

Key Words

East India Company

A British trading company launched to trade with Asia.

Caste System

The Hindu structure of society from the Untouchables (lowest class in Society) to the upper class.

Sepoy

A soldier in the Indian Army.

Massacre

To kill a group of people through bloody means.

Rebellion

To rise up against the government or ruling power.

Exploration

The period during the Tudor times when Britain looked for new places to take over.

Trade

Buying and selling goods.

Empire

A group of states or countries ruled over by another power e.g. Britain

Mughals

A family that ruled parts of India from the 1500s.

Nationalist

A person who wants independence for their country.

Indian National Congress

A political party that represents mainly Hindus in India.

Muslim League

A political party representing Muslim interest in India.

British Raj

The British rule of India.

Viceroy

British leader of India.

Party

A group of people that believe in a specific political idea.

Colony

A country that is ruled over by another power.

Dominion Status

A form of independence that gives a colony the power to rule themselves but maintains their relationship with the imperial power.

Partition

When India was divided into India and Pakistan after independence from the British Empire.

The British Empire in India



Key Events

East India Company

A British trading company that built relations with the Mughal Empire in India so Britain could trade spices, dyes, cotton and tea. They had trading posts in India and an army of 260,000 men by 1803. They began to colonise India for Britain through the Battle of Plassey. They functioned on behalf of the crown of England.

Indian Rebellion, 1857

An uprising against the rule of the East India Company in India. It was sparked by the Indian Army who didn't think it was acceptable that cartridges were greased with animal fat. This went against the Hindu and Muslim religions.

Contributions in WW1

1 million Indian troops served overseas in areas including: the 1st Battle of Ypres (Belgium) and the Middle East. The Indian Army won 12,000 medals for gallantry and 12 Victoria Crosses for bravery.

In return Britain passed the Government of India Act in 1919 which gave 2 million wealthy Indians the right to vote.

Rise of Nationalist Groups

Muslim League—Led by Jinnah. They wanted a say for the Muslim minority in India. From WW2 fought for a separate Muslim state: Pakistan.

Indian National Congress—Led by Gandhi. After WW1 the INC wanted dominion status. Organised different campaigns against the British including the Salt March and civil disobedience campaigns. From the 1930s sought independence from British rule.

Successes and failures of the Non-Cooperation Campaign

It aimed to resist British rule by non-cooperation with the British after the Amritsar Massacre.

Success—united all Indians against the British and was the first step towards getting eventual independence from the British Raj.

Failure—some Indians took the campaign as an opportunity to take revenge. In 1922 a police station was set on fire killing those inside. (Chauri Chaura incident)

Contributions in WW2

2.5million Indians fought in WW2. They were the largest volunteer army and mainly fought in Africa. Their contribution was rewarded with independence from British rule in 1946.

Some Indians fought with the Axis powers as they saw this as the best way to get independence from the British. They were led by Chandra Bose.

Independence and Partition

Lord Mountbatten, the last Viceroy of India had the task of preparing India for independence. He came up for a plan of partition where India would be split into Pakistan and India. The Indian Independence Act (Mountbatten Plan) legalised the separation of India. Pakistan was formed 14th August 1947 and India a day later.

Amritsar Massacre, 1919

The British banned public meetings after a series of riots in Amritsar. A group of men, women and children held a public meeting in April 1919 and without warning were fired upon by British troops under the command of General Dyer. 379 people were killed and 1,200 wounded.

Key People

Robert Clive

East India Company's military commander-in-chief in India. Fought in the Battle of Plassey and secured control of Bengal for the British.

Lord Richard Wellesley

Governor General of India from 1798-1805. He wanted to increase British power and control on India by defeating the Mysore and the Marathas.

James Ramsay

East India Company's governor-general 1848-56. He developed the idea the 'doctrine of lapse'. This meant if an Indian ruler died with no male heir, their territory would go to the British.

General Dyer

General of the British Army in India. He had the nickname the 'butcher of Amritsar'. He gave the order to the army to fire on innocent people who were having a meeting in a public space. He was stripped from his position but not court martialled.

Mahatma Gandhi

He was a leading member of the Indian National Congress who campaigned for Indian independence from British rule. He used non-violent methods of non-cooperation to try and effect change as well as hunger strikes.

Muhammad Ali Jinnah

Led the Muslim League from 1913 and wanted to have Muslim voices heard in a majority Hindu country. He campaigned during WW2 for an independent Muslim country that became known as Pakistan.

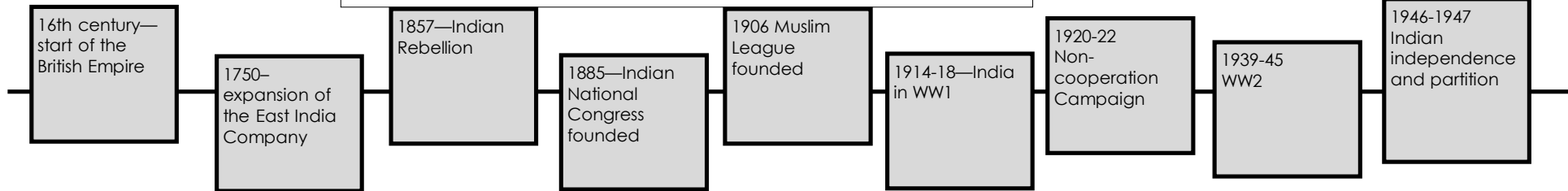
Lord Mountbatten

He was appointed the last Viceroy of India and became the first Governor General in an independent India. He created a partition plan that would split Muslims in a new country that became known as 'Pakistan'.

Chandra Bose

He was a member of the Indian National Congress who formed a breakaway nationalist group called the Forward Bloc Party. During WW2 he met with Hitler and joined the Axis powers along with 3,000 Indian Prisoners of War forming the Free India Legion.

Timeline of the British Empire in India



Crime & Punishment in 19th Century Britain – Knowledge Organiser

KEY DATES	
1816	The first national prison opened in Millbank in London – to hold criminals awaiting transportation.
1823	Prisoners were held in categories e.g. violent, non-violent, women. The Gaols Act also said that prisoners should be reformed.
1829	Metropolitan Police Act – England's first professional police force set up in London.
1834	Poor Law Amendment Act
1842	Pentonville Prison was set up where prisoners were kept apart for as long as possible under the 'separate system'.
1856	Police Act made it compulsory for all towns and counties to have a police force. All police forces were inspected by the government.
1865	Prisons had to follow national rules – prisoners must work and live in harsh conditions.
1868	The end of public executions.
1868	Transportation to Australia ended.
1869	National Crime Records set up.
1870	Dr Thomas Barnado set up an orphanage for boys to save them from workhouses.
1877	All prisoners were brought under government control.
1878	Criminal Investigations Department (CID) set up.
1888	Five women were murdered in Whitechapel – believed to have been the work of Jack the Ripper.
1902	First conviction in court using fingerprint evidence.

KEY INDIVIDUALS
<p>Jack the Ripper – a serial killer who is believed to have murdered 5 women in 1888. The killer was never caught but there are lots of rumors about who the killer actually was.</p> <p>H Division – The police force responsible for policing Whitechapel (the area where the Ripper murders took place).</p> <p>The Whitechapel Vigilance Committee – a group of Whitechapel businessmen who were frustrated that the police hadn't found Jack the Ripper – they organized a system of rewards and took to the streets at night with planks of wood.</p> <p>PC Alfred Long – the police officer who discovered a piece of Catherine Eddowes apron, smeared with blood and human waste. On the wall behind was written: 'the juwes are the men that will not be blamed for nothing'.</p> <p>Inspector Frederick Abberline – the inspector in CID assigned to the Ripper case.</p> <p>Robert Peel – Prime Minister from 1834 to 1835. He is responsible for reforming prisons and making lots of changes to how they were run as well as setting up the Metropolitan Police Force in London in 1829.</p> <p>John Howard – a prison reformer who argued that prisoners would only change their ways if they were reformed and given clean conditions and decent food and water.</p> <p>Elizabeth Fry – a prison reformer who did charity work to help the sick and poor. She believed that prisoners should be taught to sew and read the bible. She also believed women and children should receive an education in prison.</p>

EVENT	OUTCOME
The Poor Law (1815)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Each parish had to look after its own poor. If you were unable to work then you were given money to survive. Money was raised by taxes on the middle and upper class.
The Metropolitan Police Act (1829)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengths: Similar standard of policing across London; They were paid a wage; centralized system with training. Criticisms: People concerned about the cost of them; concerns about them interfering too much in people's lives; concerns that they would be like the French police.
The Poor Law Amendment Act (1834)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduced the cost of looking after the poor. Stopped money going to poor people except in exceptional circumstances. Poor people had to go to the workhouse to get help. The poor were given clothes and food in exchange for several hours of manual Labour each day.
Building of Pentonville Prison (1842)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ensured prisoners weren't influenced by other criminals who might make them commit worse crimes. Made sure the criminal 'paid' for their crime. Very harsh punishment. Separate cells for up to 23 hours a day.
The Ripper Murders (1888)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 5 women murdered in Whitechapel – they were all prostitutes. Ripper never caught – vigilance committee set up by businesses men who were frustrated by the lack of police action. Lots of media involvement – the police received many hoax letters claiming to be 'Jack'. Jewish people blamed after the death of Tsar Alexander II of Russia – a Jewish man was blamed. Jews were resented by the people of London – they were quick to set up their own businesses.
The Ending of Transportation (1868)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Australia seen as a desirable place to settle - transportation wasn't a deterrent. People were concerned about the costs of sending criminals abroad. New ideas about prisons meant new prisons were built and transportation was no longer needed. Many people believed criminals were responsible for high crime levels in Australia.

Key Words
Cholera
 A waterborne disease, which causes diarrhoea and dehydration. A killer in the 19th century.

Spontaneous Generation Theory
 The belief that rotting matter (stuff) created microbes. Microbes spread miasma (bad air).

The Enlightenment
 People in the 18th century that believed in independent thinking. Many were scientists and intellectuals.

Microbe
 A living organism that is too small to see without a microscope. E.g. bacteria

Diphtheria
 A disease that mainly affected children and caused a painful cough and a fever.

Hospital
 A place where sick/ill people go for medical care.

Crimea
 The location of a war between Britain and Russia in 1854.

Infection
 When disease causing microbes enter your body.

Anaesthetic
 A chemical used to calm patients and prevent pain when being operated on.

Antiseptic
 A chemical used to prevent infection by killing microbes on wounds.

Chloroform
 A chemical used as an anaesthetic by James Simpson

Laughing gas
 Nitrous oxide used as an anaesthetic in early surgery.

Carbolic acid
 A chemical which was sprayed in the air during surgery to prevent wounds becoming infected.

Aseptic surgery
 Surgery where microbes are prevented from getting into a wound in the first place rather than being killed by antiseptic later.

smallpox
 A highly infectious and deadly disease that caused red blisters and death. Serious epidemics in Britain in the 18th and 19th centuries.

inoculate
 To infect yourself with a disease to avoid a more severe case of it later.

Vaccination
 When a substance is inserted into the body to encourage the immune system to fight it by producing white blood cells.

Epidemic
 When a disease is widespread over a certain area at a particular time.

Miasma Theory
 The belief that disease is caused by bad/smelly air.

Inoculator
 A person who is paid to infect someone with a disease in order to prevent them getting a stronger version of it in the future e.g. smallpox

Key People	
Louis Pasteur	He discovered Germ Theory, which challenged the belief of Spontaneous Generation Theory. His main beliefs were 1. The air contains microorganisms, 2. microbes can be killed by heating them, 3. Microbes cause decay. He also said that if germs caused decay then they might also cause disease. At first it had no impact on British ideas of what caused disease and illness because he was not a doctor and his work focused on decay and rotten food. Britain believed Spontaneous Generation Theory up to the 1870s. Some scientists started to think about Pasteur's work such as Joseph Lister and John Tyndall but the impact wasn't huge.
Robert Koch	He took Pasteur's theory and successfully identified that different germs caused diseases. He discovered the bacteria that caused TB and cholera. This inspired other scientists to investigate the link between bacteria and disease. Koch's work connecting bacteria to disease was a huge breakthrough in the diagnosis of disease. A greater understanding the cause of disease meant that doctors could try and treat the direct cause of the disease rather than just the symptoms. It helped prove John Snow's theory on cholera correct.
Florence Nightingale	In 1854, Britain was at war with Russia in the Crimea, rumours came home that the hospitals weren't fit for the soldiers to be treated in. She asked the government to send her and 38 other nurses to the Crimea to improve hospital conditions and treatment. She made 3 important changes: scrubbing brushes to get rid of dirt near patients, nurses were organised to treat 2,000 soldiers and clean bedding and good food was given to patients. In the Crimea the death rate dropped from 40% to 2% over a 6 month period. Nightingale came home to a heroes welcome, which gave her the ability to improve hospitals in Britain too. She influenced how hospitals were designed in Britain—more windows, larger rooms, isolation wards. She opened a nursing school at St Thomas' Hospital, London in 1860 where her methods were taught to future generations of nurses.
James Simpson	He was a young surgeon from Edinburgh believed there were better anaesthetics than laughing gas. He discovered chloroform could be used as an effective anaesthetic. In 1853, Queen Victoria was given it in childbirth. There was a risk of chloroform: dose had to be carefully controlled otherwise you could kill the patient, it sometimes affected the patient's heart. Simpson was knighted for services to medicine. This is because chloroform allowed more complex and longer surgeries to take place. Infection and bleeding a problem though.
Joseph Lister	He was an English surgeon who studied infected wounds. He believed Pasteur's Germ Theory could explain infection. If food rotted then maybe microbes could cause flesh to rot. In 1865, he operated on a patient with a broken leg and soaked a bandage in carbolic acid. This helped the wound to heal cleanly. He began to spray carbolic acid in the air during surgery to prevent infections. Antiseptic surgery did not catch on quickly—not all surgeons were willing to use the method as they didn't believe the air was full of germs. Carbolic spray dried the skin and left an odd smell—surgeons believed this couldn't be good for the patient. In the long term, new antiseptic methods were developed to improve surgery. Attitudes changed in surgeons—they now saw it as their duty to perform safe surgery.
Edward Jenner	He was a rural doctor who regularly treated dairymaids for cowpox (a less deadly version of smallpox). He realised that these maids never then got smallpox. He experimented on a boy (James Phipps) by infecting him with cowpox. A week later he infected James with smallpox, which he never caught. This founded the first vaccination. Lots of opposition to vaccination by the church, inoculators who would lose money if vaccination was used and The Royal Society...scientists didn't trust the work of a local doctor. The government supported vaccination by the 1840s and made the smallpox vaccination compulsory from 1852. It inspired other doctors and scientists to create vaccines for other diseases. It is used widely today in Britain and across the world.
John Snow	He was a surgeon in London during cholera epidemics and developed a theory on the cause of it. He discovered that cholera was caused by dirty drinking water after creating a map of Soho. He connected all the deaths to the Broad Street Pump. He removed the pumps handle and the deaths in the area stopped proving his theory. The government invested in a new sewage system to keep drinking water and sewage separate. This wasn't completed until 1875. Some people still rejected Snow's findings and continued to believe Miasma Theory. This was because Snow had no scientific proof that his theory was correct until Pasteur's Germ Theory 7 years later. Short term—he removed the pump handle and saved Soho residents from getting cholera.

18th and 19th Century Medicine Timeline	
1700s	The Enlightenment
1722, 1723 & 1740-42	Smallpox epidemics
1795	Humphry Davy discovers laughing gas can numb pain
1796	3,548 people die from smallpox
1847	Edward Jenner's vaccination experiment on James Phipps
1847	James Simpson discovers chloroform can be used in surgery
1853	Queen Victoria uses chloroform during the birth of Prince Leopold
1854-1856	Florence Nightingale goes to nurse in the Crimea
1860	Nightingale School for Nurses opens at St Thomas' Hospital
1865	Joseph Lister uses carbolic acid after surgery as an antiseptic
1878	Pasteur publishes his Germ Theory
1882	Robert Koch discovered the bacteria that caused Tuberculosis (TB)
1883	Robert Koch discovered the bacteria in cholera
1900	Aseptic surgery—instruments steam cleaned and operating theatres scrubbed
1905	Koch received the Nobel Prize for Medicine
1852	Government makes smallpox vaccination compulsory
1872	Compulsory vaccination enforced by the government
1831	1st cholera epidemic in Britain
1832	5,275 people killed by cholera in London
1854	Cholera in Soho—John Snow investigates
1875	New sewer system completed in London
1858	The Great Stink, London

Industrial Revolution—Knowledge Organiser

Domestic System

Until about 1750 people made cloth in their own homes. This was called the domestic system. This was extremely popular in Yorkshire where woollen cloth commonly made. Those who were requiring the cloth would buy the raw wool product and take it to a number of outworkers to make cloth. The family would work together side by side typically in the same room. Usually, women would spin the cloth and men would weave it. At the end of the week, a merchant would collect the finished cloth, pay the workers and then sell the cloth for profit. There were three main stages to making cloth. These stages were carding, spinning and weaving. Most cloth was made from either wool or cotton, but other materials such as silk and flax could be used depending on the qualities of the outworker.

Causes of the Industrial Revolution

- **Political and Economic competition in Europe** - keeping up or ahead of other countries in Europe.
- **Developments in Science** - scientists were making new discoveries and making people more knowledgeable.
- **Farming Improvements** - these allowed more crops and bigger animals to feed the increasing population.
- **Banks** - these were set up to lend money to businesses to help them buy machinery and raw materials.
- **Entrepreneurs** - ambitious and successful businessmen invested in projects and funded the construction of many factories.
- **New Inventions**, such as The Flying Shuttle and The Spinning Jenny. These allowed productivity to increase rapidly.
- **Population Increase** - more people in Britain meant that more food, clothing and everyday items were needed. The people also provided the workforce for the new industries.
- **Increase in Transport** - the systems built soon became a popular source of transportation since they were economical and reliable. Boats on the canal were pulled by horses that walked on either side of the canal on tow paths. Wooden tracks linked coal mines to rivers and canals, and carriages were pulled by horses. The invention of the engine technologised the transportation industry.
- **The British Empire and the Slave Trade** - owning colonies across the world allowed Britain to improve trade links and become more wealthy. These countries provided cotton and other raw materials to make into clothes. An example of this was the Slave Trade Triangle.

Inventions

The Flying Shuttle, John Kay, 1733:

This invention attached the shuttle to a cord which automatically moved it across the loom. A weaver could produce much wider cloth at faster speeds than before. However, it still needed a skilled person to operate the machine.

The Spinning Jenny, James Hargreaves, 1764:

This invention meant that up to eight threads could be spun at once and sped up the process of spinning. However, one problem with this invention was that the thread could be weak. One advantage of this invention is that the machine could be easily operated and could be controlled by an unskilled man or even children.

The Water Frame, Richard Arkwright, 1769

This machine involved three sets of paired rollers that turned at different speeds. The machine produced a thread that is far stronger and solved the problem of weak threads. Unlike the other new inventions this machine was too difficult to be operated by hand and needed to be powered by waterwheels. This machine had a big impact as it was the first powered, automatic and continuous textile machine. This invention led to the opening of Spinning factories and ended small home manufacturing (the Domestic System).

The Spinning Mule, Samuel Crompton, 1779

This invention combined the moving carriage of the Spinning Jenny with the rollers of the Water Frame. The Spinning Mule gave the spinner greater control over the weaving process and the mule produced a strong, fine and soft yarn which could be used in all kinds of textiles. Another important aspect of this invention was that the Spinning Mule could also be driven by the new steam engines that were being produced at the time so were good additions to the new factories.

The Power Loom, Edmund Cartwright, 1785

The Power Loom needed enough space for the steam engine to power it and was needed to be placed in big factories. This machine was that good that it led to the building of more textile factories. It also increased the production and quality of textiles.

Growth in Population

Between 1700 and 1750, the population of England stayed relatively flat, with little growth. Precise figures don't exist for the period before the establishment of a nationwide census, but it is clear from existing historic records that Britain experienced a huge growth in the second half of the century. Some estimates suggest that between 1750 and 1850, the population in England more than doubled. People did relocate from the rural regions into large cities to be closer to their new factory workplaces, but studies have ruled out sheer immigration as the largest factor. The population increase came from internal factors, such as changes in **marriage age**, **improvements in health** allowing more children to live, and an increase in the **number of births**.

• **Marriage** — the average age of people marrying for the first time fell, as did the rates of people never marrying, which ultimately led to more children. The birth rate in Britain also rose for out-of-wedlock births.

• **Falling death rates** — the death rates in Britain began to fall and people began to live longer. This might be surprising given that the newly crowded cities were rife for disease and illness, with an urban death rate higher than the rural areas, but overall there were health improvements and a better diet for people (from improved food production and wages to buy it).

• **Increase in births** — the rise in live births and drop in death rate happened for a number of factors, including that the climate was altering, or that hospitals and medical technology had made advances such as smallpox vaccines. But today, the increase in marriage and birth rates is held to be the main reason for the sheer growth in population numbers.

• Increase in immigration into towns and cities.

Timeline

1733

John Kay invents the Flying Shuttle.

1764

James Hargreaves invents the Spinning Jenny.

1769

Richard Arkwright invents the Water Frame.

1779

Samuel Crompton invents the Spinning Mule.

1785

Edmund Cartwright invents the Power Loom.

1802 Health Act

Factory apprentices only: a maximum 12-hour day; good accommodation and medical treatment.

1819 Factory Act

A maximum 12-hour day. No child under the age of nine to work.

1833 Factory Act

Children banned from working in textile factories under the age of nine. 9 - 13 year olds limited to 9 hours a day and 48 hours a week. 13 - 18 year olds limited to 12 hours a day and 69 hours a week. All children under eleven to have two hours education a day. Government Factory Inspectors appointed to enforce the law.

1834 Poor Law

The government introduced a new Poor Law. This abolished relief and instead said that the poor would now all be put in workhouses.

1842 Mines Act

All women and children under 10 were banned from working underground. No one under 15 years was to work winding gear in mines.

1844 Factory Act

Minimum age for working in factories reduced to 8 years old. 8 to 13 years old to work a maximum of six and a half hours on weekdays and only six hours on Saturday

13 to 18 year olds to work a maximum of 12 hours a day and the same applied to women. Safety guards had to be fitted to all machines. Three hours education a day for children.

1847 Ten Hour Act

10 hour day introduced for under 18's and for women.

1867 Factory Act

The legislation was extended to all workshops with more than 50 workers.

1874 Factory Act

No child under the age of 10 to be employed in a factory

1878 Factory and Workshops Act

No woman to work more than 60 hours a week. No child under ten to work. Laws on safety, ventilation and mealtimes.

Factory Conditions

Negatives:

Long working hours: normal shifts were usually 12-14 hours a day, with extra time required during busy periods. Workers were often required to clean their machines during their mealtimes.

Low wages: a typical wage for male workers was about 15 shillings (75p) a week, but women and children were paid much less, with women earning seven shillings (35p) and children three shillings (15p). For this reason, employers preferred to employ women and children. Many men were sacked when they reached adulthood; then they had to be supported by their wives and children.

Cruel discipline: there was frequent "strapping" (hitting with a leather strap). Other punishments included hanging iron weights around children's necks, hanging them from the roof in baskets, nailing children's ears to the table, and dowsing them in water butts to keep them awake.

Fierce systems of fines: these were imposed for talking or whistling, leaving the room without permission, or having a little dirt on a machine. It was claimed that employers altered the time on the clocks to make their workers late so that they could fine them. Some employers demanded that their overseers raise a minimum amount each week from fines.

Health: cotton thread had to be spun in damp, warm conditions. Going straight out into the cold night air led to many cases of pneumonia. The air was full of dust, which led to chest and lung diseases and loud noise made by machines damaged workers' hearing.

Positives:

Mass production: before the Industrial Revolution, most families had to produce their own food and clothes. The Industrial Revolution arguably made things easier, because families could now buy all their goods instead of making them.

Creation of jobs: There were thousands of new jobs created. Although several of the jobs created were not very desirable positions, workers still went home with a pay check.

Child Labour

Children sometimes worked up to 19 hours a day, with a one-hour total break. This was the extreme, but it was not uncommon for children who worked in factories to work 12-14 hours with minimal breaks.

Not only were these children subject to long hours, but also, they were in horrible conditions. It was very common for children to be using or working near large, heavy, and dangerous equipment. Many accidents occurred, injuring or killing children on the job.

Not until the Factory Act of 1833 did things improve. Children were paid only a fraction of what an adult would get, and sometimes factory owners would get away with paying them nothing.

Orphans were most vulnerable to this slave-like labour. The factory owners argued children didn't need a wage because they gave the orphans food, shelter, and clothing (all of which were far below par). The children who did get paid were paid very little.

Small girls worked in mills as 'piecers'. They mended broken threads. 'Scavengers' crawled beneath clattering machines to pick up scraps of cotton. They risked getting caught in the machinery, losing hair or arms. In spite of this, most mill-owners thought factory work was easy. At first, there were no laws to protect working children.

Parish apprentices were orphans from workhouses in southern England who were "apprenticed" to factory owners, supposedly to learn the textiles trade. They worked 12 hour shifts, and slept in barracks attached to the factory, in beds just vacated by children about to start the next shift.

People called in Parliament for laws to stop child-work. Inspectors, called Commissioners, went into factories and mines. They talked to working children to find out the facts.

Keywords

Industrial Revolution—Knowledge Organiser

Industrial Revolution

Period in British history in which society moved to a focus on machines, factories, and industry. Large factories and machines were built to do things people used to do by hand. Therefore many people moved from rural areas to urban areas seeking work.

Rural

Countryside

Urban

Towns/cities

Agriculture

Cultivating the soil, producing crops, and raising livestock.

Industry

Factories converting raw materials into goods to be sold.

Tenements

A new kind of cheap housing that was constructed. Here, dozens of families resided under one roof.

Cholera

A disease which is caused by bacterial infection of the intestines, and can kill within hours. It spreads through drinking water, which is infected with the bacteria or with sewage.

Child Labour

Many poor children worked in the factories and mills. Children often had to work long hours in dusty, dirty conditions. They often had the most dangerous jobs. There were many accidents and cases of children becoming deformed from the long working hours spent at the machines.

Workhouses

Places where poor people who had no job or home lived. They earned their keep by doing jobs in the workhouse.

Slums

Squalid and overcrowded areas of towns and cities lived in by very poor people.

Domestic System

System in place before the Industrial Revolution where people would produce cloth in their own homes.

Entrepreneurs

These were talented and ambitious people who understood how to turn all these different developments into successful businesses to make money.

Social Reformers

People who wanted to improve public health, social conditions and the lives of the poor.

Inventions

These created and improved machines that made goods quicker or drove other machines faster.

Sir Titus Salt

Sir Titus Salt lived from 1803 to 1876. He was a good employer and built a new mill on the outskirts of the town of Bradford, where the air was fresh, and working conditions would be more pleasant for his workers. It was a massive mill with space, light and warmth in his new mill. The location was superb, in a green and pleasant area and the Mill opened in 1853, on Titus Salt's 50th birthday. Titus Salt created an entire village of houses, park, school, library, recreation and learning institute, and outdoor sport facilities around the mill, naming the streets after his children and family. In 1869, he was created a baronet by Queen Victoria, thus becoming Sir Titus Salt.