

Year 8 Curriculum Overview History 2023-24

	Term 1	Term 2		Term 3	
Unit Title	How did the power of the monarchy change in the 17 th century?	How revolutionary was the Age of Revolution?	How democratic was Britain at the start of the 20 th century?	What was the Atlantic slave trade? Why was the slave trade abolished?	How should the British Empire be remembered?
Approximate Number of Lessons	14 lessons	6 lessons	6 lessons	6 lessons	6 lessons
Curriculum Content	The students will study the causes of the English Civil War, the rule of Cromwell and the Glorious Revolution.	The students will study the American and French Revolutions and protest in Britain in the 19 th centuries.	The students will study how people fought for the right to vote in the 19 th century and 20 th century.	The students will study the Atlantic slave trade, the experiences of enslaved people and why the slave trade was abolished.	The students will study the growth of the British Empire and different interpretations about how it should be remembered.
Links to prior learning	The power of medieval and Tudor monarchs and the challenges to their authority.	The Peasants' Revolt and the reasons behind popular uprisings. The English Civil War and how monarchy was overthrown.	The Peasants' Revolt. Revolution and protest in the 18 th and 19 th centuries. The Industrial Revolution and changing living conditions.	Medieval African history. The establishment of British colonies in the Americas. The experiences of Black Tudors.	The concept of empire and colonies. The slave trade and how the British benefitted financially from the Slave Trade.
Cultural Capital Opportunities	Potential visits: Cromwell's house in Ely; the Houses of Parliament in London Research one of the main battles of the English Civil War	Watch <i>Hamilton</i> on Disney+ / Listen to the soundtrack Watch <i>Les Misérables</i> (2012 film)	Watch <i>Suffragette</i> (2015 film) Watch <i>Secrets of a Suffragette</i> with Clare Balding Read <i>Opal Plumstead</i> by Jacqueline Wilson	Read <i>Black and British: a short essential history</i> by David Olusoga Read <i>Unheard Voices</i> by Malorie Blackman	Watch <i>Empire</i> – BBC documentary Research a British colony and how they were impacted by British rule Read <i>Empireland</i> by Sathnam Sangeera
Assessment Focus	Causation writing on the English Civil War		Extended factual recall assessment and source analysis and evaluation	End of Year Exam – with a combination of factual recall questions, source analysis and an extended piece of writing.	

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Name of Knowledge Organiser	<i>02: Civil War 03: Cromwell</i>	<i>04: Protest and Revolution</i>	<i>05: Rise of Democracy</i>	<i>06: Atlantic Slave Trade</i>	<i>07: British Empire</i>

James I

Queen Elizabeth died in 1603 leaving no heirs. Her cousin, James VI of Scotland, was chosen as her successor.

James VI of Scotland also became James I of England; the Tudor period had ended and now the Stuart family ruled both England and Scotland. James called himself the King of Great Britain.

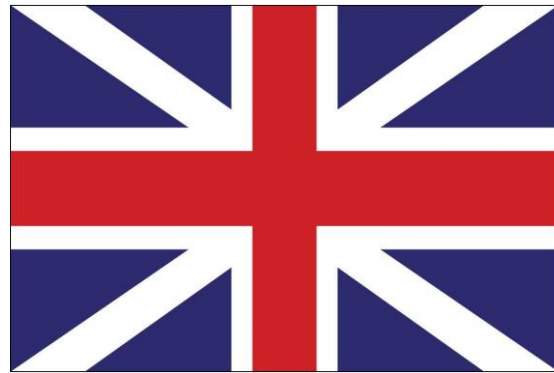
James VI was a successful king of Scotland, but there were big differences between England and Scotland.

James believed in the 'Divine Right of Kings' – that he had been chosen by God and could do no wrong.

He upset both Protestants and Catholics in England – he faced the Catholic Gunpowder Plot in 1605.

James fell out with Parliament and when they refused to collect money for him, he sent the MPs home for 10 years and found other ways of raising money.

James liked to spend money and when he died in 1625, he was nearly bankrupt.



Charles I

Charles I became king in 1625. He was the second Stuart king and he ruled both England and Scotland.

Charles shared his father's belief in the 'Divine Right of Kings' - he expected complete obedience from his subjects.

Charles ruled without Parliament for 11 years (1629-1640) – this is called his 'personal rule'. He had to call the MPs back when he ran out of money, but many MPs were angry with Charles for trying to rule without them.

Charles married a Catholic, Henrietta Maria. He appointed William Laud as the Archbishop of Canterbury who wanted to increase the amount of ceremony and decoration in churches. Many Protestants feared that Charles might make England Catholic again.

The Civil War began in 1642 between Charles and Parliament. Charles was defeated and he was executed in 1649.



Key terms used in this unit:

The Stuarts – the Scottish family that ruled both Scotland and England after the Tudors.

Divine Right of Kings – the belief that kings and queens could do as they wished because they were appointed by God.

Parliament – a group of people who help the king or queen to rule by passing laws and raising taxation.

MPs – members of Parliament.

Personal Rule – a period of time when Charles I ruled on his own without using Parliament.

Civil War – when two sides from the same country go to war with each other.

Knowledge organiser: What caused the English Civil War?

Long-term causes of the Civil War

Charles' belief in the 'Divine Right of Kings' caused friction with Parliament as they believed they had an important part to play in the running of the country. During his personal rule, Parliament was not called for 11 years. Parliament thought that Charles spent too much money on paintings and expensive clothes.

Many MPs were Puritans and they were worried Charles was going to turn England Catholic again; especially because he was married to a French Catholic princess and he appointed Laud who made changes to church services.

During his personal rule, Charles needed money so he made people pay a special tax called 'Ship money'. This was very unpopular because everyone had to pay it and it was supposed to be the job of Parliament to raise taxation.

During the 1630s, the Earl of Strafford ruled Ireland for Charles, but he was very unpopular with the Irish and with the Long Parliament.

In 1637, Laud's changes to the Church were forced on the Scottish Church and in 1639, the Scots attacked England. Charles had no army or money to fight so he had to call Parliament back in 1640 to ask them for money.

In 1641, Strafford was executed by order of the Long Parliament and Laud is put in prison.



"The war arose from a clash of ideologies involving political and religious issues for which they were prepared to fight and die."

Angela Anderson

Short-term causes of the Civil War

November 1641 – when a rebellion broke out in Ireland and Irish Catholics murdered thousands of Protestants, the English MPs wanted to send an army to punish the Catholics, but Parliament and the King could not agree who should command it.

John Pym, the most important leader of the opposition, did not trust Charles and Parliament passed the Grand Remonstrance, a list of all the grievances against Charles.

January 1642 – The King took 400 soldiers to Parliament to arrest Pym and 4 other MPs. Charles burst into the Houses of Commons, but the MPs had escaped. The King left London for York and gathered supporters and weapons on his way.

March 1642 – Pym persuaded Parliament to make a law to control the army. This was the first time Parliament had issued a law without the King's permission.

June 1642 – Pym sent a list of Parliament's 'final demands' to the King; they were very harsh and included Parliament having full control of the army, the Church, the King's children and who the King chose as his advisors.

August 1642 – The King rejected these demands and won the support of 236 MPs who thought Pym had gone too far. The Civil War broke out between the Royalists and the Parliamentarians.

Why did Parliament win?

Parliament had better resources.

Parliament was better at collecting taxes to pay for its armies.

Cromwell was a brilliant cavalry commander.

Parliament had more soldiers than the Royalists at the most important battles.

Cromwell and Fairfax created the New Model Army. The New Model Army won crushing victories at the Battle of Marston Moor (1644) and Naseby (1645). Parliament believed that God was on their side.



Key terms used in this unit:

Puritans – very strict Protestants who believe in a 'pure' religion.

Long Parliament – the name given to the Parliament that was called in November 1640.

Ship Money – a special tax usually only collected at times of war and from people living on the coast.

Grand Remonstrance – a list of Parliament's grievances against Charles passed in November 1641.

Royalists – those who supported King Charles during the Civil War.

Parliamentarians – those who supported Parliament during the Civil War.

Cavaliers – a nickname for the Royalists.

Roundheads – a nickname for the Parliamentarians.

New Model Army – a national army that was set up during the Civil War.

Knowledge organiser: Who ruled after the English Civil War?

Charles' Trial and Execution

King Charles and the Royalists lost the Civil War, but most people believed a compromise could still be made between Charles and Parliament. The 'first' Civil War ended in 1646, but a 'second' Civil War broke out in 1648 when Charles ordered the Scots to invade England. However, the Royalists were easily beaten by Parliament's army and it was made clear to Parliament that they could not trust Charles. He was arrested and brought to London.

Out of 286 MPs, 240 thought that Charles should have another chance and be reinstated as king.

However, the next time Parliament met, those 240 were stopped from entering Parliament by Cromwell's troops.

46 MPs were left to vote about what to do with the King; by 26 votes to 20, it was decided to put Charles on trial for treason. The trial took place in January 1649; 135 top lawyers and judges were chosen, but only 67 turned up.

Charles was charged with starting the Civil War, causing all of the damage and being a tyrant, traitor and murderer.

The man leading the trial was John Bradshaw; Charles refused to plead innocent and guilty. He argued that Parliament did not have the authority to put him on trial.

The trial lasted for seven days and Bradshaw pronounced the King 'guilty' and read out the death sentence.

The death warrant was signed by 59 judges and Charles had his head chopped off on 30th January 1649.



The Interregnum

Oliver Cromwell was made Lord Protector during the Interregnum. For 11 years, the country was a republic.

Cromwell was an MP, a brilliant army leader and a Puritan. He believed in a strict and simple lifestyle.

Puritans did not like sports and entertainment as they thought it distracted people from worshipping God.

Cromwell divided the country up into 11 districts and appointed a Major-General to run each one.

Many things were banned, including football, inns, bear-baiting, theatres, maypole dancing and gambling.

Feast days were banned and eating and drinking was completely banned on Christmas Day.

By 1658, Cromwell and the Major-Generals were becoming very unpopular; in September 1658, Cromwell died.



Cromwell and Ireland

Cromwell is a hated figure in Ireland and he is known as the 'curse of Ireland'.

English rulers had been interfering in what was going on in Ireland since the 1100s.

Tudor monarchs had sent English people to live in Ireland so it was easier to control, but the Irish people were not happy about foreigners turning up and taking their best land; by 1640, over 25,000 Englishmen and many Scots had gone to live in Ireland.

These settlers were Protestant, but the Irish were Catholic.

In 1641, there was violence between these two groups and the Irish killed thousands of English and Scottish settlers.

Irish Catholics had supported Charles I during the Civil War and they continued to support Charles' son, the future Charles II.

In August 1649, Cromwell took an army of 12,000 men to Ireland and laid siege to the town of Drogheda. Reports say that up to 3,000 Irish people (men, women and children) were massacred and a church was set on fire.

A similar thing happened in Wexford.

Cromwell kept control of Ireland and in England he was hailed a hero, but in Ireland he has been remembered as a villain.



Key terms used in this unit:

Treason – a serious crime against the monarch or against the country and its people.

Tyrant – a cruel and demanding leader.

Traitor – someone accused of treason.

Death warrant – a piece of paper ordering someone's execution.

Republic – a country without a monarchy.

Interregnum – the period from Charles I's execution in 1649 to when his son, Charles II, was restored as King in 1660.

Lord Protector – the name given to Oliver Cromwell when he ran the country.

Major-General – a man appointed by Cromwell to run a district of the country.

Massacre – when innocent people are killed.

Knowledge organiser: Who ruled after the English Civil War?

Interpretation of Cromwell

Cromwell promoted people based on their abilities, not their wealth. The army was improved and feared by France and Spain. Cromwell ended a war with the Netherlands and ceased hostilities with Portugal. He controlled Scotland, Ireland and Wales too. In 1290, all Jews were expelled from the country, but Cromwell allowed them to come back and worship how they wanted. Cromwell dismissed Parliament when the MPs tried to restrict people's freedom to worship how they wanted. Cromwell sometimes put his enemies in prison without the consent of Parliament. Without Parliament, Cromwell ruled on his own – like a king. Cromwell himself enjoyed music, hunting and playing some sports.

“The personality of Cromwell remains enigmatic and his reputation changes – as it will continue to change – with the moral and political climate of the living world... he is generally recognised as a great figure in our history. But his career and character remain controversial.”

C. V. Wedgwood



The Merry Monarch

Oliver Cromwell's son, Richard, carried on running the country after his father's death, but he could not control the army or Parliament. So, in 1660, Parliament asked Charles I's son to become king and Britain became a monarchy again. Charles II is known as 'the Merry Monarch' – he brought back all the sports and entertainment that had been banned. He could often be seen racing down the River Thames in a yacht, gambling on horses, going to the theatre or playing sports. Charles had a serious side – he encouraged scientific experiments and loved art, design, mathematics, drama and music. Charles II hoped that there would continue to be some religious freedom, but in 1664, Parliament banned any religious services except those of the Church of England. Although Charles II had 14 illegitimate children, the queen did not have any children so he was succeeded by his younger brother, James. The Great Plague (1665), the Great Fire of London (1666) and the establishment of the Royal Society (1660) all happened during the reign of Charles II.



Key terms used in this unit:

Restoration - the return of a monarch to the throne of England when Charles II became king in 1660.

Religious freedom – allowing different religious groups to worship in the same country.

Revolution – the overthrowing of a government or when a ruler is replaced with another ruler.

Bill of Rights – the agreement made between William and Mary and Parliament in 1689.

Turning point – a big change with significant consequences.

The Glorious Revolution

James was a Catholic and he made lots of changes when he became king that made people fear the country might turn Catholic again.

When James had a Catholic son in 1688, a Catholic line was secured; Parliament did not want this so they invited James' Protestant daughter, Mary, and her husband, William of Orange (part of the ruling family of the Netherlands), to gather an army and fight James.

Mary and William's army landed in Devon in November 1688, but James realised he couldn't beat Mary's army and he fled to France. A revolution had taken place without any fighting – Mary and William replaced James and Protestants called it the 'Glorious Revolution'.

William and Mary were invited by Parliament to rule together, but they had to agree to some conditions; they had to agree to involve Parliament in the running of the country and to consult them at least every three years; the Bill of Rights gave Parliament more power than ever before, including making all the laws, deciding on taxes, sharing control of the army and ensuring there were no Catholic monarchs.

This is considered a turning point in British history as Parliament was now more powerful than the monarch and the monarch had to stick to the rules Parliament had created.

Knowledge organiser: How Revolutionary was the 'Age of Revolution'?

The Age of Reason

The Medieval period was a time when most people believed completely in whatever the Church said and that God controlled everything. This period is often called the Age of Faith.

The period after this, in the 1600s and 1700s, is often called the Age of Reason because it was a time when people observed and explored the world around them and tried new theories and experiments. This period is also called the Enlightenment.

The 1600s and 1700s was a great age of exploration and discovery; there were lots of new ideas about health, mathematics, politics, science and astronomy and new discoveries made.

A well-educated Tudor at the beginning of the 16th century had very different views, ideas and beliefs about the world than an educated person at the beginning of the 18th century (during the Georgian period).

These intellectual changes took a long time to spread because not everyone was educated and literacy rates were still low.



Changes from the Tudor to the Georgian periods:

By the Georgian period, many changes had taken place from the Tudor times:

The Parliament was now more powerful than the monarch.

There was one king and Parliament for England, Scotland and Wales; Ireland's Parliament was under English control.

The population of the United Kingdom had increased from 3.75 million in 1509 to 13.75 million in 1745.

There were many more towns and cities with over 2000 inhabitants.

Most people were Church of England (Protestant); other religions were supposed to be free, but there were still some restrictions.

Newspapers and magazines were more common.

There was a greater variety of food available, including food from abroad. In 1652, tea was drank for the first time in Britain!

European people had a greater awareness of the world and had discovered and explored new countries.

Lots more was known about chemistry, physics, biology and the universe, although this did not help people to live longer.

Key terms used in this unit:

Age of Faith – a time when people believed in whatever the Church said and that God controlled everything (the Medieval Period).

Age of Reason – also known as the **Enlightenment** when people observed and explored the world around them and made new discoveries (1600s and 1700s).

Georgian period – the time when Britain was ruled by George I, George II, George III and George IV (1714-1830).

United Kingdom – the united nations of England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland.

Domestic system - cloth production in which the spinning and weaving was done in the home and not in a factory.

Cholera – a fatal disease caused by bacteria in the water.



"Recorded history is like a photograph of an iceberg: it deals only with what is visible above the surface, Yet below the surface is the vast mass of the population... Through all the far-reaching changes of this century [1600s] which affected the upper classes, the labour of peasants, craftsmen, mariners went on relatively unchanged."

Christopher Hill

Knowledge organiser: How Revolutionary was the 'Age of Revolution'?

Britain in 1745

In 1745, most people lived in farming cottages in the countryside with their own small plot of land. 80% of the population (about 11 million) were farmers and clothes were manufactured using the domestic system (within the home). As well as farming and textile work there was also small-scale manufacturing in workshops, as well as some mining and metal work. There was a high infant mortality rate and many children did not survive their first year. Life expectancy was around 40 years. There was a lack of medical knowledge and people did not know that germs caused illness; there were no antibiotics or anaesthetics. Food was home grown, with most farming families living on bread, butter, tea and potatoes – people faced starvation if harvests were poor. Most people worked a six-day week, with only Sunday as a rest day and church attendance. Travel was mainly on foot or by horse; a journey from London to Edinburgh could take twelve days. Education was mainly reserved for the rich; very few ordinary people could read or write. Sunday schools provided some children with a basic education. There were a total of seven universities in Britain and all the students at these universities were male.

Britain in 1850

In 1850, more of the population (about 50%) were now living in towns and cities; this was due to the growth in industry offering jobs in factories, mills and mines. Housing in towns and cities such as Leeds, Newcastle, Glasgow and Manchester was often of poor quality. It was overcrowded, tightly packed, badly constructed and with no running water, drains or toilets. Families lived in single rooms and beds were often shared. By 1851, the total population stood at 27.5 million. Half of the population were employed in the countryside and half were also working in the towns and cities. Britain in this period saw a huge growth in jobs in factories, mining and on the railways. Working hours were typically long, but wages were better than farming. There was no safety net for those who became unemployed; no pensions, no unemployment benefits and no sick pay. Although a vaccination had been developed for smallpox, there were still killer diseases such as typhoid, tuberculosis and cholera. As a water-borne disease, cholera travelled quickly in overcrowded cities. Infant mortality remained high and the life expectancy in the towns and cities was down to 35 years. People worked incredibly hard and holidays were a rarity. People generally continued to work six-day weeks with Sundays off. The expansion of the railways was well under way by 1850 and this was cutting journey times around the country. London to Edinburgh = 12.5 hours. A decent education was mostly the privilege of the wealthy upper and middle classes. There was no compulsory, free education for children.

The American Revolution

From 1607, when the first successful British colony was set up in Virginia, more and more people had emigrated from Britain to America. At first the thirteen colonies were left alone by their British rulers; however, as the British Empire in North America grew wealthier the British government felt that the colonists should pay more taxes. The colonists fiercely resisted these efforts to tax them without them having a say in how much or having representation in the British Parliament and they grew increasingly angry; on the 4th July 1776, the thirteen British colonies on the east coast of America declared themselves independent from British rule. War broke out between the colonists and Britain. Eventually the British admitted defeated in 1783; the British had lost the most valuable part of its empire. The United States of America was formed. It was the first time a colony had broken free from its European masters. What worried people the most were the ideas that emerged from the American Revolution; the Declaration of Independence stated that all men are equal, ordinary people have rights and it is the right of the people to set up a new government if the government is not acting in the interests of the people it governs.



Key terms used in this unit:

Domestic system - cloth production in which the spinning and weaving was done in the home and not in a factory.

Cholera – a fatal disease caused by bacteria in the water.

Empire – a collection of areas of land or countries that are ruled over and controlled by one leading country.

Colonies – the places controlled by the leading country.

Representation - having the right to vote and to be represented in Parliament.

Declaration of Independence – the document that declared the USA independent from British rule (signed in 1776).

Knowledge organiser: How Revolutionary was the 'Age of Revolution'?

The French Revolution

In July 1789, riots started all over France as local people took over control of different areas. The king, Louis XVI, had little choice but to give up some of his powers and the country was run by a National Assembly.

The new rulers published the 'Declaration of the Rights of Man'. In years to come, many countries all over the world would use this list of 'rights' when deciding how their countries should be run.

Some of the ideas were: all men are born and remain free and equal in rights; governments should always try to preserve these rights; every man is presumed innocent until proven guilty; every citizen may speak, write and print freely; and taxation should be fair.

Unfortunately, these rights only applied to men - women would have to wait for many years until they got equal rights in various countries.

In 1793, the French executed their king and his wife.

The rulers in Britain, Austria, Prussia, Holland and France were afraid that the revolution might spread to their countries too.

Lots of other rich Frenchmen who had dared to stay were also killed. This became known as the Reign of Terror. It is estimated that 40,000 were killed.

In 1799, the French Army took control and the leader of the army, Napoleon Bonaparte, decided to take over France himself. In 1804 he was crowned emperor.



Key terms used in this unit:

National Assembly - a sort of Parliament.

Declaration of the Rights of Man - a list made during the French Revolution which stated 'rights' that every man should have.

Reign of Terror - a time in the 1790s, after the French Revolution, when many of those who had opposed the French Revolution were executed.

Assassination - a political murder of someone with a high profile.

Luddites - a radical group of workers in the 19th century who destroyed factory machines as a form of protest.

Corn Law - this kept the price of wheat high and made bread expensive to buy.

The beginnings of protest in Britain

For some people in Britain, the French Revolution provided hope that ordinary people could take over the government and make Britain fair. For others it created fear: it would spell disaster if the old order was overthrown and violence and war would follow.

In the years after the French Revolution, a series of events happened in Britain that could be linked to what had happened in France:

1795 - There was an attack on the Prime Minister, William Pitt.

1812 - The Prime Minister, Spencer Perceval, was assassinated.

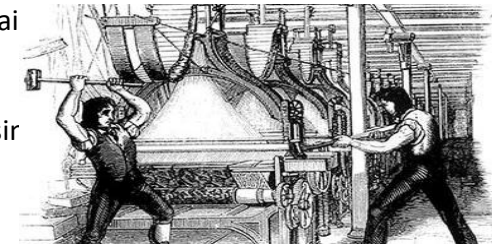
1813 - The Luddites smashed up factory machines and machine breaking spreads across the country.

1815 - Downing Street was attacked again.

1816 - There were mob riots in London.

1817 - Spies revealed a plot in the North to overthrow the government. There were also protest marches in London and Manchester.

Many ordinary people living in Britain wanted change at this time because their working conditions were hard and their living conditions were awful (long-term problems), but there were also short-term problems in 1815-1820 that made life even harder for them. These included growing unemployment, machines taking the place of workers, high food prices, increased government taxes and the Corn Law.



Knowledge organiser: How democratic was Britain at the start of the 20th Century?



What was wrong with elections at the beginning of the 19th century?

Modern elections:

Everyone over 18 can vote except for the mentally ill, lords and some criminals.

Voting is secret. No one can see how you vote.

There are 650 constituencies in Britain, of roughly even size.

Each constituency sends one MP to Parliament.

In an election, voters vote for one person to be their MP. The candidate with the most votes becomes the MP.

General elections are held every 5 years.

Parliament is made up of the House of Commons and the House of Lords. Parliament passes all the new laws.

The political party with the most MPs in Parliament forms the government.

MPs are paid a salary.

Elections at the beginning of the 19th Century:

In 1815, nobody under 21 could vote. No women were allowed to vote. Fewer than 5% of the population had this political right.

Voting was open. There was no secret ballot, so it was possible to pay a voter to vote.

The country was divided into constituencies (boroughs). The seats were unevenly distributed. There were some boroughs where nobody lived or where there were only a few voters.

These were called rotten boroughs.

In many constituencies, there was only one candidate for voters to choose from.

Elections were held at least once every seven years.

Parliament was made up of the House of Commons and the House of Lords. The king chose the Prime Minister, but increasingly the Prime Minister and his Cabinet made the decisions of government.

MPs in Parliament were not paid a salary, so they had to have enough money to support themselves.

Peterloo Massacre

Reform leaders in Manchester called a big public meeting in 1819.

The lead speaker, Henry Hunt, was calling for reform of Parliament and Universal Suffrage.

Demonstrators arrived from all around Manchester and numbered approximately 50,000. Whole families came, some carrying flags saying 'votes for all'; they were wearing their Sunday best and marching to brass bands.

Manchester had no police force and the local magistrates ordered the Manchester Yeomanry to control the crowds. These local businessmen and landowners had very little military training and many of them had been drinking.

As soon as Hunt started to speak, the Yeomanry were ordered to arrest him and they cut through the crowds with their sabres.

Eleven people were killed, including two women and a baby, and 400 were injured.

The next day a newspaper called it the 'Peterloo Massacre' in a sarcastic reference to the battle of Waterloo four years earlier.

Henry Hunt was put in prison for two years.

The government went on to ban meetings of more than 50 people.

The tax on newspapers was greatly increased so that workers could not read them in an attempt to stop the spread of 'dangerous' ideas.

There was no change in who had the vote in elections.



Key terms used in this unit:

Democracy - When the government is selected by holding elections, and leaders are voted for by the people.

Election - When people vote (choose) a Member of Parliament to represent them in the House of Commons.

Parliament – This is made up of the House of Commons and the House of Lords.

Government – The political party that has the most amount of MPs in the House of Commons forms the government.

Prime Minister – The leader of the government.

Member of Parliament (MP) - This person represents your local area (constituency) in the House of Commons.

Constituency - One of the official areas of a country that elects someone to represent it in a parliament.

Rotten borough - A borough that was able to elect an MP despite having very few voters, the choice of MP typically being in the hands of one person or family.

Universal suffrage – The right of all adults to vote in political elections.

Yeomanry – A volunteer cavalry force made up of local businessmen and landowners.

Massacre - To brutally kill innocent people.

Knowledge organiser: How democratic was Britain at the start of the 20th Century?

The Great Reform Act

High food prices, unemployment and poor working conditions were major problems for poor people in the early 1800s.

Ordinary people were upset that they did not have the right to vote. They felt this was unfair because without a vote, they could not do anything to improve their lives.

Ordinary people felt that if they *could* vote in elections then the politicians who ruled the country may help to improve their lives; otherwise, they would vote in other politicians who promised to help the poor.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, only about 500,000 men could vote out of a population of around 16 million. No women could vote.

Some of the major industrial cities, like Manchester, Birmingham and Sheffield, did not have MPs who could represent the millions of people living there.

Some rotten boroughs were still allowed to send an MP to the House of Commons who only represented a very small number of people.

Voting was not done in secret and people were bribed to vote for certain individuals.

By 1830, thousands of people had been demonstrating for 'reform' as they saw change as their great hope for a better life.

Politicians were worried that these demonstrations might turn into major riots and that the rioters might become strong enough to take over the country by force. These MPs realised that change was needed and they introduced a new system of voting.

The changes that were made in 1832 are known as the 'Great Reform Act' by historians; some argue it was not that 'great' as only one in five men could vote and no women at all. Voters still had to own property and voting was still not in secret. In total, the number of those that could vote increased from about 450,000 to 800,000. Some industrial cities like Manchester and Birmingham were given MPs for the first time and some of the old 'rotten boroughs' were removed.

The Great Reform Act was a huge disappointment for many ordinary working men who did not get the vote. However, the changes were a move in the right direction. In 1836, a new campaign group was formed. These were known as the Chartists.

The Chartists

In 1838, a meeting was held in Birmingham to draw up a list of changes to the voting system in Britain.

Ordinary working people attended the meeting - printers, shopkeepers, tailors, carpenters, shoemakers, newsagents and factory workers.

The meeting agreed on six demands and the list was called the People's Charter.

Those who agreed with the 'Charter' became known as Chartists.

All Chartists wanted change. They wanted the government to help the poor to improve their living and working conditions; they felt that very little was done to help them because there was no one to speak up for them.

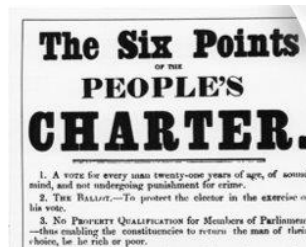
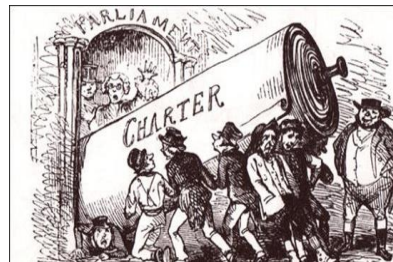
The Charter was their attempt to make the voting system fairer; if working men had the vote, they could elect MPs who promised to look after them.

The Chartists held large rallies in big cities across England to show the government that a huge number of people agreed with them.

In 1839, they sent a petition to Parliament signed by over 1 million people. This was ignored. Another petition containing 3 million signatures was organised, but this was also ignored.

Some Chartist leaders started to get angry and some talked about revolution, taking the country over and forcing the changes. Others continued to encourage the old-fashioned peaceful methods.

In 1848, a third petition was organised with over 6 million signatures. The Chartists planned a huge meeting of over half a million people on Kennington Common, South London, but only 20,000 protesters turned up due to heavy rain. The petition failed when it was found that many of the signatures were made up or duplicated and not much else was heard of the Chartists after 1848. After the Chartist movement there were a series of Reform Acts passed by the government that slowly increased the number of men that could vote.



Key terms used in this unit:

Reform – Changes made by the government.

Chartists – A group of ordinary workers who campaigned in the 1830s and 1840s for a fairer voting system in Britain.

The People's Charter – A list of demands the Chartists drew up for a fairer voting system.

Petition – A list of signatures that show support for a campaign.

"This was a movement deeply rooted in a shared conviction

among wage-earners that their economic and political interests starkly contrasted with those of the rest of society. Too often, however, its history has been written as if this effectively is all that is needed to explain Chartism. Plainly it is not.

Chartism was a movement that exhibited a plurality of motives. It was sprawling and it was untidy, but it was also dynamic and of enduring significance."

- Malcolm Chase



Knowledge organiser: How democratic was Britain at the start of the 20th Century?

What led to women getting the vote?

In 1901, no women in Britain had the right to vote. It was widely believed, by both men *and* women, that a woman's place was in the home as a housewife and mother. Women only did traditional female work like being a nurse, a maid, a teacher or some factory work and they were always paid less than men. The Suffragists formed in 1897 to campaign for women to be given the vote; they held meetings, wrote letters to Parliament, went on protest marches and made posters. Unfortunately, the Suffragists were not very successful and in 1903 the Suffragettes were formed. This group was led by Emmeline Pankhurst and their motto was 'deeds not words'. They were more militant and carried out spectacular stunts that would guarantee an appearance in the newspapers; they disrupted political meetings, chained themselves to railings in Downing Street, pelted politicians with eggs and flour, and smashed Parliament's windows with stones. They also set fire to churches and railway stations. Emily Davison jumped in front of the King's horse at the Derby in 1913 and later died of her injuries. When the Suffragettes were arrested and put in prison they went on hunger-strike and eventually they would be force-fed. This created more publicity for the Suffragettes. However, at the outbreak of World War One in 1914, women still had not been given the vote and they suspended their campaigns to join the war effort. The war brought women many unexpected opportunities; with more and more men leaving their jobs to become soldiers, women started doing jobs they had never done before. They became bus drivers, police officers, car mechanics, and road menders. Thousands of women worked in munitions factories or became nurses or ambulance drivers near the battlefields in France. The work done by women during the war was vital and many people believed women had earned the right to vote. In addition to this, many politicians did not want the Suffragettes to start their violent campaign again! In 1918, Parliament changed the voting laws and gave all men over 21 and all women over 30 (who owned property or were married to a man who did) the right to vote. Eventually, in 1928, Parliament reduced the voting age for women to 21, regardless of whether they owned a house or were married. Finally, women had the same voting rights as men!

VOTES FOR WOMEN



Millicent Fawcett – leader of the Suffragists

Emmeline Pankhurst – leader of the Suffragettes



Conclusion – How has government changed over time?

In 1215 the barons forced King John to agree to the Magna Carta. This was not – as was claimed in the 1600s – a declaration of people's rights. It was just a peace treaty by which the barons tried to force the King to do as they wanted.

By 1500 Parliament had acquired powers and rights: Parliament had the right to debate whatever it wanted, and to tell the king its demands. Parliament controlled taxes. No law could become law without Parliament's agreement.

The Tudors increased the power of the monarchy; Henry VIII and Elizabeth I controlled Parliament. When the Stuarts ruled, the power of the Crown began to decline. The Civil War ended with a period of 11 years when England did not have a monarchy. During the Glorious Revolution, William and Mary were invited to become the King and Queen of England, but it became a 'constitutional monarchy' where the monarch was controlled by Parliament.

During the Industrial Era (19th Century) the political world began to change.

At the start only 2% of people had the vote. There were rotten boroughs and elections were held in public.

In 1819 a mass meeting in St. Peter's Fields, Manchester, turned violent when militia drew their swords to clear a gathering of workers and their families calling for voting reform. This became known as the Peterloo Massacre.

By 1832 a Great Reform Act was passed giving the vote to a further 400,000 people. However, this was mostly just the middle classes and still only 4% of people.

The Chartists campaigned for the vote for all men. They presented huge petitions called 'Charters' in 1839, 1842 and 1848. However, they were ignored.

The Representation of the People Act of 1867 gave the vote to about a third of the male population, including urban householders and agricultural landowners.

The Ballot Act in 1872 brought in voting in secret. The Representation of the People Act of 1884 gave the vote to about two-thirds of the male population by including rural householders. The electorate rose to about 5 million out of a population of 30 million. It was after this Act that some women started to organise themselves to demand the right to vote. This movement was to develop into the Suffragettes.

Britain did not become a democracy until the Representation of the People Acts of 1918 and 1928 that gave the vote to all men and women over the age of 21.

Key terms used in this unit:

Suffragists - This was a group of women that believed they could gain the vote through peaceful methods; such as meetings, letters and petitions.

Suffragettes - This was a group of women that believed they would only be able to gain the vote through more extreme actions; their motto was 'deeds not words' and they carried out lots of dangerous activities.

Militant – When people use extreme and violent actions to get their point across.

Hunger-strikes – When people refuse to eat as a sign of protest.

Munitions factories - Factories that make weapons for war.

Constitutional Monarchy – when the monarch is controlled by the Parliament.

How did European attitudes towards Africa change over time?

What can a study of 16th century Benin tell us about what Africa was like before the Transatlantic slave trade?

The kingdom of Benin was one of the most developed kingdoms in Africa, in what is now Nigeria. It lasted from the 15th to the 19th century. Early explorers accounts of Benin City described it as a very well organised city: clean, free from crime and with happy residents. It was ruled by a king, known as the **Oba**, but there was also an organised system of government, guilds, and law courts. The kingdom became very wealthy due to trade. The area was known for its gold and bronze, and there were skilled metalworkers in Benin City. The people of Benin also traded ivory, cotton cloth and enslaved peoples with other Africans, Arabs and later, with Europeans.



Benin City was described as 'wealthy and industrious, well-governed and richly decorated'.

How did attitudes change towards Africa in the early modern period?

Tudors:

Attitudes towards Africa were conflicting during this time period. There is evidence – as shown in Miranda Kaufman's book *Black Tudors* – that there were African people living in Tudor England. Many occupied positions of responsibility in court – for instance, John Blanke the trumpeter – suggesting that attitudes towards African people were not shaped by racism at this time.

Stuarts:

However, during the Stuart period, English merchants built up slave-powered **colonies** in America and the West Indies and grew a trade in human beings, that would make England the world's biggest slave trading country. The first established **colony** in the Caribbean was Barbados in 1627. By the middle of the 17th century, Barbados became a whole island dedicated to farming sugar on big farms called '**plantations**', powered by tens of thousands of enslaved people from Africa. Soon there were more enslaved Africans than Europeans living on Barbados.

King Charles II set up the **Royal African Company (RAC)** in 1672, allowing this to be the only company allowed to trade all along the western coast of Africa. The Royal African Company built forts along the West Coast of Africa known as 'Slave Castles'. From here, they bought enslaved people from local African slave traders. Some traders burned the initials of into the enslaved peoples skin to mark them as their property. Iron shackles were fixed around their legs so they could be chained up. They were then loaded into overcrowded ships for the horrific journey across the Atlantic Ocean, known as the '**Middle Passage**'.



How did the slave trade triangle work?

During the 1600s, Britain became a powerful **trading nation**. Goods such as sugar, cotton and tobacco flooded into the country and items made in Britain were shipped to faraway places. Many British people became rich as a result of this, but it led to a trade of humans being enslaved. African slaves ended up in North and South America and the West Indies as a result of a three-legged journey known as the **slave trade triangle**. West African enslaved people were exchanged for trade goods such as brandy and guns. Enslaved people were taken via the '**Middle Passage**' across the Atlantic for sale in the West Indies and North America. Finally, a cargo of rum and sugar taken from the colonies, was taken back to England to sell.

"Given his youthful appearance and the extent of the scattered African population in the early 16th century, we can guess that John Blanke was born in north or west Africa or in southern Europe to African parents in the late 15th century... A position at court was the best any musician could hope for; it brought high status and a regular wage, as well as board, lodging and a clothing allowance..."

Key words:

Enslaved person – someone who is owned and is not free

Oba – the ruler of the Benin Kingdom

Kingdom of Benin – now Nigeria

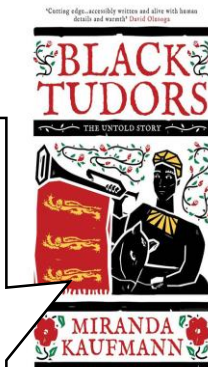
Colonies – land taken and governed by another country

Trading nation – a country that makes most of their money through trade

Middle Passage – the journey across the Atlantic Ocean that slave ships took

Slave trade triangle

Plantations – where sugar and tobacco was grown



How did European attitudes towards Africa change over time?

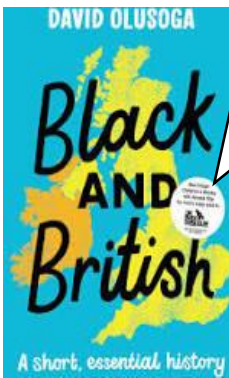
What was the lived experience of those enslaved by the Transatlantic slave trade?

The Middle Passage

At the height of the slave trade, in the 1700s, an estimated six million Africans were taken across the Atlantic Ocean to work as enslaved people. Over 50,000 voyages, lasting between 40 and 70 days, were made in the 300 years between 1510 and 1833. As many as 2 million slaves died during the journey via the Middle Passage. Journeys lasted from as little as six weeks to several months, depending on the weather. The ships were often too small to carry the hundreds of enslaved people on board. They were tightly packed into cramped spaces with one person's right leg chained to the left leg of another person. Conditions on the ships were terrible and slaves died from diseases such as smallpox, scurvy and measles.

An account of the Middle Passage from 'The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano or Gustavus Vassa, the African'.

One day, when we had a smooth sea, and a moderate wind, two of my wearied countrymen, who were chained together... preferring death to such a life of misery, somehow made through the nettings, and jumped into the sea: immediately another quite dejected fellow, who, on account of his illness, was suffered to be out of irons, also followed their example... two of the wretches were drowned, but they got the other, and afterwards flogged [beat] him unmercifully, for thus attempting to prefer death to slavery. In this manner we continued to undergo more hardships than I can now relate; hardships which are inseparable from this accursed trade...



Historian David Olusoga in his book *Black and British: A short, essential history (2020)*

Thousands died on the plantations where they were overworked, neglected, not given enough food and beaten.. These enslaved people were bought by rich families who made them work for them as servants. When they were no longer wanted or useful, they were advertised for sale in the newspapers.

What was the lived experience of those enslaved by the Transatlantic slave trade?

Life on the plantation

When enslaved people got to their destination they were cleaned up and sold. There were two main ways to buy: **auction** or **scramble**. People were paraded and bid on by the buyers in an auction, or sold at a fixed price and picked – first-come-first-served – by the buyers. After the sale the people were the property of the owner. They were given European names and **branded** with their owner's initials on their back. There were a variety of jobs and places that slaves could be sent, but the life of all enslaved people was hard. They would often live on **plantations** (huge farms) and were forced to plant, look after and harvest crops such as tobacco, sugar and coffee. Some worked in the plantation owner's house as a cleaner, cook or servant. Enslaved people had no legal rights and were not allowed to learn to read or write, marry without permission, or own property. Some tried to run away, but if they were caught, they were severely punished.



What can stories of resistance and rebellion tell us about the lives of enslaved people?

Enslaved people could rebel and resist in different ways. Some African rulers refused to sell people to the traders. Occasionally villages attacked British slave ships and set the slaves free. Sometimes slaves **mutinied** on board ships. The most famous case was the **Amistad** in 1839. There were many rebellions. The most famous leader was Toussaint l'Ouverture, who led a successful slave **revolution** in French Saint Domingue in 1791. In Jamaica, runaway slaves formed 'Maroon' communities that fought against the British soldiers. In Britain, enslaved people like James Somerset (or Somerset), frequently ran away from their masters. When he was recaptured, he and his friends contested his case in the courts. British Africans such as Olaudah Equiano formed the 'Sons of Africa' and campaigned against the slave trade.



Key words:

Mutiny – a rebellion against those in charge

Revolution – the overthrow of a government or leader, usually in a violent way

What do the stories of Black British individuals reveal about attitudes to race in the Georgian period?

There were both enslaved and free Black people in Georgian Britain. It was unclear whether slavery was legal in Britain or not.? In the colonies in North America and the Caribbean, laws had been created to make slavery legal and to allow the owners of enslaved people to inflict terrible punishments on them. But there were no laws for slavery in Britain itself, and what no one knew was whether an enslaved person coming to England, Wales or Scotland remained enslaved, or if they had the same rights to be protected by the law as any white person.

We will look at a range of individuals who lived in Georgian Britain:

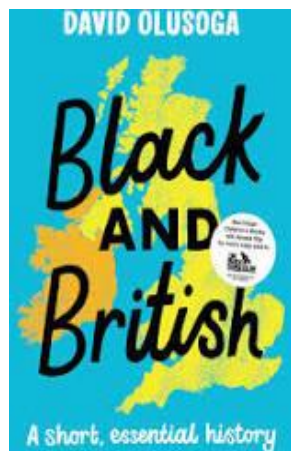
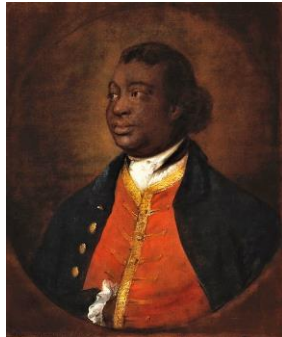
- Bill Richmond, a boxer
- Ignatius Sancho
- Dido Belle Lindsay
- James Somerset



How did European attitudes towards Africa change over time?



ASTRIKING view of RICHMOND.



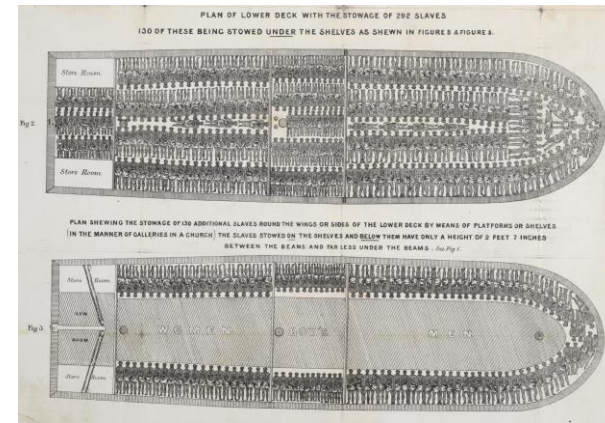
What does the Abolition movement reveal about attitudes towards the slave trade by the 19th century?

The actions of religious Europeans – **abolitionists** – contributed to the end of slavery in Britain. Granville Sharp helped former enslaved people in court cases against their old masters and helped bring the injustice of slavery to the British public’s attention. In 1787 a group of 12 Christian men, including William Wilberforce, formed a group to fight for **abolition**. Wilberforce was an MP and made speeches against slavery in Parliament. Thomas Clarkson collected evidence of the horrors of the Middle Passage and the treatment that enslaved people faced. The campaigners used this evidence to collect huge **petitions** from the public.

Why was the slave trade abolished?

In 1807, the British Parliament abolished the slave trade. It made it illegal to buy and sell people, although people were allowed to keep those they already owned. In 1833, Parliament banned slave ownership too. There are several factors that led to the end of slavery.

1. Slavery wasn’t making as much money as it used to
2. Enslaved people helped end slavery
3. Black people proved the racists wrong
4. Anti-slave campaigners such as Granville Sharp, Thomas Clarkson, and William Wilberforce



A diagram of a ship used by Thomas Clarkson to prove the inhumanity of the Middle Passage

Key words:

Abolition – to get rid of something

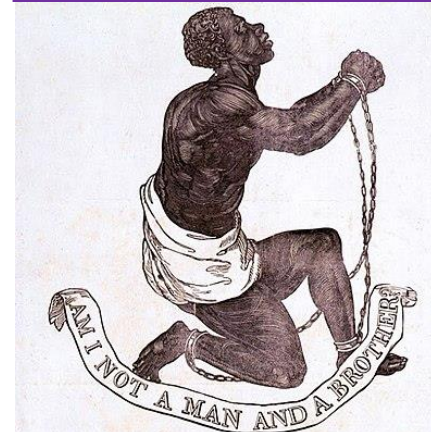
Abolitionist – someone who campaigned to abolish slavery

Petition – where signatures from the public are collected to show support of a view

Georgian era – is a period in British history from 1714 to c. 1830–37, named after Kings George I, George II, George III and George IV.

“The British slave trade may be said to have been doomed when Sharp, Clarkson, Wilberforce and their little band of propagandists opened their countrymen's eyes to the actual brutalities it involved, when such men of light and leading as Wesley, Adam Smith, Porteous, and Bentham came out against it, and when the House of Commons, headed by Pitt and Fox and Burke, was converted to the principle of Abolition.”

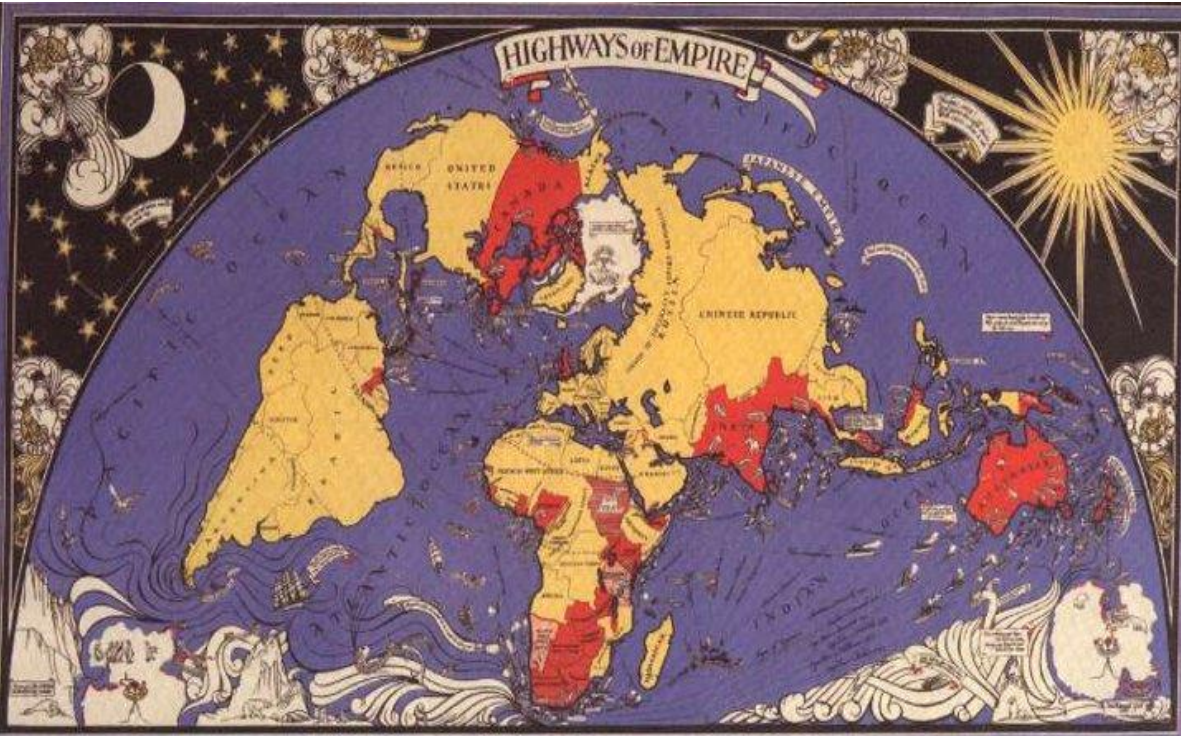
Reginald Coupland, *The British Anti-Slavery Movement, 1935*



Knowledge organiser: What did colonisation mean for the people of the British Empire?

What was the British Empire, and why did Britain want one?

An **empire** is a collection of areas of land or a group of countries ruled by one leading country: a 'mother' country. The places controlled by the mother country are usually called **colonies**. Around 100 years ago, Britain ruled the largest empire the world had ever known: over 450 million people living in 56 colonies around the world. There are four key reasons why Britain wanted an empire: **trade**; competition with other countries; exploration; to spread Christianity. Britain grew their empire over time, and acquired it in four key wars: war, settlers, discovery or trade. If Britain won a war against another country, Britain could often take over any land the other country owned: for example, Canada was taken from France after the Seven Years War in 1763. Sometimes British settlers would go to another part of the world and start to live there: America in the 1600s. Occasionally explorers would find land and claim it for Britain, like Captain James Cook did to Australia in 1770. When British companies went to trade in some places, they took over large areas, for example, India.



What was Duleep Singh's experience of Empire?

Maharaja Duleep Singh was born in Lahore, in modern-day Pakistan, on 6 September 1838.

After his father's death, Duleep Singh was declared Maharaja at just 5 years old. The British, through their agents in the East India Company, were quick to exploit the unstable situation in the Punjab. After two Anglo-Sikh wars, the Company took control of the region. The Maharaja, still only 10 years old, was forced to surrender his lands and the prized Koh-i-Noor diamond. In return, he was granted a pension, provided he 'remain obedient to the British Government'.

After taking the Punjab, the British East India Company moved the Maharaja southeast to Fatehgarh, in modern day Uttar Pradesh, India. Under the guardianship of British army surgeon John Login and his wife Lena, who were devout Christians, Duleep Singh converted to Christianity. The following year (1854) he travelled to England.

Duleep Singh first met [Queen Victoria](#) in 1854. She took a liking to him, and Duleep Singh often visited the Royal Family at Windsor and Osborne. As a new member of the English aristocracy, he attended dinners, shooting parties and balls.

Singh got married in 1864 to Bamba Muller. The couple moved to Elveden in Suffolk. The Maharaja loved his new estate, and he remodelled the interior to make it look like the Indian palaces of his childhood. Elveden became famed for shooting game, his favourite pastime. However, his extravagant lifestyle caused frequent disputes with British authorities.

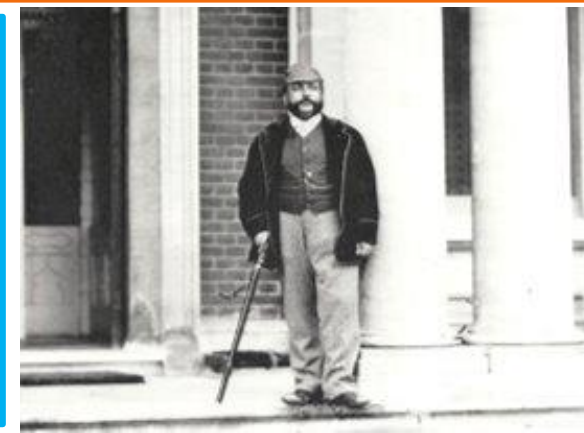
Duleep Singh converted back to the Sikh faith in 1886 and moved to Paris. He spent his last six years trying to reclaim the Punjab from the British. His increasingly-elaborate plans included conspiring with Russian and Irish revolutionaries. This failed.

In 1890 Duleep Singh suffered a stroke. Infirm and without friends or money, he became reconciled with Queen Victoria. The Queen granted him a royal pardon, to the dismay of her ministers.

The Maharaja died in Paris on 22 October 1893. His children had him buried next to Bamba at Elveden. Representatives of Queen Victoria were among the mourners at his funeral.

Key words:

- **Empire** – a group of countries ruled by one leading country: a 'mother' country.
- **Colony** – a place or territory ruled over by the 'mother country'.
- **Colonisation** – the action or process of settling among and establishing control over the indigenous people of an area
- **Maharaja** – a Hindu prince in India

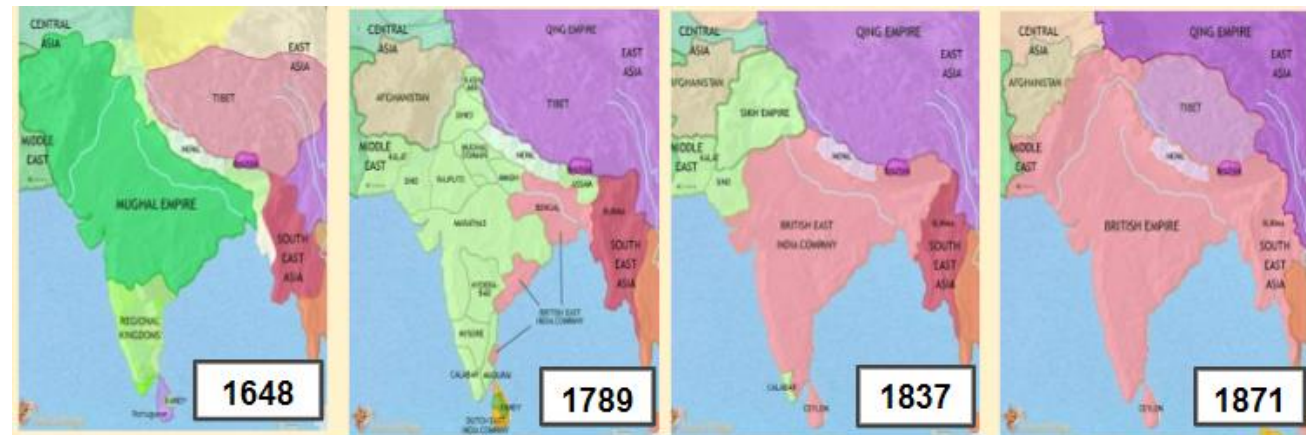


Knowledge organiser: What did colonisation mean for the people of the British Empire?

What did British colonisation mean for the people of India? The East India Company



- The British **East India Company** were formed in 1600 to explore trade opportunities in the East, Southeast Asia and India. The company used armed force to take land and force locals to trade with them.
- In the late 1600s/early 1700s the **Mughal empire** in India was weakening – power rested in the hands of regional leaders not the Mughal emperor.
- The East India Company started to take advantage of this unrest, and over the following decades, various Indian rulers were either beaten in battle or played against each other.
- From 1757 after the Battle of Plassey, the East India Company began to control the government, economy and education system of India. They used their army of Indian **sepoys** to help them keep control.
- By 1857, the sepoys in the East India Company's army began a rebellion after a rumour spread about a new rifle they would be receiving. To load the rifle soldiers believed they would have to bite off the end of a cartridge which was covered in pigs' and cows' grease. This would have been an insult to both Muslims and Hindus, as it is against the religious beliefs of Muslims to eat pig products and it is against the religious beliefs of Hindus to eat cow products. These events increased the feeling that the British were not respecting Indian values.
- In March 1857 a sepoy named Mangal Pandey attacked his British officer and was executed. By May, the rebellion spread as tens of thousands of other sepoys turned on their officers, in some cases killing them. Although the sepoys initially had some successes and took some territory, the British defeated the rebellion after 18 months of fighting. In August 1858, the **Government of India Act** was passed, and direct British rule of India began.
- This direct rule became known as the **British Raj**.



What did British colonisation mean for the people of India? The British Raj

After 1857, there was increased separation between the Indian population and the **civil service** who ran India for the British. They bought British furniture, sent their children to British schools and ordered their Indian servants to cook British food. This separation led to a racist view that Indians were inferior to the British.

The British Raj made sure it carefully controlled and prevented opposition growing in a number of ways:

- Most Indians could not vote or hold any positions of power.
- The British allowed some Indian rulers to remain in power in their local areas, but they had to swear loyalty to the Raj and could be removed if they offered any resistance.
- Although the **caste system** existed before British rule, British policies made it more important than it had been before. The British Indian Army, for example, only recruited soldiers from certain castes religions and ethnicities.
- Indians followed many different religions. As with the caste system, the government encouraged conflict between these religions. A **'divide and rule'** policy meant Muslims, Hindus and other groups were treated differently.
- The British Raj introduced high taxes on everyday goods like salt.
- Railways were built to allow troops to be moved quickly in case of rebellion. They also transported raw materials such as coal, iron and cotton to export to Britain, even when there were famine in India.

Key words:

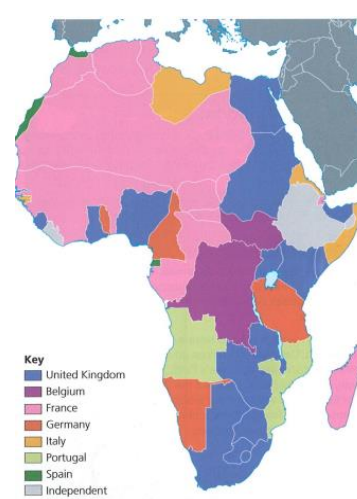
- East India Company** – a trading company that began to rule India between 1757 and 1858.
- Sepoys** - the EIC had their own army of Indian soldiers called sepoys led by English officers
- British Raj** - British governments rule over India under a Viceroy (after 1858). Raj means rule.
- Government of India Act** - set up the British Raj in August 1858.
- Caste system** - is a class structure that is determined by birth.
- 'Divide and rule'** - a policy that the British government used to stop rebellion in India. If the population was divided, they would not fight together.



Knowledge organiser: What did colonisation mean for the people of the British Empire?

What did British colonisation mean for the First Peoples of Australia?

- The First Peoples of Australia are the Indigenous people of Australia who lived there before Europeans settled there. They are known as Aboriginal Australians.
- They have lived there for over 50,000 years, separated into hundreds of different nations and clans. Each group has its own language, laws, beliefs and customs. All groups are united by a connection to the land they live on.
- In 1770 British explorer, James Cook claimed eastern Australia. To prevent other countries from taking it, the British government set up a *penal colony*. Transportation – forced migration - was a common punishment for convicts. Conditions were harsh, but colonists were given small plots of land when they finished their sentence.
- By 1850, the European population had reached 400,000.
- At first the First Peoples accepted the British settlement, but over time they responded by destroying crops and livestock. The British government punished them. Over time, the indigenous population reduced due to this, and European diseases being transmitted
- During the 19th century, the British expanded their settlement into six colonies. Resistance to the First Peoples ancestral lands being taken led to 140 years of the Frontier Wars.
- In the late 19th century, most Australian colonies passed *Aboriginal Protection Acts*. These laws removed First Peoples to segregated reserves and gave the government the power to forcibly remove children from their parents to children's homes. Colonial governments hoped that this would lead to the First Peoples *assimilating* with white Australians, causing their language and culture to die out completely.
- By 1942, Australia won full independence from the British Empire, but descendants of European settlers continued to dominate independent Australia. In some states, First Peoples did not win the right to vote until 1962, and Aboriginal Protections Acts remained in place until the 1970s. Today, First Peoples still face disadvantages in education, employment and access to healthcare.
- In 2019, First Peoples marched to the War Memorial to demand recognition for those who died in the Frontier Wars. There is still no memorial.



Bob Randall, a Yankunytjatjara elder from Central Australia, summarises the First Peoples' relationship with the land by saying "We don't own the land, the land owns us".



How did Africans resist colonisation?

In the mid-19th century, European countries started to take an interest at the wealth of resources that Africa had. In 1884 Otto von Bismarck – the Chancellor of Germany – led a conference called the Berlin Conference. At this conference, the European nations divided up Africa between them. This shows how these countries felt that Africa was theirs to take.

Across Africa, people resisted colonisation. For example:

Nehanda Nyakasikana, c.1862-98

- Nehanda was a **Svikiro** (spiritual leader) of the Shona people and born in what is now known as Zimbabwe.
- In 1893, the British South African Company annexed Shona lands and added them to their territory of Rhodesia.
- Nehanda defied colonialists by inciting a rebellion in 1896-97. She was charged with the murder of a British official, Native Commissioner Henry Hawkins Pollard in 1896. She was arrested and condemned to death.
- Nehanda became an iconic figure for African Freedom fighters in the Rhodesian Bush War of the 1960s and 70s. The war resulted in Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe) gaining its independence from the British in 1980.

The **Zulu** people are the largest ethnic group and nation in South Africa, with an estimated 10–12 million people, living mainly in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. The **Zulu Kingdom** defended against the British in the 1870s. Despite fierce resistance, the Zulu were defeated, and Zululand was declared a British territory.

Mau Mau Uprising, in Kenya, 1953-56

At the core of the Mau Mau movement was access to basic rights: higher wages, increased educational opportunities, return of alienated lands, and African self-determination. The movement was eventually defeated by the extreme measures taken by the British. Although the Mau Mau rebellion was eventually put down, Kenya's eventual independence in 1963 was undoubtedly a result of the political and economic pressures created by the Mau Mau.

Key words:

Indigenous people are the people who lived in a land from the earliest times or from before the arrival of colonists. They are sometimes called the **First Peoples**.

Penal colony – a settlement used to exile prisoners and separate them from the general population by placing them in a remote location.

Assimilating – to cause (a person or group) to become part of a different society and give up their own culture.