vote. The dates and venues of polling stations would be changed at the last minute and only white voters would be notified; voters could be denied the vote on the basis of literacy or length of residency.

Segregation (separation of racial groups) was also widespread across the south and in some areas of the north. Schools, churches, shops, transport, neighbourhoods and public parks were all strictly divided between whites and blacks. In theory they were 'separate but equal' but in reality the white facilities were always superior. The laws relating to segregation became known as Jim Crow laws. Jim Crow was a black character in a well-known minstrel song.

Despite their low social position, by the end of the 19th century, African Americans were probably more important to the American economy than they had been in the slavery era. They provided much of the unskilled and semi-skilled labour force and, in most cases, their pay was lower and their conditions poorer than for white workers. Even though they had access to poorer education and fewer opportunities, there were some outstanding black Americans who played leading roles in medicine, business, writing, invention and music.

Some key African American figures of this period include Dr Daniel Williams (surgeon), Frances Harper (poet and writer), Jan Matzeliger (inventor of a shoe-making machine), Ida B Wells (journalist and newspaper editor), Dr WEB Dubois (historian and sociologist) and Mary McLeod Bethune (teacher).

The consequences of migration and resettlement for the descendants of African slaves are difficult to assess. The experiences of the original slaves brought from Africa were almost always negative. Over the decades, most descendants of the transported slaves also suffered physical and emotional damage, even after emancipation in 1863. Nevertheless, their contribution to the nation that became their home was significant, economically and culturally. By the turn of the 20th century, the movements that would see black Americans strive for equality were beginning. For many black Americans, they felt their journey to full acceptance was symbolised by the election of Barack Obama as the 44th President of the USA in 2008.

Source 6.60 Members of the Ku Klux Klan at a secret meeting in the early 20th century

Check your learning 6.10

Remember and understand

1 Why were the buffalo herds destroyed in the 19th century?
2 What was the last major battle between Native Americans and soldiers in the 19th century?
3 In your own words, define 'manifest destiny'.
4 How many settlers lined up for the 1889 Land Run?
5 Why is Colorado called the Centennial State?
6 Which tribal groups were forced off the land in Colorado?
7 What was the Emancipation Proclamation?

Apply and analyse

8 Examine Source 6.53. What are the arguments for and against placing Native Americans on reservations?
9 Write a paragraph explaining why and how segregation continued after the Civil War.

Evaluate and create

10 Research the Ku Klux Klan. What do their aims tell you about the conditions under which former slaves lived at the end of the 19th century in the southern USA?
11 Reread Source 6.58. Could slaves be better off as slaves than as free men and women?

6.3 big**ideas:** rich task

The slavery debate

Between the 16th and 19th centuries, an estimated 12 million Africans were shipped as slaves to America. By the 1800s, slavery had become one of the most debated and contested issues in American history.

Prior to American independence from Great Britain in 1790, slavery existed in all the American colonies. After independence, however, the new northern states (those of New England along with New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey) came to oppose slavery, and either abolished it outright or passed laws for its gradual abolition. By 1820, there were only about 3000 slaves in the north. Slavery could be abolished more easily in the north because there were far fewer slaves, and they were not a vital part of northern economies. In fact, the main demand for the abolition of slavery came not from those who found it morally wrong but from white working-class men who did not want slaves as rivals for their jobs.

The situation in the southern states was very different. Many southern whites were convinced that free blacks would be savages – a threat to white survival – and that slavery was necessary as a means of race control. Slaves also played a very important economic role in the southern states as farm workers, and many southerners did not believe that white men could or should do the hard labour required to produce the region's main crops (tobacco, cotton and rice). This difference of perspective between those in the northern and southern states is arguably one of the major causes of the American Civil War.

Those against slavery understood the power of pictorial representations in gaining support for their cause (see Source 6.63). As white and black women became more active in the 1830s, appeals for interracial sisterhood also appeared regularly (see Source 6.61).

Music was also commonly used by those promoting the abolition of slavery. In 1848, William Wells Brown, abolitionist and former slave, published *The Anti-Slavery Harp* (see Source 6.63), containing songs and occasional poems composed for a special event or occasion.

Source 6.61

The negro woman's appeal to her white sisters

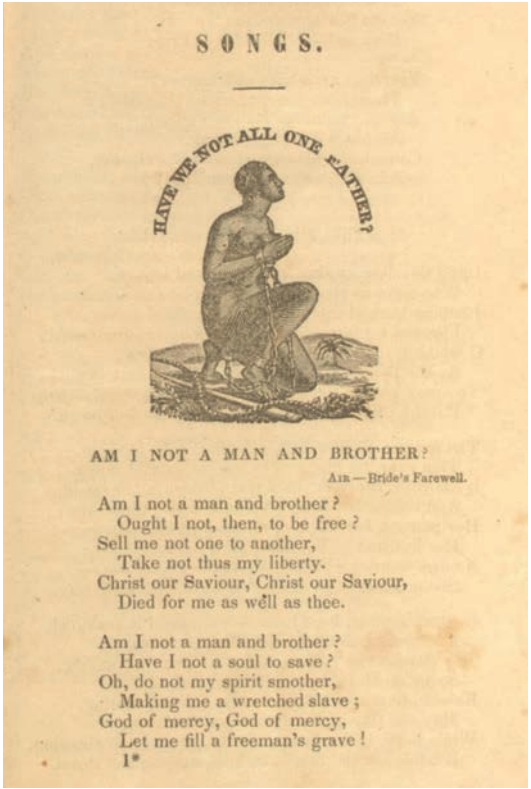
Ye wives and ye mothers, your influence extend –
Ye sisters, ye daughters, the helpless defend –
The strong ties are severed for one crime alone,
Possessing a colour less fair than your own.
Ah! Why must the tints of complexion be made
A plea for the wrongs which poor Afric invade?
Alike are His children in His holy sight,
Who formed and redeems both the black and the white.

An extract from 'The Negro Woman's Appeal to Her White Sisters', Richard Barrett, 1850

Source 6.62

The Negro slaves of the South are the happiest, and in some sense, the freest people in the world. The children and the aged and infirm work not at all, and yet have all the comforts and necessaries of life provided for them. They enjoy liberty, because they are oppressed neither by care nor labor. The women do little hard work and are protected from the despotism of their husbands by their masters. The Negro men and stout boys work, on the average, in good weather, not more than nine hours a day. The balance of their time is spent in perfect abandon … The free (white) laborer … is more of a slave than the Negro, because he works longer and harder for less allowance than the slave, and has no holiday, because the cares of life with him begin when its labors end.

An excerpt from George Fitzhugh's 'Cannibals All! or Slaves Without Masters', 1857. Fitzhugh was a pro-slavery lawyer, writer and slave owner.



SONGS.

HAVE WE NOT ALL ONE FATHER?

AM I NOT A MAN AND BROTHER?

AIR — Bride's Farewell.

Am I not a man and brother?
Ought I not, then, to be free?
Sell me not one to another,
Take not thus my liberty.
Christ our Saviour, Christ our Saviour,
Died for me as well as thee.

Am I not a man and brother?
Have I not a soul to save?
Oh, do not my spirit smother,
Making me a wretched slave;
God of mercy, God of mercy,
Let me fill a freeman's grave!
1*

Source 6.63 An excerpt from *The Anti-Slavery Harp,* William Wells Brown, 1848: 'a collection of songs for anti-slavery meetings'.

skill**drill**

Identifying and analysing the perspectives of people from the past

Primary and secondary sources reflect and represent many different perspectives, points of view, attitudes and values. People who create sources are influenced by their gender, age, family and cultural background, education, religion, values and political beliefs; by their life experiences and the time in which they live. It is the historian's job to make sure that they consider a range of perspectives in their investigations, allowing more voices to be heard and a more complete picture to be formed. Identifying and analysing the perspectives of different people is a very important historical skill. To do this, you need to understand the social, cultural and emotional contexts and factors that shaped people's lives and actions in the past.

Follow these steps when applying this skill:

Step 1 Identify the historical issue around which there may be different opinions or interpretations.

Step 2 List the various groups and people who may have been involved in or affected by this issue.

Step 3 Identify their role or position in society.

Step 4 Locate some primary sources that provide evidence about their point of view or opinion on the issue.

Step 5 Analyse each source, using the following questions as a guide:

- Why was the source written or produced?
- Who was the intended audience of the source? Was it meant for one person's eyes, or for the public? How does that affect the source?
- What was the author's message or argument? What was he/she trying to convey? Is the message explicit, or are there implicit messages as well? What can the author's choice of words tell you? What does the author choose not to talk about?
- How does the author try to get the message across? Do they give a detached, balanced account, or is it biased for or against the issue?
- Compared to what we face today, what relevant circumstances and experiences were different for the author of the source in the past? Some examples might include religion, economy, family life, technology. How do you think these factors and experiences influenced their thoughts and actions?

Apply the skill

1 Consider Sources 6.61, 6.62 and 6.63. Who wrote or produced them? Identify and analyse the perspectives portrayed in each of these sources, using the steps.

Extend your understanding

1 Identify as many different groups and individuals who were involved in or affected (directly or indirectly) by the slavery debate in America during the 1800s. Make a list to describe their roles or positions in society.

2 Look again at the list of groups and individuals involved in or affected by the slavery debate in America during the 1860s. Of these groups and individuals, whose perspectives are *not* represented within Sources 6.61, 6.62 and 6.63?

3 Conduct some research to locate some additional primary source documents which help to illustrate the perspectives of these other groups or individuals. Identify and analyse these perspectives, using the process outlined in Step 5 above.