

Name:
Industrialization

Date:
Mrs. Seemayer



Unit Objectives

Know

- Students will know definitions of the terms: Industrial Revolution, workhouse, factory, cholera
- Students will know details about the events and conditions of the Industrial Revolution.

Understand

- Students will understand the impacts of the Industrialization on past and modern society.
- Students will understand that historical events can produce both benefits and downfalls.
- Students will understand how poverty is created and maintained in a society.
- Students will understand how social issues addressed hundreds of years ago still exist.

Do

- Students will be able to discuss time periods and issues people have faced, historically.
- Students will be able to identify issues and discuss feasible alternatives.
- Students will be able to read and annotate a text.
- Students will be able to write a CEPEP paragraph
- Students will be able to identify and create a project based on their academic strengths.

“Industrialization Revolution Overview”: Video Notes

1. Living During the Industrial Revolution
 - a. How long ago did the Industrial Revolution begin?

2. Life Before the Industrial Revolution
 - a. 9 out of 10 people lived in _____.
 - b. What was life like before the Industrial Revolution?

3. Textile Manufacturing Before the Industrial Revolution
 - a. Before the Industrial Revolution, what could poor, rural people do to make extra money?

4. Revolution in the Textile Industry
 - a. When [a spinning mule] was hooked up to water power, just one person could do the work of _____ hand-spinners.
 - b. How did machines impact the cottage industry?

5. Factories and Growth of industrial Cities
 - a. Why were factories a turning-point in human society?

excerpt from "The Excursion", William Wordsworth, 1814

Meanwhile, at social Industry's command
How quick, how vast an increase. From the germ
Of some poor hamlet, rapidly produced
Here a huge town, continuous and compact
Hiding the face of earth for leagues-and there,
Where not a habitation stood before,
Abodes of men irregularly massed
Like trees in forests,-spread through spacious tracts.
O'er which the smoke of unremitting fires
Hangs permanent, and plentiful as wreaths
Of vapour glittering in the morning sun.
And, wheresoe'er the traveler turns his steps
He sees the barren wilderness erased,
Or disappearing; triumph that proclaims
How much the mild Directress of the plough
Owes to alliance with these new-born arts!
-Hence is the wide sea peopled,-hence the shores
Of Britain are resorted to by ships
Freighted from every climate of the world
With the world's choicest produce. Hence that sum
Of keels that rest within her crowded ports
Or ride at anchor in her sounds and bays;
That animating spectacle of sails
That, through her inland regions, to and fro
Pass with the respirations of the tide,
Perpetual, multitudinous!...
...I grieve, when on the darker side
Of this great change I look; and there behold
Such outrage done to nature as compels
The indignant power to justify herself;
Yea, to avenge her violated rights.
For England's bane.

Urban Conditions

As the new towns and cities rapidly developed during the Industrial Revolution the need for cheap housing, near the factories, increased. Whilst there were some men, such as Robert Owen, who were willing to create good housing for their workers, many employers were not. These employers ruthlessly exploited their workers by erecting poor, and often unsanitary, shoddily built houses. Workers often paid high rents for, at best, sub-standard housing.



In the rush to build houses, many were constructed too quickly in terraced rows. Some of these houses had just a small yard at the rear where an outside toilet was placed. Others were ‘back to back’ with communal toilets. Almost as soon as they were occupied, many of these houses became slums. Most of the poorest people lived in overcrowded and inadequate housing, and some of these people lived in cellars. It has been recorded that, in one instance, 17 people from different families lived in an area of 5 metres by 4 metres.

Sanitary arrangements were often non-existent, and many toilets were of the ‘earth closet’ variety. These were found outside the houses, as far away as possible because of the smell. Usually they were emptied by the ‘soil men’ at night. These men took the solid human waste away. However, in poorer districts, the solid waste was just heaped in a large pile close to the houses. The liquid from the toilets and the waste heaps seeped down into the earth and contaminated the water supplies. These liquids carried disease-causing germs into the water. The most frightening disease of all was cholera.

Cholera

Cholera originated in India. It quickly spread into Asia and Russia, and eventually reached Europe. The first case of cholera in Britain was recorded in the northern port of Sunderland in October 1831. Although

immediate quarantine precautions were taken, cholera had spread to London by February 1832.

The disease was greatly feared by everyone because it spread very quickly and was not confined to any one social class. It could strike anyone, from the poorest to the wealthiest and the noble.

A cholera victim was first stricken with violent sickness and diarrhoea. This caused intense dehydration (loss of body fluids). Over 50% of the people who contracted the disease died, often within 24 hours of showing signs of the first symptoms. In the early part of the 19th century the method of transmission of cholera was not known. Many people thought that it was caused by '*miasmata*' or poisonous, foul-smelling air. It was only in 1849, when an epidemic killed over 70000 people, that Dr. John Snow

discovered that the cholera bacteria were contracted from polluted water.



A Punch magazine cartoon from 1858 shows Father Thames with 'his offspring', diphtheria, scrofula and cholera.

In an attempt to contain the disease, Health Boards were set up to establish better standards of sanitation. Local government officials were told to clean up the towns and cities. They were instructed to provide for the removal of solid waste heaps and other household wastes, to clean the streets

(particularly of the large amounts of horse manure) and to whitewash houses wherever possible. Despite these measures the epidemic continued to spread and very few people took notice of Dr. Snow's discovery.

In 1854 Dr. Snow was able to demonstrate the link between cholera and the water supply. During an outbreak of cholera in the Soho area of London, he noticed that many of the victims obtained their water from the same public water pump. When Dr. Snow removed the handle from the pump to prevent people from using it, the cholera fatalities in Soho fell dramatically.

Despite the overwhelming evidence of this demonstration, not everyone was convinced and more time went by before effective action was taken against cholera. In fact, the disease struck again in 1866, but by this time new sewers and cleaner public water supplies had been installed in parts of London. It was noticeable that the epidemic was confined to those areas of the city which were still relying on old water supplies.

Finally the connection between cholera and polluted water was accepted. As a result improved sanitation and the provision of clean drinking water became an even greater priority. This, together with gradual improvements in housing, enabled cholera, along with other diseases associated with poor living conditions, to be eradicated.

Short Answer: How did greed impact the health of the English people during the Industrial Revolution?

Child Labor

Michael Sadler, member of Parliament, "A Factory Girl's Last Day", 1832

'Twas on a winter's morning,
The weather wet and wild,
Three hours before the dawning
The father roused his child;
Her daily morsel bringing,
The darksome room he paced,
And cried, 'The bell is ringing,
My hapless darling, haste!'

'Father, I'm up, but weary,
I scarce can reach the door,
And long the way and dreary,--
O carry me once more!
To help us we've no mother;
And you have no employ;
They killed my little brother,--
Like him I'll work and die!'

Her wasted form seemed nothing,--
The load was at his heart;
The sufferer he kept soothing
Till at the mill they part.

The overlooker met her,
As to her frame she crept,
And with his thong he beat her,
And cursed her as she wept.

Alas! What hours of horror
Made up her last day;
In toil, and pain, and sorrow,
They slowly passed away:
It seemed, as she grew weaker,
The threads they oftener broke,
The rapid wheels ran quicker,
And heavier fell the stroke.

The sun had long descended,
But night brought no repose;
Her day began and ended
As cruel tyrants chose.

At length a little neighbor
Her halfpenny she paid,

To take her last hour's labour,
While by her frame she laid.

At last, the engine ceasing,
The captives homeward rushed;
She thought her strength increasing--

'Twas hope her spirits flushed:

She left, but oft she tarried;
She fell and rose no more,
Till, by her comrades carried,
She reached her father's door.

All night, with tortured feeling,
He watched his speechless child;
While, close behind her kneeling,
She knew him not, nor smiled.

Again the factory's ringing
Her last perceptions tried;
When, from her straw-bed
springing,

'Tis time!' she shrieked, and died!

That night a chariot passed her,
While on the ground she lay;
The daughters of her master
An evening visit pay;

Their tender hearts were sighing,
As negro wrongs were told,
While the white slave lay dying
Who gained their father's gold!

James Pattison, silk manufacturer, 1816, testimony in Parliament

Q--What is the state of health of the children in your manufactory?

A--I may say, from my own experience of nearly forty years, unexceptionally good.

Q--Could any system of inspection of the mills be established without inconvenience?

A--The visits are inconvenient as the attention of the children was always drawn from their duty by the appearance of any new faces....

Q--Why do you take the children so young?

A--Partly to oblige their parents and because at that early age their fingers are more supple, and they are more easily led into the habit of performing the duties of their situation.

Q--Are we to understand that children of six or seven are employed ten hours and a half?

A--yes

Q--Have you ever observed any inconvenience to the health of these very young children?

A--I can only state that they enjoy very excellent health.

Q--Do you conceive that working in the factories is favourable to the morals of young people? A--It keeps them out of mischief. They are less likely to contract evil habits than if they are idling their time away.

Introduction to the Workhouse

The Oxford Dictionary's first record of the word *workhouse* dates back to 1652 in Exeter — *'The said house to bee converted for a workhouse for the poore of this cittye and also a house of correction for the vagrant and disorderly people within this cittye.'* However, workhouses were around even before that — in 1631 the Mayor of [Abingdon](#) reported that "wee haue erected wthn our borough a workehouse to sett poore people to worke"

State-provided poor relief is often dated from the end of Queen Elizabeth's reign in 1601 when the passing of an [Act for the Relief of the Poor](#) made parishes legally responsible for looking after their own poor. This was funded by the collection of a poor-rate tax from local property owners (a tax that survives in the present-day "council tax"). The 1601 Act made no mention of workhouses although it provided that materials should be bought to provide work for the unemployed able-bodied — with the threat of prison for those who refused. It also proposed the erection of housing for the "impotent poor" — the elderly, chronic sick, etc.

Parish poor relief was dispensed mostly through "out-relief" — grants of money, clothing, food, or fuel, to those living in their own homes. However, the workhouse gradually began to evolve in the seventeenth century as an alternative form of "indoor relief", both to save the parish money, and also as a deterrent to the able-bodied who were required to work, usually without pay, in return for their board and lodging. The passing of the [Workhouse Test Act](#) in 1723, gave parishes the option of denying out-relief and offering claimants only the workhouse.

Parish workhouse buildings were often just ordinary local houses, rented for the purpose. Sometimes a workhouse was purpose-built, like this one erected in 1729 for the parishes of Box and Ditteridge in Wiltshire.



Parish workhouse, Box, Wiltshire.
© Peter Higginbotham.

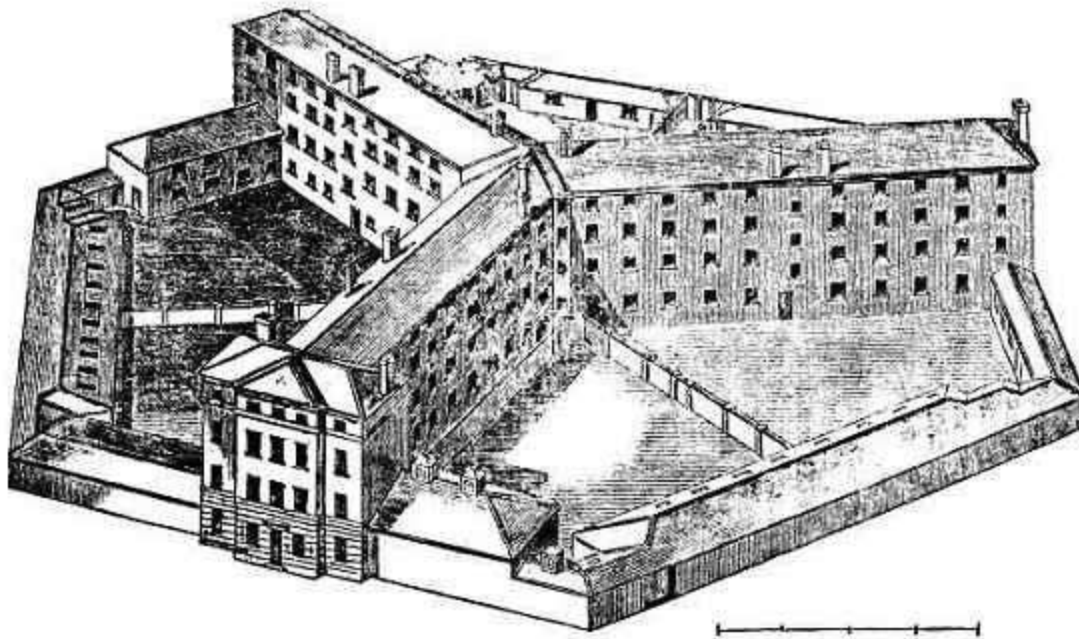
In some cases, the poor were "farmed" — a private contractor undertook to look after a parish's poor for a fixed annual sum; the paupers' work could be a useful way of boosting the contractor's income. The workhouse was not, however, necessarily regarded as place of punishment, or even privation. Indeed, conditions could be pleasant enough to earn some institutions the nickname of "Pauper Palaces".

[Gilbert's Act](#) of 1782 simplified and standardized the procedures for parishes to set up and run workhouses, either on their own, or by forming a group of parishes called a Gilbert Union. Under

Gilbert's scheme, able-bodied adult paupers would not be admitted to the workhouse, but were to be maintained by their parish until work could be found for them. Although relatively few workhouses were set up under Gilbert's scheme, the practice of supplementing labourers' wages out of the poor rate did become widely established. The best known example of this was the "Speenhamland System" which supplemented wages on a sliding scale linked to the price of bread and family size. By the start of the nineteenth century, the nationwide cost of out-relief was beginning to spiral. It was also believed by some that parish relief had become seen as an easy option by those who did not want to work. There was also growing civil unrest during this period, culminating in the [Captain Swing](#) riots whose targets included workhouses. In 1832, the Government set up a Royal Commission to investigate the problems and propose changes.

In 1834, the Commission's report resulted in the [Poor Law Amendment Act](#) which was intended to end to all out-relief for the able bodied. The 15,000 or so parishes in England and Wales were formed into [Poor Law Unions](#), each with its own union workhouse. A similar scheme was introduced in [Ireland](#) in 1838, while in 1845 [Scotland](#) set up a separate and somewhat different system.

Each Poor Law Union was managed by a locally elected Board of Guardians and the whole system was administered by a central Poor Law Commission. In the late 1830s, hundreds of new union workhouse buildings were erected across the country. The Commission's original proposal to have separate establishments for different types of pauper (the old, the able-bodied, children etc.) was soon abandoned and a single "general mixed workhouse" became the norm. The new buildings were specially designed to segregate the different categories of inmate. The first purpose-built workhouse to be erected under the new scheme was at [Abingdon](#) in 1835.



(c) www.workhouses.org.uk

Abingdon Workhouse.

Public Improvementist

235

Abingdon Union workhouse, 1835.
©Peter Higginbotham

Under the new Act, the threat of the Union workhouse was intended to act as a deterrent to the able-bodied pauper. This was a principle enshrined in the revival of the "workhouse test" — poor relief would only be granted to those desperate enough to face entering the repugnant conditions of the workhouse. If an able-bodied man entered the workhouse, his whole family had to enter with him.



Holborn Union Infirmary, 2003
© Peter Higginbotham.

Life inside the workhouse was intended to be as off-putting as possible. Men, women, children, the infirm, and the able-bodied were housed separately and given very basic and monotonous food such as watery porridge called gruel, or bread

and cheese. All inmates had to wear the rough workhouse uniform and sleep in communal dormitories. Supervised baths were given once a week. The able-bodied were given hard work such as stone-breaking or picking apart old ropes called oakum. The elderly and infirm sat around in the day-rooms or sick-wards

with little opportunity for visitors. Parents were only allowed limited contact with their children — perhaps for an hour or so a week on Sunday afternoon.

By the 1850s, the majority of those forced into the workhouse were not the work-shy, but the old, the infirm, the orphaned, unmarried mothers, and the physically or mentally ill. For the next century, the Union Workhouse was in many localities one of the largest and most significant buildings in the area, the largest ones accommodating more than a thousand inmates. Entering its harsh regime and spartan conditions was considered the ultimate degradation.



Union workhouse, Newtown, Montgomeryshire
© Peter Higginbotham.

The workhouse was not, however, a prison. People could, in principle, leave whenever they wished, for example when work became available locally. Some people, known as the "ins and outs", entered and left quite frequently, treating the workhouse almost like a guest-house, albeit one with the most basic of facilities. For some, however, their stay in the workhouse would be for the rest of their lives.

In the 1850s and 60s, complaints were growing about the conditions in many London workhouses. Figures such as Florence Nightingale, Louisa Twining, and the medical journal *The Lancet*, were particularly critical of the treatment of the sick in workhouses which was frequently in insanitary conditions and with most of the nursing care provided by untrained and often illiterate female inmates. Eventually, parliament passed the Metropolitan Poor Act which required workhouse hospitals to be on sites separate from the workhouse. The [Metropolitan Asylums Board](#) (MAB) was also set up to look after London's poor suffering from infectious diseases or mental disability. The smallpox and fever hospitals set up by the MAB were eventually opened up to all London's inhabitants and became the country's first state hospitals, laying the foundations for the National Health Service which began in 1948.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, conditions gradually improved in the workhouse, particularly for the elderly and infirm, and for children. Food became a little more varied and small luxuries such as books, newspapers, and even occasional outings were allowed. Children were increasingly housed away from the workhouses in special schools or in [cottage homes](#) which were often placed out in the countryside.



Newcastle-upon-Tyne Cottage Homes, Ponteland, 2001
© Peter Higginbotham.





The workhouse era ended, officially at least, on 1st April 1930; the 643 Boards of Guardians in England and Wales were abolished and their responsibilities passed to local authorities. Some workhouse buildings were sold off, demolished, or fell into disuse. Many, however, became Public Assistance Institutions and continued to provide accommodation for the elderly, chronic sick, unmarried mothers and vagrants. For inmates of these institutions, life often changed relatively little during the 1930s and 40s. Apart from the abolition of uniforms, and more freedom to come and go, things improved only slowly. With the introduction of the National Health Service in 1948, many former workhouse buildings continued to house the elderly and chronic sick. With the reorganisation of the NHS in the 1980s and 90s, the old buildings were often turned over for use as office space or demolished to make way for new hospital blocks or car parks. More recently, the survivors have increasingly been sold off for redevelopment, ironically, in some cases, as luxury residential accommodation.

Increasingly little remains of these once great and gloomy edifices. What does survive often passes unnoticed. But even now, more than seventy years after its official abolition, the mere mention of the workhouse can still send a shiver through those old enough to remember its existence. In [Kendal](#), the location of a long-gone workhouse is modestly marked in a now renamed side-road. However, some local residents clearly feel this is an institution they would rather not commemorate...



Kendal road signs, 2004
© Peter Higginbotham.

British Workhouse Picture Inferences

What I See	What I Observe	What I Infer
		
<p data-bbox="201 617 414 779"> For the INSTRUCTION of YOUTH the ENCOURAGEMENT of INDUSTRY the RELIEF of WANT the SUPPORT of OLD AGE And the COMFORT of INFIRMITY and PAIN </p>		
		
		
		

Charlie Chaplin



Charles Spencer Chaplin was born in Walworth, London, on April 16, 1889, the son of two music hall performers, Charles and Hannah Chaplin. His parents separated before he was five years old. His mother struggled to make a living despite help from young Charlie who first appeared on stage at the age of five.

In 1896, seven-year old Charlie briefly became an inmate of the [Newington](#) workhouse, together with his mother, Hannah, and his older half-brother Sydney. They went through the usual admission procedure of being separated from their mother, the children having their hair cut short, and the workhouse uniform replacing their own clothes which were steamed and put into store.

In June 1896, after three weeks at Newington, the two children were transferred to the [Central London District School](#) at Hanwell. They made the journey in a horse-drawn bakery van and spent time in the "approbation" ward and were then separated with Charlie going to the infants' section and Sydney to the main school. In his autobiography, Chaplin recalls that on Saturday afternoon, the bath-house was reserved for the infants who were bathed by older girls — he suffered the ignominy of receiving an all-over wash with a face-cloth from a fourteen year-old.

On reaching the age of seven, he moved to the older boys' department. He recounts the story of a boy of fourteen trying to escape from the school by climbing on to the school roof and defying staff by throwing missiles and horse-chestnuts at them as they climbed after him. For such offences there were regular Friday morning punishment sessions in the gymnasium where all the boys lined up on three sides of a square. For minor offences, a boy was laid face down across a long desk, feet strapped, while his shirt was pulled out over his head. Captain Hindrum, a retired Navy man, then gave him from three to six hefty strokes with a four-foot cane. Recipients would cry appallingly or even faint and afterwards have to be carried away to recover. For more serious offences, birch was used — after three strokes, a boy needed to be taken to the surgery for treatment. Chaplin himself once received three strokes with the cane, apparently for an offence he did not commit.

Two months later, the children were returned to the workhouse where they were met at the gate by Hannah, dressed in her own clothes. In desperation to see them, she had discharged herself from the workhouse, along with the children. After a day spent playing in Kennington park and visiting a coffee-shop, they returned to the workhouse and had to go through the whole admissions procedure once more, with the children again staying there for a probationary period before returning to Hanwell.

Sydney, on reaching the age of eleven, left Hanwell to join the training ship [Exmouth](#). Charlie remained at the school until January 1898. During his remaining time there, he caught ringworm — an infectious disease of the scalp which was common amongst pauper children. Its treatment required the head to be shaved and treated with iodine which made sufferers the subject of ridicule by other boys. After a brief period back with his mother, Chaplin was sent for a while to the [Lambeth](#) workhouse and then to Lambeth's children's schools at [Norwood](#). However, when Hannah was admitted to the Cane Hill Asylum, both brothers went to live with their father.

In 1906, Charlie became a music-hall clown in Fred Karno's Mummie and the Birds company. With Karno, he visited the USA in 1913 and his act was seen by film producer Mack Sennett who hired Chaplin for his film studio, Keystone. Charlie's tramp character, which no doubt drew on the experiences of his early life, eventually made him the highest paid actor in Hollywood.

Bibliography

- Chaplin, Charles (1964) *My Autobiography* (Bodley Head: London)
- Stewart, Susan *The Central London District Schools 1856-1933: A Short History* by (c.1980, Hanwell Community Association)

Industrialization Project

Choose one of the following projects to complete by _____.

-Write a 5 paragraph essay responding to the following prompt:

Was the Industrial Revolution a positive or negative event in the course of humanity?

-Create a newspaper addressing issues of the Industrial Revolution

- 1000+ words
- at least 2 pictures
- professional presentation
- use quotations from texts we have read or from primary sources online

-Create a diary entry

- 1000+ words
- written in the 1st person
- write about true experiences a person may have during the Industrial Revolution
- can be handwritten (neatly) or typed

-Write a short story

- typed in a professional and easy to read font (12 point)
- 1000+ words
- about a person or people who could have lived during the Industrial Revolution
- focuses on details that expose the conditions of the rich or poor during the I.R.

-Create a documentary

- 2+ minutes long
- posted on YouTube.com or saved as a .mov
- includes appropriate pictures
- includes clear and descriptive typed or spoken information
- professional presentation

-Timeline

- research the events of the British Industrial Revolution
- create a timeline with at least 15 events
- include 4+ appropriate pictures
- professional presentation

-Graphing

- create 4+ colorful and attractive graphs by hand
- include a 1-2 sentence description of the significance each graph demonstrates
- focuses on statistics from the British Industrial Revolution
- professional presentation