



History GCSE

The Knowledge Edexcel Specification

Name _____

This is how you GUARANTEE a good grade in History:

1. Memorise ALL of the knowledge in this booklet (which is easy to do but you have to start now).
2. Memorise the technique for each question.
3. Answer every question in the exam and don't stop or give up.



IMPORTANT

PAPER 1: Medicine and Western Front – Exam Technique

Question Type & Number	Example	Sentence Starters
Q1. 2 marks (x2) Describe one feature ...	Describe one feature of trench life Describe one feature of a CCS ...	One feature of ... was ... This was ... One feature of a CCS was ... They ...
Q2a. 8 marks How useful are sources A and B for an enquiry into ...	How useful are sources A and B for an enquiry into the challenges facing stretcher bearers on the Western Front?	Two paragraphs, one for each source covering COP (content, own knowledge and provenance)
Q2b. 4 marks How would you follow up ...	The detail I would follow up ... The question I would ask ... The type of evidence I would use ... This would help to ...	Complete each of the sections stated (see left column) and ensure you link to the enquiry in the question directly and refer to specific evidence in the source and to help your research e.g. RAMC records of stretcher bearers
Q3. 4 Marks: Explain one way...	Explain one way in which ideas about the treatment of disease were different in the 17 th century from ideas in the 13 th centuries.	One way in which there was similarity/difference in X was... In [time period 1]....Add evidence/detail Whilst in [time period 2]...Add evidence/detail
Q 4. 12 Marks: Explain why...	Explain why there was rapid change in surgical treatments in the period c1700-c1900. You may use the following information in your answer: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chloroform • Joseph Lister You must also use information of your own.	3 PEEL paragraphs. No conclusion
Q5 OR Q6 (answer ONE only) 16 Marks + 4 SPaG: How far do you agree? Explain your answer.	'Treatment of disease and care of the sick completely changed after c1800.' How far do you agree with this statement? You may use the following information in your answer: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Magic bullets • The NHS You must also use information of your own.	Two sentence intro to outline essay and conclusion (optional) 3 PEEL paragraphs (giving a balance of points) Conclusion

PAPER 2: Cold War – Exam Technique

Question Type & Number	Example	Guidance
Q1. 4 Marks (x2): Explain one consequences of...	Explain one consequences of the decision made by The Grand Alliance at the Yalta Conference in February 1945. Explain one consequence of the atomic bomb ...	1 PEEL paragraphs
Q2. 8 Marks: Write a narrative account analysing...	Write a narrative account analysing the key events of the Soviet takeover of the satellite states in the period 1944-1948. You may use the following in your answer: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Warsaw Uprising The communist takeover of Czechoslovakia You must also use information of your own.	3 part narrative with links between paragraphs Para 1: Firstly, the event began because... Para 2: This resulted in, ... Para 3: Finally, ...
Q3. 2 x 8 Marks: Explain two of the following...	Explain two of the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the importance of the Truman Doctrine for the development of the Cold War in the years 1947-1955 the importance of the Berlin Blockade for the future of Germany the importance of the formation of NATO for relation between the USA and the Soviet Union. 	2 PEEL paragraphs for each 8 marker.

PAPER 2: Elizabethan England – Exam Technique

Question Type & Number	Example	Guidance
Q5a.) 2 marks (x2) Describe one features of ...	Describe one features of Drake's raid on Cadiz (1587). Describe one feature of education in Elizabethan England.	Point sentence Explanation sentence Point sentence Explanation sentence
Q5b.) 12 marks Explain why the ...	Explain why there was an increase in poverty in early Elizabethan England. You may use the following in your answer: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> inflation wool industry You must also use information of your own	3 PEEL paragraphs, no conclusion
Q5c.) Choice of two essay questions 16 marks How far do you agree ...	'The main reason Mary, Queen of Scots was executed was because she was involved in the Babington Plot.' How far do you agree? Explain your answer. You may use the following in your answer: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Walsingham Parliament You must also use information of your own.	Two sentence intro to outline essay and conclusion (optional) 3 PEEL paragraphs (giving a balance of points) Conclusion

PAPER 3: Weimar and Nazi Germany – Technique

Question Type & Number	Example	Guidance
<p>Q1 4 marks Give two things you can infer from Source ...</p>	<p>Give two things you can <u>infer</u> from Source A about life for women in Nazi Germany</p>	<p><i>Infer- make a guess based on evidence available</i></p> <p>Point sentence Explanation sentence Point sentence Explanation sentence</p>
<p>Q2 12 marks Explain why the ... (choice of two questions - ONLY answer ONE)</p>	<p>Explain why the Nazis police state was successful between 1933 - 39.</p> <p>You may use the following in your answer</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Gestapo • Concentration camps 	<p>3 PEEL paragraphs, <u>NO conclusion</u></p>
<p>Q3a. 8 marks How useful are sources A and B for an enquiry into ...</p>	<p>How useful are sources B and C for an enquiry into the strength of democracy in Germany by 1932? (sources on p.68 & 69 textbook)</p>	<p>2 paragraphs, one for each source covering COP (content, own knowledge and provenance)</p>
<p>Q3b. 4 marks Study interpretations ... What is the main difference between these views?</p>	<p>Study interpretations 1 and 2. They give different interpretations about the attitudes of young people towards the Hitler Youth movement. What is the main difference between these views? Explain your answer using details from both interpretations.</p>	<p>1 PEEL paragraph</p>
<p>Q3c. 4 marks Study interpretations ... Suggest one reason why these interpretations differ.</p>	<p>Suggest one reason why interpretations 1 and 2 give different view about the attitudes of young people towards the Hitler Youth movement. You may use source B and C to help explain your answer.</p>	<p>1 PEEL paragraph</p>
<p>Q3d. 16 marks How far do you agree with Interpretation ... about ...?</p>	<p>How far do you agree with interpretation 2 about the attitudes of young people towards the Hitler Youth movement? Explain your answer, using both interpretations and your knowledge of the historical context</p> <p>MAKE SURE YOU USE <u>BOTH</u> INTERPRETATIONS.</p>	<p>Two sentence intro to outline essay and conclusion (optional)</p> <p>3 PEEL paragraphs (giving a balance of points and using BOTH interpretations)</p> <p>Conclusion</p>

Paper 1: Medicine in Britain – 1250 to present



Medieval medicine:
1250 – 1500

Renaissance medicine:
1500 – 1700

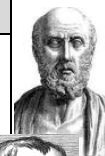
**Enlightenment/ Industrial
medicine:**
1700 – 1900

Modern medicine:
1900 – Present

Medieval medicine: 1250-1500

1348	Black Death arrives in England. Kills of 1/3 of England's population.
1440	Gutenberg invents the printing press.




Key characters	
Hippocrates	Ancient Greek physician. Created the Theory of the Four Humours.
Galen	Ancient Roman physician who developed the Theory of the Opposites

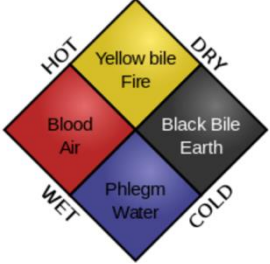


Background information



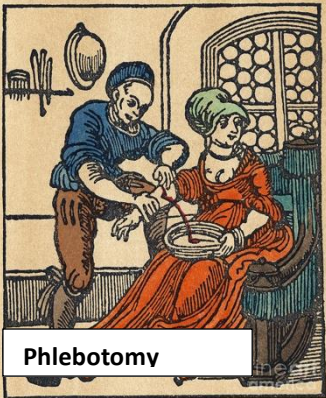



- The Medieval period covers the years **1250 – 1500 (the 13th to the 16th centuries)**. It is also known as the **Middle Ages**.
- Most people at this time worked in **agriculture (farming)**.
- **The literacy rate was very low** – this meant that **very few people could read or write**.
- **Catholicism** was the religion of England and the Catholic Church had a huge influence over everyday life. Everyone attended church regularly and paid a **tithe** (like a tax) to the Church.
- There was very little scientific experimentation or curiosity – instead people looked to the works of Ancient/Classical thinkers from ancient Greece and Rome such as Hippocrates (ancient Greece) and Galen (Ancient Rome).



Key ideas about the **cause** of disease – What did people believed **caused** disease in medieval England?




<p>Religious explanations</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sin or Satan cause disease. • Disease is a punishment from God.
<p>Astrology</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People believed that astrology (the alignment of the stars and planets) also had an influence on disease. • They used star charts.
<p>Miasma</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A miasma was bad air that was believed to be filled with harmful fumes/smells. • They said it came from swamps, corpses and other rotting matter.

<p>The Four Humours</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Theory of the Four Humours was developed in Ancient Greece by Hippocrates. • The Theory of the Four Humours said that the body was made up of four liquids ('humours') – blood, phlegm, black bile and yellow bile. • It was believed that illness was caused by these humours being out of balance. • The Ancient Roman physician Galen added to it with the Theory of Opposites, which suggested that the humours could be rebalanced by applying the opposite. For example, someone with too much phlegm (cold) could eat something hot, like a pepper.
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Key ideas about the treatment of disease – How were people treated for disease in medieval England?

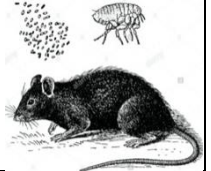
<p>Religious treatments</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Common religious treatments included prayer, fasting (going without food), paying for a special Mass (a Catholic church service), flagellation (whipping for religious discipline) and pilgrimages (a journey made to a religious place)
<p>Supernatural treatments</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Star charts were used to prescribe treatments. • Using spells and charms was believed to ward off diseases and heal symptoms.
<p>Humoural treatments</p>  <p>Phlebotomy</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many treatments involved trying to balance the Four Humours. • The most common treatment to balance the humours was bloodletting (removing a patient's blood), also known as phlebotomy. Blood was drained by cutting the patients vein, placing leeches on the skin, or cupping, where a heated cup was placed over bleeding skin to create a vacuum and draw out more blood. • Another humoural treatment was purging. Patients were given something to make them vomit or a laxative to clear out the body. • Theory of Opposites: The 'opposite' would be applied to an excess humour. For example, too much blood (hot and wet) could be fixed by eating something cool such as a cucumber. 
<p>Remedies</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Herbal remedies to drink, sniff or bathe in were often used. Common ingredients included aloe vera, mint and saffron. • A theriaca was a common spice-based mixture containing over 70 ingredients and used for many different illnesses. • Bathing was advised to draw in heat and help clear blockages in the humours. Plants and herbs were often added to the water.
<p>Hospitals</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In 1123 Britain's first hospital, St Bartholomew's, was set up in London. • The number of hospitals increased during the Middle Ages. • Many were owned and run by the Church and care was given by monks and nuns. • Most hospitals concentrated on hospitality – caring for ill people – rather than treating and curing them. • They were generally clean and were good places to rest and recover but did not employ physicians or surgeons. • Infectious or terminal patients were often rejected, since there was nothing that could be done for these people. Pregnant women were also rejected.

<p>Home</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The majority of sick people were cared for at home. Women would care for their relatives, feeding them and mixing herbal remedies. They often grew ingredients themselves. Women were not allowed to become physicians.
<p>Doctors/healers</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Physicians were doctors who trained at a university for at least 7 years to gain a medical degree. Their job was to diagnose illness and recommend a treatment, but they didn't treat the patient themselves. They were very expensive. Barber surgeons carried out small operations such as bloodletting and pulling out teeth. Their knowledge was based on experience. Apothecaries mixed herbal remedies. Gained their knowledge from experience. Less expensive than a doctor.

Key ideas about the preventions of disease – How were people try to prevent disease in medieval England	
<p>Religious preventions</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> For most people, the best way to prevent disease was to lead a sin-free life. Regular prayer, confessions and offering tithes (money to the church) were believed to remove sin and avoid punishment from God.
<p>Lifestyle changes to prevent disease</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hygiene and diet advice were provided by physicians in a set of instructions called the Regimen Sanitatis. Keeping clean by bathing was important (linked to the idea of miasma), and public baths called stewes were available for free. What you ate was believed to affect the humours in the body. Eating too much was discouraged, and many people would regularly purge themselves to avoid digestive problems
<p>Purifying the air to prevent disease</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> People purified the air by carrying sweet herbs (such as lavender) or a bunch of flowers (a posy). There was some action from local government, who tried to tackle miasmata by keeping towns clean. For example, they tried to make sure no rotting animals were left lying around.

CASE STUDY: THE BLACK DEATH 1348-1349

- In 1348 a new plague, the Black Death, reached England. It was **spread by fleas on rats** and the main symptom was large, painful buboes (big spots).
- Most victims died within a few days, and around a third of England's population died in all.

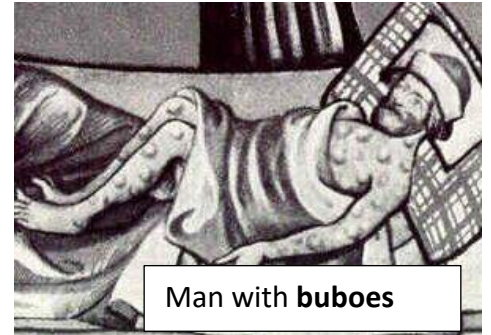


Ideas about cause

- God had sent the disease as a punishment for sins.
- An unusual alignment of the planets in 1345.
- Miasma was the main cause associated with the Black Death. People thought it was spread by breathing in impure air, which may have originated from poisonous fumes released by a volcano or earthquake.

Treatments

- **Religious and supernatural:** People prayed and confessed their sins, although many accepted that if it was God's will for you to get the plague, it was inevitable that you would die.
- **Humoural treatments:** Physicians tried standard treatments like purging and bleeding, but these did not work. Surgeons sometimes lanced (pierced) the buboes, and occasionally these patients would survive.
- **Purifying the air:** Bonfires and sweet-smelling herbs were recommended to ward off bad air.
- **Herbal remedies:** These were used, but like humoural treatments, were mostly ineffective.



Man with **buboes**




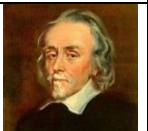
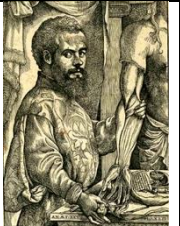

Prevention

- **Religious and supernatural:** People prayed, made pilgrimages and whipped themselves (self-flagellation) to show how sorry they were.
- **Purifying the air:** One of the main ways of prevention was to carry sweet herbs, to prevent miasma. People also ran away to escape the bad air in towns, but this only helped to spread the plague.
- **Common beliefs:** Some physicians recommended doing joyful things as a protection.
- **Government action:** The government brought in **quarantine laws** (separating the sick from the healthy to stop the spread of disease), but they were hard to enforce because local authorities had little power - rich people moved around freely and the Church ran as normal.



Self-flagellation

Renaissance medicine: 1500-1700

Key dates		Key characters	
1543	Vesalius publishes ' <i>On the Fabric of the Human Body</i> '. It showed how the human body worked.	Antony Van Leeuwenhoek	A Dutch scientist who saw tiny " animalcules " under the microscope. This was the first observation of bacteria. Made improvements to the microscope. 
1628	William Harvey published his book ' <i>An Anatomical Account of the Motion of the Heart and Blood</i> ' which showed blood moving around the body.	Paracelsus	A physician from Switzerland. He rejected Galen's theory of the four humours. Used chemicals to treat illness , for example, he used the metal 'mercury' to treat syphilis. 
1660	First meeting of the Royal Society.	Thomas Sydenham	Thomas Sydenham was a well-respected doctor in London during the 1660s and 1670s. He was given the name of the 'English Hippocrates' because, like the Greek doctor. He placed great importance on observing a patient. His book ' <i>Observationes Medicae</i> ' used for 200 years. 
1665	Robert Hooke develops powerful microscope.	William Harvey	Studied medicine at Cambridge University and then at Padua University in Italy. Discovered that blood circulates (<i>circulates=moves</i>) around the body rather than being made in the liver, as had been taught by Galen. Was very interested in dissection . 
1665	The Great Plague arrives in London. 75,000 people died.	Andreas Vesalius	Wrote one of the most important books on human anatomy. He carried out many dissections (dissections = cutting someone up) on the bodies of executed criminals and discovered over 300 mistakes in Galen's original works on anatomy. He was a lecturer in surgery at the University of Padua in Italy. 
1676	Thomas Sydenham publishes ' <i>Observationes Medicae</i> '	Robert Hooke	An English scientist and head of experiments at the Royal Society. He developed a powerful microscope and published a book of images from his observations called ' <i>Micrographia</i> '. 

Background information




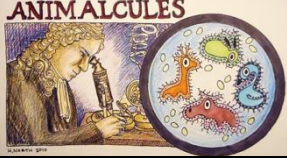



- The term **Renaissance** means '**re-birth**'. This was a time period known for **new ideas**. There was a reborn interest in **classical thinking, architecture, and art**.
- It was a time of renewed interest in learning, and a **willingness to change medieval ideas**.
- Society became more **secular**. This meant that people were more willing to look for scientific explanations for things, rather than supernatural or religious explanations.
- During this period the **Reformation** took place. **Henry VIII broke away from the Catholic Church** and created the **Protestant** Church of England. He closed down all the **Catholic monasteries** (where religious men lived). This led to a decline in the power of the Catholic Church.

Key ideas about the **cause** of disease – What did people believed **caused** disease in Renaissance England?

Continuity: Religious explanations

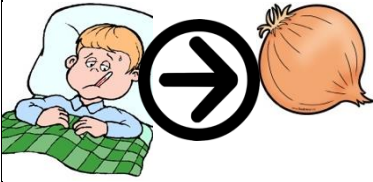


- Most people now recognised that God did not send disease, although in desperate times such of epidemics (such as the Great Plague of 1665) they still turned to religious explanations.
- **Humanism** was on the rise – this was a way of thinking that broke away from religious or supernatural explanations and believed that humans could make up their own minds about the world.

<p>Continuity: Astrology</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Though not as popular as before, people still believed that astrology influenced disease. Some blamed the 1665 plague on unusual planet alignments that had occurred in October and November 1664.
<p>Continuity: Miasma</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most people still believed that miasmata caused disease. A miasma could be caused by rotting food, decaying corpses (dead bodies), excrement (poo) or any other smelly, dirty place.
<p>Continuity: The Four Humours</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Although many top physicians were now challenging Galen's ideas, most ordinary people continued to believe that illness was caused by an imbalance of humours. Therefore, most physicians also stuck to the Four Humours theory, even if they were beginning to doubt it. Patients were paying physicians to treat them, not experiment.
<p>Change: Animatecules</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A new idea that little animals were the cause of illness developed after they could be seen by newly invented, more powerful microscopes. These images were not very clear. These tiny 'animalcules' had been discovered by a Dutch scientist called Antony Van Leeuwenhoek. He did not know that these 'animalcules' were bacteria or that they caused disease.
<p>Change: Thomas Sydenham</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Thomas Sydenham was important in moving medicine away from the ideas of Hippocrates and Galen. Sydenham believed in closely observing the symptoms of a patient, noting these down in detailed descriptions and then looking for remedies to treat the disease, rather than relying on medical books. In his book '<i>Observationes Medicae</i>' (1676), Sydenham said that illness was caused by something external, not internal factors like a person's diet or humoural balance. Sydenham laid the foundations for future individuals to take a more scientific approach to medicine.
<p>Why were new ideas able to be shared more easily?</p>	
<p>Change: The influence of the printing press</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The printing press was invented in 1440 by Johannes Gutenberg. Before the invention of the printing press, books and information had to be written by hand. In the Renaissance period, there were many printing presses being used. They enabled medical information to spread further and more quickly; and contributed to the decline of the influence of the Church. Now physicians were able to publish books that criticised Galen.
<p>Change: The Royal Society</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Royal Society was founded in London in 1660 to discuss new ideas in medicine and science. It was important in the development of new medical ideas because it made it possible for scientists and physicians to study each other's work and communicate. The Royal Society also sponsored scientists and assisted them with the publication of their ideas. The Royal Society published a journal called Philosophical Transactions, which featured information and experiments from scientists. Members were encouraged to write their reports in English rather than Latin, to make them more accessible to everyone. The Royal Society was given a Royal Charter by King Charles II in 1662. This showed that the king supported the group, which gave it more credibility/made it more popular.

Key ideas about the **treatment** of disease – How were people **treated** for disease in Renaissance England?

Change: Transference



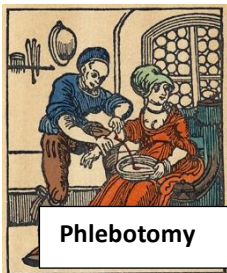
- Transference was a popular new theory in the Renaissance that disease could be **transferred from a human** to something else.
- For example, rubbing warts with an onion was believed to ‘transfer’ the warts to the onion.
- People also tried to transfer illnesses to live animals, such as sheep or chickens.

Change: Chemical cures



- **Alchemy** (a new form of chemistry) led to the new science of **medical chemistry**. This involved looking for new chemical cures, rather than relying on herbs or humoural treatments.
- **New remedies** such as **mercury** were used to purge the body, as they encouraged sweating and vomiting.

Continuity: Humoural treatments



- Despite all the new approaches, **many people still believed in humoural treatments** like purging and bloodletting/phlebotomy.
- Famously, **many humoural techniques** (techniques relating to the four humours such as phlebotomy and purging) as well **different herbal remedies** were used to treat King Charles II in 1685 – they were unsuccessful, and Charles died after 6 days of treatments from doctors.

Change: Herbal remedies



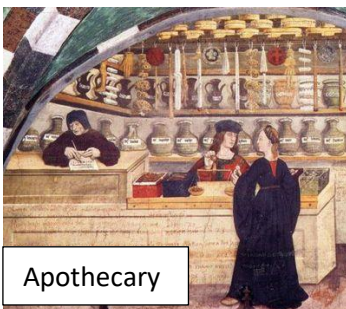
- Herbal remedies continued to be used, but they were now chosen because of their colour or shape – for example, yellow herbs were used to treat the condition jaundice, which turns the skin yellow.
- Many herbs appeared from the New World (North, Central, and South America – first discovered by Europeans in 1492).
- **Ipecac** from **Brazil** was used to treat dysentery.
- **Tobacco** was also used to treat disease, because the smell and taste was believed to ward off miasma.

Hospitals






- **CONTINUITY:** Hospitals now put a greater emphasis on **curing** patients, not just caring for them.
- **CHANGE:** Many employed **physicians**, unlike in medieval times.
- **CHANGE:** However, **the number of hospitals decreased** significantly because of the **closure of the monasteries, where many hospitals were located**. A few stayed open with funding from charities. St. Bartholomew’s in London was re-founded by Henry VIII himself.
- **CHANGE:** **Pest houses** were a new type of hospital which cared only for plague or pox victims. This meant that contagious people had somewhere to go without the risk of infecting others.
- **CONTINUITY:** Aside from hospitals, **most people were still cared for by women in the home**.

Doctors/healers







- **Physicians** continued to learn mainly from books, although they were taught some new ideas about **anatomy** (the scientific study of the body) and **medical chemistry**.
- **Surgeons** now had to have a **license** to practice medicine. **Dissections** were now allowed but didn’t happen very often.
- **Apothecaries** also had to have a license to sell medicine/remedies. Their role remained the same as in medieval times, although they now had many more ingredients and recipes from the **New World**.

Key ideas about the preventions of disease – How were people try to prevent disease in Renaissance England

<p>Change: The role of the government</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The government now took a more active role in preventing disease. • People were fined for not cleaning the street outside their house, and minor criminals picked up rubbish as a punishment. • Henry VIII closed down the London bathhouses in the early 1500s to stop the spread of syphilis.
<p>Continuity: Lifestyle advice</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Physicians still gave advice from the Regimen Sanitatis. • People were advised to practice moderation in all things – that meant avoiding too much exhaustion, fatty foods, strong alcohol and laziness. • Bathing in stews (public baths) became much less fashionable because people thought that syphilis was caught from bathing in public bathhouses.
<p>Purifying the air to prevent disease</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Miasma was still widely believed, so people continued to clean the air. • Sewage and rubbish were picked up from the streets, and bonfires were lit in public areas to ward off foul smells.




CASE STUDY: THE GREAT PLAGUE 1665

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The plague returned to England throughout the 1600s. • The Great Plague was the last major epidemic of the plague to hit England. • The Great Plague broke out across England in 1665. The disease was spread by fleas on rats, and people were as helpless to stop it as they had been during the Black Death. 	
<p>Ideas about cause</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Religious: God had sent the disease as a punishment for sins. • Supernatural: An unusual alignment of the planets. • Miasma: The most popular theory about the cause of the plague was bad air, created by rubbish and sewage in cities. People thought the foul smells were held in the soil, and escaped during warmer weather. This seemed logical because the plague was worse in the summer months. • Person to person: Many correctly realised that plague was spread from person to person, though they didn't know how. 	
<p>Treatments</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not much is known about treatment for the Great Plague because most victims were isolated in their homes. • New ideas: Physicians suggested wrapping sick people up in thick clothes and sitting by a fire, so that the disease could be sweated out. Transference was also tried e.g. strapping a live chicken to the buboes. • Herbal remedies continued to be popular. • Quack doctors also mixed herbal remedies. These were people with no training, who took advantage of people to make money during the Great Plague. 	 <p>medical</p>
<p>Prevention</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Religious and supernatural: People prayed, made pilgrimages and whipped themselves (self-flagellation) to show how sorry they were. • Purifying the air: Carrying a pomander (a ball of sweet-smelling herbs) was advised, and fires were lit. • Plague doctors: Plague doctors wore special masks with beaks (like birds) and coated their cloaks in wax, so that patients' blood did not soak into it to protect themselves. • Diet advice: Fasting was suggested, as well as specific foods such as eating lots of garlic. • Government action: The government took a much bigger role in public health. There were stricter quarantine laws, large crowds were banned such as for public meetings or funerals, the theatres were closed, 	 <p>Plague doctor</p>

	<p>people were hired to clean the streets, stray animals were killed, and the government also hired searchers to monitor the spread of the disease and remove dead bodies from towns.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Other healers: Apothecaries provided herbal remedies, and others such as “plague water”. Chewing and smoking tobacco was also advised to ward off miasma.
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Industrial medicine: 1700-1900

Key dates	
1796	Edward Jenner successfully tests out his smallpox vaccine on an 8-year old boy.
1847	James Simpson finds out that chloroform is an anaesthetic.
1848	First Public Health Act (ineffective).
1852	Smallpox vaccination made compulsory.
1854	Snow proved that clean water was essential for preventing the spread of cholera.
1859	Nightingale wrote her book <i>Notes on Nursing</i> .
1861	Pasteur publishes his germ theory.
1865	Lister first uses Carbolic acid as an antiseptic.
1875	Second Public Health Act (effective)
1881	Pasteur develops a vaccine for Anthrax.
1882	Koch stains microbes for the first time.

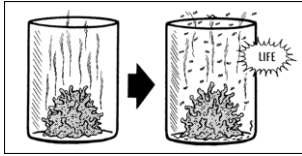
Key characters	
Joseph Lister	British surgeon who pioneered (<i>pioneered=made famous</i>) antiseptic surgery using Carbolic Acid spray.
Robert Liston	Surgeon known for the speed of his amputations. Once accidentally amputated a man's testicles.
Robert Koch 	Used Pasteur's germ theory to identify which germs caused anthrax. He developed a way of dying germs to find out which diseases they were responsible for.
Edward Jenner	Developed the smallpox vaccine.
James Simpson	Discovered the anaesthetic properties of chloroform.
John Snow	Proved that cholera is spread by water, not miasma. Made chloroform and ether safer to use by working out correct dosage (<i>correct dosage=the right amount of medicine to give to someone</i>). Administered chloroform to Queen Victoria at the birth of her last 2 children.
Henry Bastian	Influential doctor in Britain who believed in spontaneous generation.
Florence Nightingale 	Helped establish nursing as a respectable profession for women; improved the sanitation and standard of care at military hospitals in the Crimea (became known as " the lady with the lamp "); founded school of nursing at St Thomas' hospital.
Louis Pasteur	Disproved spontaneous generation with his germ theory; developed vaccines for anthrax and rabies; developed pasteurisation. 

Background information

- The industrial Revolution took place in Britain in the 18th and 19th centuries. Technology advanced rapidly and the population more than doubled.
- Cities became **overcrowded** (too many people) and **full of disease**, which made it even more important to try and understand what caused disease and illness.
- The Church continued to have less influence than before.
- **The Enlightenment** was a movement in Europe in the 1700s which promoted the idea that people could think for themselves, without control from authorities like the Church and nobility.
- **There was a Scientific Revolution.** New scientific ideas began to replace the old ones.

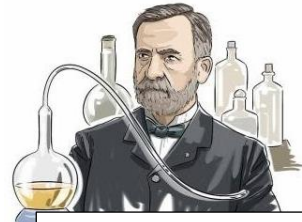
Key ideas about the **cause** of disease – What did people believe **caused** disease in Industrial England?

Change: Spontaneous generation



- Spontaneous generation was a new theory developed in the early 1700s, which said that **microbes (germs) were created by decaying matter** (e.g. rotting animals or food).
- It seemed logical because scientists were able to see microbes through microscopes.
- It was believed and supported by **Henry Bastian**, who was an influential doctor at the time.
- In actual fact **microbes (germs) are the cause of decay, not created by it.**

Change: Germ theory



Pasteur proved his theory through experiments on milk



- **Germ theory** was published by French scientists **Louis Pasteur** in **1861**.
- He **proved that spontaneous generation was wrong**, and that **something in the air must cause decay**.
- Pasteur realised that if germs caused decay, then they might also cause disease. However, germ theory had **almost no impact** initially, for several reasons:
 1. Spontaneous generation was still promoted by influential doctors.
 2. Pasteur was not a doctor, and his work mainly looked at decay and rotting food.
 3. Doctors observed bacteria all over the body, even in healthy people, so it seemed impossible that they could cause disease.
 4. Because Pasteur hadn't been able to identify the specific germs that caused different diseases, germ theory seemed to have little practical use in treating disease.
- Robert Koch, a German scientist, was the first to identify the different microbes that caused disease. He discovered the bacteria that caused **anthrax** (1876), **tuberculosis** (1882) and **cholera** (1883).
- Koch made it easier for other scientists to study bacteria, because his method of **growing bacteria in jelly, colouring them with dye and photographing them under the microscope** was used by others.



- Despite new discoveries such as germ theory, many still believed in **miasma** until the late 1800s.
- London's sewage (human waste from toilets) was emptied straight into the Thames, and this caused the **Great Stink of 1858**. Because this foul smell happened during a particularly hot summer, it seemed to fit with the old theory that miasma was absorbed in the soil and released during warmer weather.

Continuity: Miasma

Old ideas:



- Apart from miasma, many older ideas about the causes of disease had now died out: people **no longer** believed in **the Four Humours**, or that **God** sent disease as a punishment.
- In general, society was keener to look to **scientific explanations** when it came to medicine.

Key ideas about the **treatment** of disease – How were people **treated** for disease in Industrial England?

Hospitals



- Many hospitals had closed down when Henry VIII closed the monasteries in the 1530s. **By 1700 there were only 5 hospitals in England.**
- A few new hospitals in the 1700s were funded by **donations** from wealthy businessmen and lawyers. However, **most rich people themselves preferred to be treated in their own homes.**
- Hospitals now **focused more on treating people**, rather than just being places to rest and pray. Doctors visited patients regularly and apothecaries mixed treatments on site.
- Hospitals tended to admit the **"deserving poor"** – respectable, working-class people who people thought deserved to be treated. For the first time, poor people had access to trained doctors.
- The government also provided **workhouses** for those who were too poor to support themselves. These usually contained **infirmaries** where medical care was given.
- However, as more people started to use hospitals, they became **less sanitary** (less clean). There were **separate wards (sections of the hospital)** for infectious patients,

<p>Change: Nursing and Florence Nightingale</p>  <p>Florence Nightingale was nicknamed 'the lady with the lamp' because she was known to walk around the hospital at night with a lamp.</p>	<p>but doctors would often go between wards and patients without washing or changing clothes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Florence Nightingale helped to transform hospital care in Britain. • In 1854, she and a team of 38 nurses were sent by the government to treat British soldiers in the Crimean War. • The British army hospital at Scutari was dirty, smelly and had a high death rate. • Nightingale was an effective organiser and administrator. She focused on: thoroughly cleaning the hospital, providing clean clothes and bedding, improving sanitation and Providing good ventilation. • The death rate at Scutari fell from 40% to 2%. • Nightingale wrote books about her methods (Notes on Nursing, 1859) and founded the Nightingale School for Nurses in 1860. Nursing became a respectable profession. • New hospitals were based on Nightingale's advice. They often followed a pavilion plan, with lots of windows for ventilation and separate wards for infectious patients. • Nightingale's focus on clean air suggests that she still believed miasma was the key cause of disease.
<p>Change: Surgery (anaesthetics and antiseptics)</p>   <p>Joseph Lister using carbolic spray to remove germs during surgery.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There were 3 key problems with surgery: bleeding, pain, and infection. Pain and infection were tackled during the 1800s, but bleeding continued to be a problem. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <u>Anaesthetics (removing pain from surgery)</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A chemical called Ether had been used as an anaesthetic before, but it had made patients vomit and cough. • In 1847, Scottish surgeon James Simpson experimented with different chemicals and found that the chemical chloroform was an effective anaesthetic. • Chloroform became popular, especially after Queen Victoria used it during childbirth in 1853. • However, there were some problems with chloroform at first. The years 1850-1870 were known as the black period of surgery. During this time many patients died from receiving too much chloroform (overdose). Surgeons were also trying more complex surgeries which were dangerous. Many people were also against using chloroform because they thought it was interfering with God's plan and that things like childbirth were meant to be painful. 2. <u>Antiseptics (fighting infection)</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Before scientists knew about germs, patients would often survive operations, but then die from infections like gangrene and sepsis. • English surgeon Joseph Lister studied infected wounds and linked them to Pasteur's recently published germ theory. Lister realised that if germs caused decay, then perhaps they also caused infection in flesh. • In 1865, he treated a broken leg with a bandage soaked in carbolic acid (an antiseptic) to keep the wound clean. Lister also sprayed the acid during operations, to disinfect the air in the theatre. However, antiseptics were slow to catch on because the science behind them wasn't understood. • However, surgeons finally realised that cleanliness was important. By 1900, aseptic surgery (removing all germs from operating theatres before surgery) was commonplace: surgical instruments were steam sterilised, operating theatres were cleaned and clean gloves, gowns and masks were worn by surgeons.

Key ideas about the preventions of disease – How were people try to prevent disease in Industrial England?

Change: Inoculation

- In the 1700s, the disease smallpox was a major cause of death.
- One method of prevention was inoculation – this involved spreading pus from a smallpox scab into a cut in the skin of a healthy person, so that person would catch a mild case of smallpox. The body would then build up a resistance to it, so the person did not catch it again.
- This was risky because the inoculated person might get a strong dose of smallpox and die or pass the disease onto someone else.
- It was expensive and only available to the rich.

Change: Vaccination



- In the 1790s, **Edward Jenner** noticed that dairy maids who had already had **cowpox** (a similar disease to smallpox) did not catch smallpox.
- Jenner experimented by infecting a boy with cowpox, then waiting a few weeks and trying to infect him with smallpox. The boy didn't catch smallpox.
- Jenner called this process **vaccination** (vacca = Latin for cow).
- **Vaccination was safer than inoculation** because it used a controlled dose, and the vaccinated person couldn't spread the disease.
- **Jenner** published his theory in **1798** and encouraged other doctors to follow his technique.
- **There was opposition from the Church** (who felt that using animal infection on humans was unnatural), and from **inoculators** (who were unhappy because vaccination destroyed their inoculation business and they lost money), and **from the Royal Society** (Jenner was a country doctor – not respected by London doctors).
- **By 1840**, the government had made inoculation a crime, and provided children's vaccinations for free.
- **In 1852**, the **smallpox vaccination was made compulsory**, though it wasn't properly enforced until 1872.
- **Jenner's discovery was a one-off. He couldn't explain exactly why it worked, so he couldn't use it to prevent other diseases.**
- Louis Pasteur discovery of germ theory led to other vaccinations being created in the 1870s.

Change: Public health/the role of the government





- Before the 1800s, the government had a **laissez-faire** ("leave alone") attitude towards public health. They felt it was not their responsibility.
- In **1842**, **Edwin Chadwick** published his '**Report on the Sanitary Conditions of the Labouring Classes**'. It showed that poor people in cities had a **much lower life expectancy**. Chadwick suggested that local governments should be responsible for public health.
- **The First Public Health Act** was passed in **1848**. This encouraged local councils to set up a local board of health and provide clean water supplies. However, most councils didn't act **because it was not compulsory**.
- From the 1860s, the government began to take more action. Following **the Great Stink of 1858**, a **modern sewer system** was built in London by **Joseph Bazalgette**.
- In **1875**, Parliament passed **The Second Public Health Act**, which made it compulsory for city authorities to:
 - Provide clean water
 - Dispose of sewage safely – not in the river!
 - Build public toilets
 - Employ a public health officer to monitor disease
 - Enforce better building standards, to prevent overcrowding
 - Check food quality in shops
 - Provide public parks, for exercise
- These measures had a positive impact – epidemics of major diseases decreased.

CASE STUDY: Cholera in London, 1854

Cholera was a fatal disease which caused severe sickness and diarrhoea. It first arrived in Britain in 1831 and there were several severe epidemics in the following decades.

How did people try to prevent cholera?

- Many thought it was **caused by miasma**, so tried to prevent it by **cleaning up filthy streets**.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The 1848 Public Health Act suggested that cities provide clean water supplies, but few did because it was not compulsory. • There was another serious epidemic in 1854. A London doctor called John Snow theorised that it could not be caused by miasma. Instead, he thought it was spread by drinking dirty water.
<p>What did John Snow do?</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Snow created a map showing all the cholera deaths in his local area. The deaths seemed to be centred around the Broad Street water pump. • He removed the handle of the pump so that people couldn't use it, and the outbreak in the area quickly went away. This proved that the disease had been coming from the water in the pump. • It was later found that the pump had been contaminated by a nearby leaky cesspit (dirty water under the ground). • Snow presented his findings to Parliament in 1855. He suggested that they invest in an improved sewer system. 
<p>What impact did Snow have?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The government was willing to listen to Snow because he was a respected doctor. (It was Snow who had given Queen Victoria chloroform anaesthetic.) • The government did invest in a new sewer system - although it was the Great Stink of 1858 that really pushed them into action. • Many rejected John Snow's work because he had no scientific proof. • Snow's ideas were backed up by Pasteur's germ theory in 1861 – but Snow was dead by this time. • Overall, Snow had an immediate impact on the Broad Street area, but his impact outside of this area was limited. The importance of clean water was not truly accepted until later.

Modern medicine: 1900 – Modern Day

Key dates	
1909	Discovery of Salvarsan 606
1928	Alexander Fleming discovered penicillin.
1932	Prontosil is found to kill bacterial infections in mice.
1941	Penicillin successfully used on a human.
1942	Publication of Beveridge Report.
1948	NHS is launched.
1990	Launch of the Human Genome Project (completed 2000).

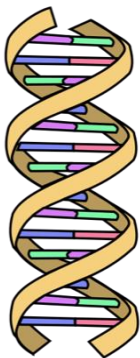
Key characters	
James Watson & Francis Crick	Two scientists working at Cambridge University who discovered the structure of DNA.
Rosalind Franklin & Maurice Wilkins	Took the first X-Ray photographs of DNA.
Alexander Fleming	Discovered by accident that penicillin, a type of mould, could kill harmful bacteria.
Howard Florey & Ernst Chain	Two scientists who took Fleming's discovery of penicillin and developed it as an antibiotic treatment for use on humans.
Paul Ehrlich	Tested over 600 arsenic compounds to find a cure for syphilis. His research was continued by a Japanese scientist called Hata who found that compound 606 (which was named Salvarsan) cured syphilis.
Gerhard Domagk	Discovered that Prontosil could cure bacterial infections.

Background information

- By 1900 life expectancy was starting to increase but was still only around 50.
- Most families still could not afford to see a doctor.
- There was now a wider acceptance of Pasteur's germ theory.
- Ideas about miasma and the Four Humours were no longer believed – medicine was now firmly rooted in science.
- The old "laissez-faire" attitude to public health was dying out.

Key ideas about the **cause** of disease – What did people believed **caused** disease in Industrial England?

Change: Genetics





DNA



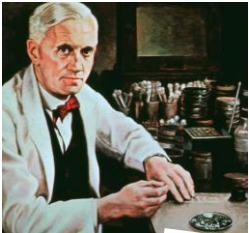

- Scientists realised that germs did not cause all diseases – some people were born with illnesses or conditions which were **hereditary** (passed on from parents).
- In 1953, Cambridge **scientists James Watson and Francis Crick** identified the substance **DNA** that passes information from one person to the next.
- They discovered that DNA is shaped as a double helix.
- Crick and Watson didn't do it alone – their structure of DNA was based on close-up x-ray images produced **by Rosalind Franklin and Maurice Wilkins**.
- Knowing the structure of DNA was important to medicine, because scientists could now identify the parts that caused hereditary diseases.
- In **1990**, scientists led by James Watson launched the **Human Genome Project** to identify the complete set (over 3 billion pairs) of DNA which makes up human beings. It took hundreds of scientists from 18 countries over ten years to complete. Scientists can now use this 'blueprint' to look for mistakes or mismatches in the DNA of people with hereditary diseases.
- For example, the actor Angelina Jolie was tested and discovered she had the gene for breast cancer and was very likely to develop cancer. She had a **mastectomy** (surgery to remove breasts) and now has a very small chance of developing breast cancer.



Change: Understanding lifestyle factors


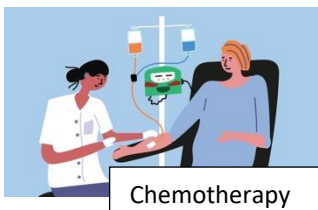


- Over the 20th century, people **gained a better understanding of how lifestyle choices affect health**.
- Smoking became more popular from the 1920s, especially amongst young people.

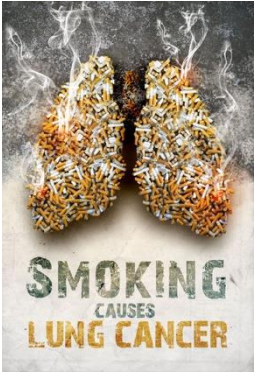
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Doctors now know that smoking can cause conditions such as cancer, high blood pressure, heart disease and tooth decay. People are now strongly advised not to smoke. • Diet is also important. We now know that sugar and fat should be eaten in moderation, because they can lead to diabetes and heart disease, and too much alcohol can damage the liver. • Other lifestyle factors which influence health include unprotected sex and drug taking, and the modern fashion of tanning, which leads to skin cancer.
<p>Change: Improvements in diagnosis</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modern technology means that doctors no longer have to use surgery to diagnose all diseases. • These are some of the common technologies used to make a diagnosis: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Blood pressure monitors (1880s) – diagnosing high and low blood pressure. ○ X-rays (1890s) – help to see inside the human body without surgery. ○ Endoscopes (1900s) A camera on the end of a thin, flexible tube, often used to investigate digestive symptoms. ○ Blood tests (1930s) – testing for conditions without the need for invasive surgery. ○ CT scans (1970s) – a more advanced form of x-rays, used to diagnose tumour and growths.

Key ideas about the treatment of disease – How were people treated for disease in modern England?	
<p>Change: Magic bullets</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Magic bullets were chemical cures which attacked germs in the body, while leaving the body unharmed. • Paul Ehrlich (a member of Robert Koch's research team) developed the first magic bullet in 1909. He tested hundreds of arsenic compounds, and on the 606th attempt found one which cured syphilis. This became known as Salvarsan 606. Unfortunately, Salvarsan 606 could also kill the patient, because arsenic is poisonous. • In 1932, Gerhard Domagk discovered that Prontosil cured blood poisoning in mice. He found it worked on humans too after he was forced to try it out on his ill daughter.
<p>Change: Antibiotics and penicillin</p>   	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An antibiotic is a treatment that kills or limits the growth of bacteria in the body. • The first antibiotic was penicillin. • Penicillin is different to magic bullets in that it is created using microorganisms, not chemicals. • There were 3 stages in its development: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. British doctor Alexander Fleming discovered penicillin by accident in 1928. Fleming noticed that the penicillin mould had killed off the harmful bacteria in the dish. However, Fleming didn't believe it could work to kill bacteria in living people, so he didn't experiment more. 2. In 1940, Howard Florey and Ernst Chain found that penicillin seemed to kill bacteria in infected mice. However, it took a long time for them to grow enough penicillin to treat a human. By 1941 they had enough to try out on one person. They experimented on a local policeman with blood poisoning. The penicillin worked well – but they soon ran out of it, and the patient still died. Florey and Chain needed to somehow produce it on an industrial (really large) scale. 3. British companies wouldn't mass-produce penicillin at first because they were concentrating on the war effort (during WW2), but in 1941 some American companies agreed to start production. The US government saw its potential and gave money to 21 companies to produce penicillin. In 1943, British companies also started to make penicillin. In 1944, there was enough penicillin to treat all the Allied soldiers wounded in D-Day. Fleming, Florey and Chain shared a Nobel Prize for their work in 1945.

<p>Change: Surgery: high-tech medical and surgical treatment</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The problem of bleeding during surgery was solved by blood transfusions (taking blood from a healthy person and giving it to someone else) . These were made possible after Karl Landsteiner identified the first blood groups in 1900. • Blood banks were first used in the First World War, where many soldiers were bleeding to death. • Successful organ transplants (taking healthy organs and giving them to other people) were first carried out in the 20th century, including the first kidney (1956), lung (1963), liver (1967) and heart (1967) transplants. • These were made possible by modern techniques such as keyhole surgery (making really small cuts) and robotic surgery (use of robots makes cuts more precise). • Since the 1930s, anaesthetics have been injected rather than inhaled. This is much safer. • Dialysis technology was developed – these were machines that could clean blood for patients with kidney disease.
<p>Change: the NHS</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • After WW2, people were keen to improve society. • The NHS (National Health Service) was launched by the government in 1948. Its aim was to provide medical care to everybody that was free at the point of delivery – it was paid for by everybody through taxes. • It was overseen by Minister of Health, Aneurin Bevan. • It was partly inspired by a 1942 report by William Beveridge, called the Beveridge Report, which identified “5 Evils” which needed to be eradicated from society. The five evils were: squalor (dirtiness), ignorance (lack of education), want (poverty), idleness (unemployment), and disease. • The NHS took over existing hospitals and surgeries, but the government could not afford to update them initially. Therefore, in the short-term access to medical care improved (because GPs and hospitals were now available to everyone) but the care itself did not. • The government made changes in the 1960s, including building more hospitals across the country, and introducing a GP’s charter in 1966, which improved standards in care. • Increased life expectancy and a larger population has created problems for the NHS, including longer waiting times and increasing costs.

CASE STUDY: Fighting lung cancer in the 21st century	
<p>Lung cancer is the UK’s second most common cancer. In 1950, the British Medical Research Council published a study which showed that the rise in lung cancer cases was linked to the rise in smoking.</p>	
<p>Diagnosing lung cancer</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lung cancer is hard to treat because it’s usually advanced by the time it’s detected. • Previously, lung cancer was diagnosed using x-rays, but these were inaccurate. • New technology has made diagnosis easier and more reliable such as CT scans, which give a detailed image of inside the body
<p>Treating lung cancer</p>  <p>Chemotherapy</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are many treatments available, made possible by modern technology: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Removing all or part of the lung. ○ Lung transplant. ○ Radiotherapy (shrinking the tumour with radiation). ○ Chemotherapy (shrinking the tumour with drugs). ○ Scientists are also studying the genes of lung cancer sufferers in the hope of developing a genetic treatment.

Preventing lung cancer



- In 1985, smoking-related deaths cost the NHS £165m – but the government earned around £4bn from tobacco tax. It was a while before the government acted to discourage smoking.
- Since then, the government has taken much more action to combat lung cancer:
 - In **2005, cigarette advertising was banned completely** (it had been banned on TV since 1965).
 - In 2007, smoking was banned in all public workplaces.
 - Also, in 2007, the **legal age to buy tobacco was raised from 16 to 18.**
 - In 2015, smoking was banned in cars carrying children.
 - All cigarette products must be removed from display in shops.
 - **Anti-smoking advertising campaigns** are produced, and the dangers of smoking taught in schools.
 - Increased taxation of tobacco products, to make them more expensive.

Key ideas about the preventions of disease – How were people try to prevent disease in modern England?

The government took significant action to improve public health in the 20th century. There was no longer a “laissez-faire” attitude.

Change:
Mass
vaccinations



- The government introduced compulsory vaccinations throughout the 20th century, including **diphtheria in 1942** and **polio in 1950.**
- These vaccination campaigns were funded by the government to ensure they were widespread.

Change: Government
legislation (*legislation = laws*)



- During the 20th century, the government passed laws to ensure healthy living conditions.
- **Improvements in schools:** free school meals were created in 1906, and medical checks in schools started in 1907.
- **The Clean Air Acts of 1958 and 1968** were passed to prevent smog caused by air pollution.
- As part of the **Health Act of 2006**, it was made **illegal to smoke in all enclosed work spaces.**
- **Dietary information (e.g. sugar content and calories) must now be displayed on food packaging.**

Change: Government
lifestyle campaigns



- As well as direct legal action, the government also tries to prevent disease through promoting a healthier lifestyle:
- **Advertising campaigns**, which warn about the dangers of smoking, drugs, alcohol and unprotected sex.
- Events such as **Stoptober**, which **encourages people to stop smoking.**
- Initiatives which encourage healthier eating, such as the **Change4Life** campaign.

Paper 1: The British Sector of the Western Front, 1914-

18: Injuries, treatments, and the trenches






Medicine in the Early 20 th Century	
There had been several medical breakthroughs in the years before WW1:	
Aseptic surgery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Joseph Lister had used the first antiseptic in 1865, and this led to the development of aseptic surgery – removing all germs from the operating area before surgery.
X-rays	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> X-rays were discovered by German physicist Wilhelm Roentgen in 1895. This meant that doctors were now able to look inside the body without having to cut the patient open. However, there were some problems with early x-rays and people didn't fully understand the risks of radiation: patients could suffer burns or hair loss because of the high levels of radiation. X-ray machines were also fragile and easily broken and they were very slow (longer than 90 minutes) Larger x-ray machines were difficult to move around.
Blood transfusions and blood banks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> James Blundell had carried out the first human blood transfusion in 1818. Because blood could not be stored for later use, early transfusions involved the donor being directly connected to the recipient by a tube. Blundell performed 10 transfusions in total – 5 were successful. Karl Landsteiner discovered the first 3 blood groups (A, B and O) in 1901. This made blood transfusions more successful because it stopped the donor's blood being rejected by the recipient's body.

Trenches	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Britain declared war on Germany on August 4th 1914. The British Expeditionary Force (BEF) was sent to France to stop the Germans advancing through Belgium. Soldiers began to dig small trenches to shield themselves from machine gun fire. Stalemate developed - neither side could advance, so both dug in to hold their ground. Eventually a line of trenches stretched from the English Channel in the north to Switzerland in the south. <p>A more complex trench system developed from 1915:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trenches were dug in a zigzag pattern. Holes called dugouts were dug into the sides of the trenches, where men could take cover from gunfire. Trenches were generally about 2.5 meters deep. The space in between the two lines of trenches was called no man's-land. Barbed wire was placed in no-man's-land to slow down enemy attacks. 	
The frontline Trench	The trench nearest the enemy where the soldiers would shoot from.
The command Trench	10-20 meters behind the firing line.
The support Trench	200-500 meters behind the frontline.
The reserve Trench	Around 100 meters behind the support trench. Reserve soldiers would be here ready
The communication Trench	All the trenches were connected through the communication trench so messages and supplies could be passed easily.

Key battles	
The First Battle of Ypres (1914)	The Germans attacked British in the Belgian town of Ypres in October 1914. The British lost over 50,000 troops.
The Second Battle of Ypres (1915)	April and May 1915. It was the first time the Germans used chlorine gas.
The Battle of the Somme (1916)	Around 20,000 British soldiers died on the first day alone. Tanks were used but these were unsuccessful because of their low speed and unreliability. In total, the Somme cost the British about 400,000 lives.

The Battle of Arras (1917)	In 1916, the British linked the existing tunnels and caves at Arras to create a safe underground network . In April 1917, 24,000 men who had been hiding in the tunnels attacked. The British advanced about 8 miles. However, their progress slowed and by the end there were nearly 160,000 British and Canadian casualties.
The Third Battle of Ypres (1917)	The aim of this battle was for the British to break out of the Ypres Salient . A salient is an area of a battlefield that is surrounded by the enemy on three sides, so is very vulnerable . The weather turned to rain, and the ground became so waterlogged that men would drown in the mud. By the end the British had regained about 7 miles, but with about 245,000 casualties.
The Battle of Cambrai (1917)	Cambrai saw the first large-scale use of tanks – nearly 500 were used. They could move easily over the barbed wire and their machine guns were effective.

Medical conditions on the Western Front

Trench foot 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Caused by: Standing in cold water or mud. • Symptoms: Painful swelling of the feet, eventually leading to gangrene (when skin dies due to loss of blood). • Solutions: Rubbing whale oil on the feet, keeping feet dry and changing socks regularly, in really bad cases feet had to amputated (cut off).
Trench fever 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Caused by: Body lice. • Symptoms: Flu-like (high temperature, headache, aching muscles). • Solutions: Delousing stations were set up.
Gas gangrene	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Caused by: Open wounds infected by bacteria from soil. • Symptoms: Dead skin. The bacteria caused gas to build up in the wound. • Solutions: Amputation of infected areas.
Shellshock 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Caused by: Psychological damage – stressful conditions of war • Symptoms: Tiredness, nightmares, headaches, loss of speech, mental breakdown • Solutions: The condition was not well understood, and sufferers were accused of being cowards. Sometimes they were sent back to England to be treated.
Shrapnel injuries 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Caused by: Being hit by bullets or shrapnel (bits of metal) from rifles/explosions. • Symptoms: Pieces of metal would cut the body with bits of soldiers' uniform and dirt. • Solutions: Steel Brodie Helmets (introduced in 1915) were worn to protect the head.
Gas attacks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Caused by: Chlorine, phosgene and mustard gas. • Symptoms: Burning skin, internal and external blisters, death by suffocation. Massive psychological impact – fear and panic. • Solutions: Gas masks were developed in 1915.

The Chain of Evacuation

There was a chain of evacuation to get the wounded from the frontline to a safe treatment area. The main stages were not always followed in the same order for every casualty.

1. Regimental Aid Posts (RAP)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gave immediate first aid • Aimed to get as many men as possible back to the fighting • Could not deal with serious injuries – these patients were moved onto the next stage • Usually located near to the frontline, in communication trenches or abandoned buildings
2. Dressing Stations (ADS and MDS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dealt with minor injuries • Located in abandoned buildings, bunkers or tents • In theory, there should have been an Advanced Dressing Station with a Main Dressing Station half a mile behind it, but often this wasn't the case. • Staff at the Dressing Stations belonged to a unit of the RAMC called the Field Ambulance

3. Casualty Clearing Stations (CCS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Often dealt with critical injuries. • Set up in buildings such as factories and schools, often near a railway line. • Triage system – men were divided into 3 groups: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The walking wounded could be patched up and sent back to the fighting. 2. Those needing hospital treatment were transferred to a Base Hospital. 3. Those who had no chance of survival were made comfortable, but medical resources were not spent on them.
4. Base Hospitals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Located near the coast so wounded men could be shipped back to Britain. • As the war went on, CCSs did more of the jobs originally intended for Base Hospitals


The work of the RAMC and FANY

RAMC (Royal Army Medical Corps)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The branch of the army responsible for medical care, founded in 1898.
FANY (First Aid Nursing Yeomanry)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Founded in 1907. • A women's organisation which sent volunteers to the Western Front. It supported medical services on the frontline, e.g. by driving ambulances and giving emergency first aid. • The first 6 FANYs arrived in France in October 1914, but they initially helped the French and Belgian troops because the British wouldn't make use of them. • In 1916 the British army allowed FANYs to drive ambulances, replacing Red Cross male ambulance drivers. • FANYs opened the way for more women to join in on the frontline

The underground hospital at Arras

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Beginning in November 1916, a fully working hospital was created in the tunnels under Arras. (It was essentially a Dressing Station because it was so close to the frontline.) • It had: Waiting rooms for the wounded, 700 spaces where stretchers could be placed as beds, An operating theatre, Rest stations for stretcher bearers, A mortuary, Electricity and piped water • It was abandoned during the Battle of Arras in 1917.
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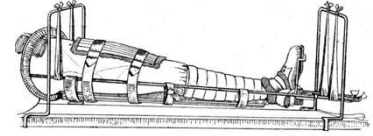
Transporting the wounded

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • At first horse-drawn ambulance wagons were used to carry the sick and wounded, but these were so shaky that they often made injuries worse. • Motorised ambulances were introduced with help from public donations. However, horse-drawn wagons were still used where the ground was too muddy for motor vehicles. • Wounded men were also taken by train or canal to Base Hospitals on the coast - some trains even had operating theatres. Some of the wounded were transferred directly onto ships to be taken back to Britain. • Stretcher-bearers were men who carried wounded soldiers from the battle fields to receive medical care. 	
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Experiments in Surgery and Medicine

What were the problems with treatment in the trenches?	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The contaminated conditions made aseptic surgery impossible. • Shrapnel, dirt and bits of uniform in wounds caused infection. • The sheer number of casualties meant the system often struggled to cope. 	
What were the methods of dealing with infection?	
Debridement	the removal of dead or infected skin tissue.
The Carrel-Dakin method	using a sterilised salt solution in the wound through a tube (antiseptics like carbolic acid didn't work on gas gangrene).
Amputation	removing infected limbs. 240,000 men had lost limbs by 1918.
The Thomas Splint	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This was a large splint designed to keep limbs and joints still during surgery. 	

- Many men died from shrapnel wounds to the leg because the leg was not kept rigid during transfer from the frontline to a CCS, leading to blood loss and infection.
- The Thomas **splint improved the survival rate for these leg injuries from 20% to 82%**



Mobile X-ray units

- X-rays were used from the start of the war to locate bullets and shrapnel in wounds.
- The Base Hospitals had static (non-moving) x-ray machines.
- The British also had 6 mobile x-ray units, which were vans loaded with x-ray equipment. The equipment was laid out in a tent at the back of the van.

Problems

- X-rays couldn't identify all objects in the body – e.g. fragments of clothing
- An x-ray took several minutes, a long time for a wounded man to keep still
- The x-ray machines could only be used for an hour before they overheated. 3 machines would be used in rotation, so that one worked while the others cooled down.

Blood transfusions

- Lawrence Bruce Robertson, a Canadian doctor, developed blood transfusions on the Western Front. He used a syringe and tube to transfer blood from the donor to the patient.
- Blood transfusions were carried out in Base Hospitals, and by 1917 in Casualty Clearing Stations too. Geoffrey Keynes, a British doctor in the RAMC, designed a **portable blood transfusion kit** so that transfusions could be carried out near the frontline.

Blood banks

- In 1915, it was found that adding sodium nitrate to blood stopped it clotting.
- Also in 1915, it was discovered that blood with sodium nitrate could be stored for up to 2 days if refrigerated
- In 1916, it was found that adding a citrate glucose solution allowed blood to be stored for up to 4 weeks.
- At the Battle of Cambrai in 1917, an American doctor built a carrying case for bottles of donated blood. He treated 20 severely wounded soldiers during the battle, of which 11 survived. These blood banks were important because they made blood more easily available on the frontline, meaning badly injured soldiers were more likely to survive.

Head injuries and brain surgery

- About 20% of British wounds were to the head, face and neck.
- At the start of the war, brain injuries were usually fatal because unconscious/confused patients were difficult to move through the chain of evacuation, and very few doctors had experience of neurosurgery.
- An American surgeon called **Harvey Cushing** developed new brain surgery techniques by observing and experimenting. He used a magnet to remove metal fragments from the brain and **used local anaesthetic** (numbing the area being operated on) rather than general anaesthetic (putting the patient to sleep), because general anaesthetic swelled the brain.

Plastic surgery

- A New Zealand doctor called Harold Gillies developed methods of restoring and rebuilding destroyed facial features. The intricate operations and recovery needed for plastic surgery had to be carried out back in Britain.
- The key hospital for plastic surgery was the Queen's Hospital in Kent, which Gillies helped design in 1917. By the end of 1917, the hospital had carried out nearly 12,000 operations.

Paper 2: The Cold War

Topic 1: The Early Cold War (1943-1956)

Keywords:

Term	Definition
Communism	An economic system where people work for the state - the harder they work, the richer the country becomes. Communist countries only allow one political party.
Capitalism	An economic system where people work for themselves - the harder each individual works the richer each individual will become. Capitalist countries allow more than one political party (democracy).
Arms Race	When the USA and the USSR competed to have the biggest and best nuclear weapons.
Atomic Bomb	A highly destructive nuclear weapon, first used at Hiroshima in 1945.
Big Three	Roosevelt (United States), Stalin (Soviet Union) and Churchill (Britain) - the original leaders of the Grand Alliance who fought against Nazi Germany and Japan in WW2.
Blockade	An attempt to prevent supplies from reaching their destination.
DeStalinisation	Khrushchev's attempt to move away Stalin's harsh policies, started in 1956
Doctrine	A political belief or collection of political beliefs
Eastern Bloc	The Eastern European Communist countries within the Soviet sphere of influence
Reparations	A form of compensation that the losing side in a war has to pay to the winners
Retaliation	Trying to harm someone else because you think they have harmed you
Satellite State	A country that is officially independent, but is in reality controlled by another country.
Telegram	Both the USSR and USA regularly asked for secret reports from their embassies to help them understand how their opponents were thinking – Long Telegram and Novikov Telegram in 1946



The Grand Alliance and the Big Three

- The Grand Alliance between **the USA, Britain, and the USSR** was formed in 1941 to fight against a **common enemy** – The Nazis.
- Even though the USA and USSR had major ideological differences (major differences in beliefs), they were able to work together to fight against Hitler.
- Towards the end of World War II, the Grand Alliance leaders – known as '**The Big Three**' met at 3 different conferences to figure out a plan for the end of the war.
- The original Big Three leaders were **Joseph Stalin (the USSR), Winston Churchill (Britain), and Franklin D. Roosevelt (the USA)**.
- There was a crucial change in leadership before the final conference (Potsdam). Roosevelt died and was replaced by Harry Truman. Truman disliked and didn't trust Stalin and was more aggressive in negotiations. Clement Atlee became the new Prime Minister and replaced Winston Churchill too.



End of World War II Conferences


Tehran (1943)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The first meeting of the Big Three – Stalin (USSR), Roosevelt (USA) and Churchill (Great Britain) in Tehran (capital of Iran) to plan a winning strategy to win the war 				
	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th><u>Agreements</u></th> <th><u>Disagreements</u></th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A 'second front' would be opened in France to fight against the Nazis to take off pressure from the USSR who were fighting them in the East • The USSR would enter the war against Japan once Germany had been defeated • A United Nations Organisation would be set up after the war. </td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No major disagreements or tension – all nations still united over defeating the 'common enemy' (the Nazis) – focussed on winning the war </td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	<u>Agreements</u>	<u>Disagreements</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A 'second front' would be opened in France to fight against the Nazis to take off pressure from the USSR who were fighting them in the East • The USSR would enter the war against Japan once Germany had been defeated • A United Nations Organisation would be set up after the war. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No major disagreements or tension – all nations still united over defeating the 'common enemy' (the Nazis) – focussed on winning the war
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Yalta (1945)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The second conference between the Big Three to discuss winning the war and the government of Europe. This conference was held in Yalta in the Soviet Union. 				
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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Germany would be divided into 4 zones at the end of the war. Stalin agrees again to join the war in Japan 3 months after Germany is defeated All 3 again agreed to set up the United Nations It was agreed Stalin would have a sphere of influence in Eastern Europe Free elections in all countries freed from Nazi control. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The major disagreement was over Poland – Stalin wanted a communist friendly government in Poland but the USA and Britain demanded free elections in Poland.
Potsdam (1945)	<p>The third and final conference was held at Potsdam in Germany. The main aim of the Potsdam conference was to finalise the agreements made at Yalta. Before the Potsdam conference there were a few important developments:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> US President Franklin D. Roosevelt (FDR) died and was replaced by Harry Truman. Truman was much more anti-communist than FDR which caused tension as he was unwilling to negotiate with Stalin. The USA tested the first ever atomic bomb in the desert in New Mexico. Clement Atlee replaced Winston Churchill as British Prime Minister. By the Potsdam Conference it was clear that there was serious tension between these world powers. 	 
	<p>Agreements</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> USSR to gain eastern Poland and Poland to be given some German territory. Nazi Party to be banned and Nazi war criminals to be put on trial. 	<p>Disagreements</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stalin wanted harsh reparations for Germany, but FDR and Churchill didn't. Stalin began setting up a communist government in Poland – breaking agreements made at Yalta There were arguments about where zones in Germany would be drawn.

Ideological difference between capitalism and communism

- The major underlying tension between the USA and the USSR (the East and West) was differing **ideologies** (beliefs).
- The USA was **capitalist**. The key features of a capitalist society are:
 - Multiple political parties
 - Democratic elections
 - People are free to set up private businesses and make money for themselves
 - Freedom of speech/freedom of the press/individual rights and freedoms
- The USSR was **communist**. The key features of a communist society are:
 - Only 1 political party allowed (the communist party)
 - No elections
 - All business and factories are owned by the government – people can't make money privately
 - The government controls the media
 - Individual rights and freedoms are less important than obedience to the government


Dropping the atomic bomb - 1945

- On the 6th of August 1945, the USA dropped an atomic bomb on the Japanese city of Hiroshima. The blast killed more than 140,000 people. 3 days later the USA dropped a second atomic bomb on the Japanese city of Nagasaki, killing more than 74,000 people.
 - Truman said the bombs were dropped to bring the war to a quick end. Some historians have also argued that the bombs were dropped to **send a warning to the USSR about the strength of the USA's military.**
 - This was an early moment in the arms race between the USA and the USSR – Stalin wanted the USSR to have weapons equal in force to those of the USA.
- 


Stalin's buffer zone – the creation of satellite states



- Satellite states = countries that are formally independent but are under the control of another state/country


<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • After WW2, Stalin wanted grow the influence of the USSR in Eastern Europe for security. The Soviet Union had been invaded by Germany twice and had suffered huge casualties. Stalin created soviet-controlled states in Eastern Europe as a buffer or protection against future invasions. • Elections were held in each Eastern European country but were rigged to make sure that communist groups took control. • By 1948 Stalin had established 7 satellite states: Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Poland, Romania • Example: Hungary – 	
Consequences	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Security for the Soviet Union. Eastern Europe could no act as a buffer zone against possible future invasions from the West. 2. Increased rivalry. The USA and Britain believed didn't trust Stalin's motive of security, they believed he wanted to expand the Soviet empire and communism throughout Europe (as shown in the Long Telegram) 3. The Soviet Union now had control of Eastern Europe. This confirmed the divisions between East and West stated in Churchill's 'Iron Curtain' speech




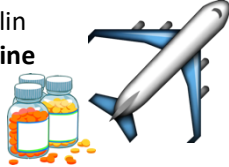

The Iron Curtain Speech - 1946	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Winston Churchill gave a speech in America in 1946 which was called the 'Iron Curtain' speech. In this speech he said how Europe was now divided into a capitalist side and a communist side. The iron curtain was an imaginary line that divided the communist East from the capitalist West in Europe. • In the speech he said: "From Stettin in the Baltic to Trieste in the Adriatic, an iron curtain has descended across Europe." • Truman was on stage at the time of the speech, and this was taken as his approval. • The speech angered Stalin as it was negative about communism. Stalin called Churchill a 'warmonger' as he believed Churchill was encouraging division. This increased tension between East and West. 	


The Long and Novikov Telegrams - 1946	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2 secret telegrams were sent in 1946 which increased tensions. 	
The Long Telegram	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sent by George Kennan, an American at the US Embassy in Moscow. He sent a telegram back to USA saying that the USSR was heavily armed and determined to spread communism but that the USA was stronger and could contain communism.
The Novikov Telegram	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Soviet response to the Long Telegram was the Novikov Telegram – sent by Nikolai Novikov, the Soviet ambassador to the USA. He sent a telegram from Washington to Moscow saying that the USA wanted to dominate the world and that the USSR needed expand its buffer zone.

The Truman Doctrine and Marshall Plan - 1947	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Much of Europe had been badly damaged by World War II. Truman believed this made countries weak and likely to turn to communism. He was very worried about this and wanted to stop the spread of communism which led to the Truman Doctrine and Marshall Plan. He thought if he could help these poor countries to recover, then there would be no need to turn to communism. 	
The Truman Doctrine 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Truman Doctrine was the important speech given by President Truman in 1947 in which he announced the policy of containment. This was the policy to stop the spread of communism. • This was partly because the European country of Greece was being threatened with a communist takeover. Britain had been helping Greece to stop communism but in 1947 Britain told the USA that it could no longer afford to support the Greek government. <p>Consequences of the Truman Doctrine:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Greek government was able to defeat the communists 2. The rivalry between the USA and the USSR increased as division between East and West was confirmed. 3. The USA became committed to containment and far more involved in what was happening in Europe. 4. The USA decided on the Marshall Plan and Stalin set up Cominform.

<p>The Marshall Plan</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Truman backed up the policy of containment with economic aid (money) for Europe. This is known as the Marshall Plan. It went hand in hand with the Truman Doctrine which is why they have been called 'two halves of the same walnut'. <p>Consequences of the Marshall Plan:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> By 1953, the USA had give \$17 billion in aid to rebuild economies in Europe. Europe became more firmly divided between East and West – Stalin prevented Eastern countries from received American aid. Stalin accused the USA as using the Marshall Plan for its own selfish interests – to dominate Europe and boost the US economy. 	
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Cominform (1947) and Comecon (1949)		
<p>The Soviet Union responded to the Truman Doctrine + Marshall Plan by setting up rival groups: Cominform and Comecon</p>		
<p>Cominform - 1947</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cominform (the Communist Information Bureau) was set up in 1947 to allow the Soviet Union to communicate better with other communist governments and parties in Europe. The response to the Truman Doctrine. 	
<p>Comecon - 1949</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Comecon (The Council for Mutual Assistance) was the Soviet response to the Marshall Plan. It was set up so that the USSR could financially support counties in Eastern Europe. In reality, it was used by the Soviet Union to control the economies of these countries. 	

The first crisis in Berlin: 1948/1949 – The Berlin Blockade and Airlift		
<p>The division of Germany into zones</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The crisis in Berlin in 1948-49 was the first major crisis of the Cold War. During the Potsdam and Yalta conferences it was agreed that Germany would be divided into 4 zones (with the USA, USSR, Britain, and France each getting their own zone) but it would run as 1 whole country. The city of Berlin (capital of Germany), which was in the Soviet zone would also be split into 4. The Western Allies (USA, France, and Britain) were allowed to access their areas of Berlin by road, train, or air. Stalin did not want the Allies inside Berlin. the Western Allies merged their zones together to create Trizonia. They announced plans to create a West German state and a new currency called the Western Deutschmark. This greatly angered Stalin as it was breaking the agreement to keep Germany as 1 whole country. 	
<p>The Berlin Blockade and Airlift</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> On the 25th of June 1948, Stalin accused the West of interfering in the Soviet zone. He blocked land access into West Berlin. Truman was determined to stand up to the Soviet Union and show he was serious about containment but also didn't want to be too aggressive. The only way into West Berlin was by air. So, the allies decided to airlift (fly in) supplies such as food and medicine from West Germany into West Berlin. The airlift began on 28th of June 1948 and lasted for 10 months. It reached its height in April 1949 with one plane landing every minute in West Berlin. It was hugely successful and by 1949, Stalin had lifted the blockade as it had failed. 	
<p>Consequences</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Greatly increased East-West rivalry. The crisis had been a huge propaganda victory for Truman. For Stalin it was a defeat and a humiliation. Germany was officially split into two different countries – West Germany (The Federal Republic of Germany – FRG) and East Germany (The German Democratic Republic GDR) in 1949. It led to the creation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO). 	

NATO - 1949	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Berlin Crisis had confirmed Truman's commitment to helping Western Europe against the Soviet Union. In April 1949, the North Atlantic Treaty was signed by 12 western countries, creating the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) which was a military alliance with the purpose of preventing Soviet expansion. 	

Consequences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The USA was now committed to defending Western Europe. Stalin believed that NATO was aimed against the Soviet Union Within six years, the USSR set up the Warsaw Pact.
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The Arms Race

- As the Cold War developed in the late 1940s and early 1950s, both superpowers spent more and more money developing weapons or arms. This became known as the **arms race**.
- By **1949**, the **USSR had developed and tested its own atomic bomb** in response to the USA. This was quicker than the USA had expected.
- Now that the USA and Soviet Union both had the atomic bomb, they both gave more and more money into projects to build more and bigger bombs.
- Truman ordered a powerful new weapon to be built – **the hydrogen bomb or H-bomb**. It was first successfully tested in **1952**. A few months later, in **1953**, the Soviet Union had successfully tested their own H-bomb.
- In **1957**, the USA then first tested the **ICBM (inter-continental ballistic missile)**. This new weapon could hit targets up to 4,500km away (across continents). Later in 1957, the USSR also successfully launched their own ICBM. By 1961, the USA had developed 63 ICBMs and the USSR had developed over 50.



Consequences	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Potential for nuclear destruction – By 1957, both superpowers could destroy the world with their weapons several times over. Increased tensions – the arms race increased tensions between the superpowers as they struggled to catch-up with and overtake the other. This led to an intensification of the Cold War. Mutually assured destruction (M.A.D) – nuclear weapons began to be used as a deterrent, to try and prevent a war from breaking out. This was called ‘Mutually Assured Destruction’ (M.A.D) and was the belief that having nuclear weapons would stop a rival from going to war, as if nuclear weapons were used both sides would be destroyed. Cost – By the mid-1950s, the cost of the arms race was growing so high that the new leaders Dwight Eisenhower (USA) and Nikita Khrushchev (USSR) tried to get along a bit better.
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A new leader for the USA - 1953

- In 1953, Dwight Eisenhower was elected as the new President of the USA.
- He was strongly anti-communist, wanted to block communist expansion, but was also worried about the danger of the nuclear weapons.



The death of Stalin - 1953

- Soviet leader Joseph Stalin died in 1953.
- In **1955**, **Nikita Khrushchev became the new leader of the USSR**.
- In a **‘secret speech’** in 1956, Khrushchev attacked Stalin, calling him a murderer and a tyrant.
- Khrushchev began to **‘de-Stalinize’** Russia - he said they should try to peacefully coexist with the West.
- It was thought that this would decrease tension, but then the Warsaw Pact was formed in 1955, reigniting the tension.



The Warsaw Pact – 1955



- In 1955, the Soviet Union set up the Warsaw Pact. It was a military alliance of 8 countries and was a response to NATO.

Consequences	Europe was divided into two opposing military groups. This increased the rivalry between the USA and the Soviet Union and intensified the arms race.
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The Hungarian Uprising - 1956

Hungary became a satellite state after WW2. In 1955 Hungary joined the Warsaw Pact. In 1956 the Hungarian people decided to protest communist rule.

Causes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Life in Hungary was very difficult - people didn't have many freedoms and there was not enough food. The prime minister Rakosi was a brutal leader. Poverty - Hungarians were poor, yet much of the food and industrial goods they produced was sent to Russia.
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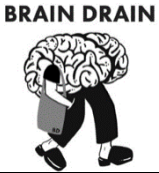
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Russian Control - The Hungarians hated Russian control – which included censorship, the secret police and just a general lack of freedom • Help from the West - Hungarians thought that the United Nations or the new US president, Dwight Eisenhower, would help them.
<p>Events</p>  	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • On the 23rd October 1956, students, workers and soldiers began rioting. They smashed up the statue of Stalin and attacked the Soviet soldiers. Khrushchev sent in tanks and Soviet Troops to try and get things under control. • On the 24th of October, Khrushchev agrees that Nagy can be Prime minister. He was a communist leader who still believed people should be allowed some freedoms. • On the 28th of October, The Soviet troops leave Hungary. • Within days of becoming the prime minister, Nagy set out reforms to introduce more freedom in Hungary such as free speech and freedom of elections. • On the 3rd of November, Nagy announces that Hungary was leaving the Warsaw Pact. • On the 4th of November, Khrushchev said Nagy had gone too far. The Soviets invaded with 6000 tanks and 200,000 soldiers and restore Soviet control. 20,000 Hungarians died. Nagy was arrested and then shot in 1958.
Consequences	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. There wasn't much that could be done by the West – they criticized the actions of the Soviet Union, but Hungary was too far away for military involvement. It became clear to the Satellite states that the West could not really help them. 2. Khrushchev was able to keep control of Hungary, instal a new leader, and have Nagy arrested and shot. Khrushchev had shown the satellite states he was in control. 200,000 Hungarian refugees fled to Austria 3. The West became even more determined to contain the spread of communism.

Topic 2: The Cold War Crises (1959-1968)

Keywords:

Term	Definition
Mutually Assured Destruction	The idea that both superpowers had enough nuclear weapons to guarantee the destruction of the other in the event of war, regardless of who attacked first.
Deterrent	The theory that simply having nuclear weapons is enough to stop another country attacking you.
Pact	An agreement (usually between two countries).
Propaganda	Posters/Radio/Newspaper articles that are designed to win political support.
Refugee	Someone fleeing from bad conditions.
Retaliation	An attempt to pay someone back for wrongdoing, possibly with military force.
Summit	A high-level meeting between government representatives.
Ultimatum	A demand made with the threat of force if not carried out
Brinkmanship	Pursuing a dangerous policy to the limits of safety before stopping.

Crisis 1: The Building of the Berlin Wall

Causes	
The brain drain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Khrushchev was concerned about the 'brain drain' (the movement of young, well-educated, professionals) from East Germany towards West Germany. • Between 1949 and 1961 an estimated 2.7 million East Germans left for West Germany, and Berlin was the centre of this process as there was easy access to the west. • This made life in Communist East Germany look bad and Khrushchev was very concerned 
The Berlin Ultimatum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Khrushchev was so concerned with the amount of people leaving Berlin, he gave a speech in Moscow in 1958 where he issued an ultimatum to the West. • He demanded that the Western powers should leave Berlin within 6 months or there would be war. • Eisenhower did not want to give in to Khrushchev's demands and wanted to keep troops in West Berlin to protect their freedoms. • They agreed to have a summit meeting to resolve the issue.
The Berlin Summit meetings	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Geneva Summit, May 1959 No agreement reached over Berlin. 	

2. The Camp David Summit, 1959

A friendlier summit - the Soviets agreed to withdraw the Berlin ultimatum and both leaders agree to meet again in Paris to talk more about Berlin.

3. The Paris Summit, 1960

Khrushchev walked out of the meeting due to his frustration at **Eisenhower's refusal to apologise for sending a spy over the Soviet Union**. The Soviets had shot down an American U-2 spy-plane on 1st May before the Paris meeting and interrogated the pilot, Gary Powers

4. The Vienna Summit, 1961

Khrushchev renewed the Berlin ultimatum as he believed the new US president, John F. Kennedy, was young and inexperienced. Kennedy refused to make concessions and the meeting ended without any agreement.

A new leader for the USA, 1960

- John F. Kennedy becomes president in **1960**. He was quite young and inexperienced
- He re-asserted the Truman Doctrine in his inauguration speech – that the US would try to **contain** communism
- He hoped to resolve difficulties with Soviet Union through diplomacy



The building of the Berlin Wall

- As tensions between East and West increased during the summit meetings, more East Germans fled to West Germany. On just one day in August 1961, 40,000 East Germans crossed to the West.
- On 12th August 1961, East German troops built a barbed wire fence around Berlin and between the Eastern and Western parts of the city. Soon after, a concrete wall was built to separate them.
- All movement between East and West was stopped. - For several days Soviet and US tanks faced each other across the divided Berlin streets. **and armed soldiers guarded checkpoints**
- By the end of the summer, the barbed wire was replaced by a thick concrete 3.6 m high wall that was **heavily guarded by armed soldiers, dogs and trip-wire machine guns**. In total, the Berlin Wall measured **165 km in length and 43km of this cut straight through the centre of Berlin itself**. Over **130 people were killed** attempting to cross the Wall.



Consequences of the Berlin Wall

1. **Movement, or escape, from East to West Germany was now very difficult.** All crossing points from East to West Berlin were firmly sealed. They would **remain shut to the majority of East Berliners for the next 28 years**. East Germans tried to cross the wall by jumping out of windows onto carefully placed mattresses or trying to tunnel beneath the wall and hundreds lost their lives in the process. Some East Germans tried to climb over the wall and risked being shot, by hoping that the East German soldier might have bad aim.
2. The **Wall separated families, caused people to lose their jobs and prevented East Germans from travelling to the West until the 1980s**.
3. The **Wall served as a constant reminder of the ongoing Cold War and came to symbolise just how divided Europe had become**.
4. The **Wall stopped East German refugees from leaving** and forced them to find work in East Germany. This **slowly helped to strengthen the East German economy**. Also, the **Wall sent a powerful symbol to the West that East Germany and the USSR were prepared to do whatever it took to protect Communism** in Berlin and that any attempt to reunite Germany under Western control would fail.
5. The wall showed that the **USA had not given in to Khrushchev's ultimatums** and had refused to leave West Berlin. This helped to **show the USA as strong and unwilling to give in to Khrushchev's bullying**. West Berlin therefore became a **powerful symbol of freedom and defiance against Communism**. When **Kennedy** visited the city in 1963, he was greeted by crowds of **1.5 million people** lining the streets. It was clear that **Kennedy had come out of this crisis a hero** and, for a while at least, **Cold War tension in Europe eased**.
6. **Tensions between the USA and the USSR remained high initially**. These tensions reached their height in **October 1961** when the USA became angry that **Soviet troops were patrolling checkpoints along the Wall** and were also **demanding to see the passports of American officials** who passed through these **checkpoints**. As a result, the **Americans placed their troops and tanks on the Western side of the checkpoints** which prompted the **Soviets to do the same with their tanks on the Eastern side of the checkpoints**. It looked as though the Cold War was about to become hot!
7. In the long term, the wall helped to ease tensions as the superpowers no longer fought over Berlin.

Crisis 2: The Cuban Missile Crisis

Cause: The Cuban Revolution	
American involvement in Cuba	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In 1898, America helped Cuba gain independence from Spain. Since then, America became heavily involved in Cuba. America built a huge naval base near Cuba. Rich Americans bought homes in Cuba Cuba saw an increase in the number of luxury bars and restaurants - lots of money being invested! These rich 'Americanised' areas were not matched by improving conditions elsewhere in Cuba. The Americans made their money, but it was rarely invested back into the Cuban system. As a result: Literacy levels were low; Standard of healthcare was very poor; Cubans were poor! The USA controlled most of Cuba's industry In 1934, America helped the Cuban military officer Fulgencio Batista become leader of Cuba..although he was very unpopular with the Cuban people The new government became <u>corrupt</u> and repressive Many Cubans saw Batista (leader of Cuba in 1934) as a symbol of America's control of Cuba "Americanisation"
The revolution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In 1959 Fidel Castro led a successful revolution against Batista Castro wanted greater independence from the USA and took all the property that was located in Cuba In response, the USA banned the import of Cuban sugar, which threatened to bankrupt the Cuban economy Castro also expelled the US Mafia from Cuba and began appointing communists to his government He removed all foreign ownership of land He began to make anti-American speeches Castro moved closer to the Soviet Union and they agreed to buy Cuban sugar and to provide machinery and technological help for Cuba By 1960 Cuba and the USSR had formally become allies


Cause: The Bay of Pigs Invasion (1961)	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> America was concerned that Cuba and the USSR had formally become allies in 1960. Cuba was only 90 miles away – in 'America's backyard'. By 1961, the USA organised an attempt to overthrow Castro, known as the Bay of Pigs invasion. America and the CIA sent in 1400 exiled Cuban rebels to overthrow Castro The American backed rebels were easily defeated, as Castro knew about the plan and was ready waiting with 20,000 soldiers. It was a total failure for Kennedy (embarrassing). Consequences: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The invasion caused Castro to turn even closer to the USSR for protection as he was worried about another invasion. In May 1962, Khrushchev agreed to put Soviet nuclear weapons on Cuba. On the 14th of October 1962 an American U2 -spy plane took photographs of missile sites being built in Cuba.

Events: The 13 days of the crisis – October, 1962	
16 th of October, 1962	US President Kennedy was told that Khrushchev was building missile sites in Cuba
18-19 th of October, 1962	Kennedy talks with his advisors about what to do
20 th of October, 1962	Kennedy decided on a naval blockade around Cuba to prevent Soviet missiles and equipment reaching Cuba.
22 nd of October, 1962	Kennedy made a television address (statement) to the American people , informing them of the potential nuclear threat
24 th of October, 1962	18 Soviet ships approaching Cuba turned around to avoid confrontation with the US blockade. Many people expected the Soviet ships to force their way through the blockade, escalating conflict. Kennedy demanded that all missiles in Cuba were removed and that failure to do so would lead to the invasion of Cuba.
26 th of October, 1962	Khrushchev sent Kennedy a letter, offering to remove the missiles if the USA removed the blockade and promised not to invade Cuba.
27 th of October, 1962	Khrushchev sent another letter promising to remove the missiles if the USA removed its missiles from Turkey. A U-2 spy plane was shot down over Cuba.
28 th of October, 1962	President Kennedy, at the suggestion of his brother, Robert, decided to ignore Khrushchev's second letter and accepted the first letter; he would remove the blockade and promised not

	invade Cuba is Khrushchev removed the missiles. Robert Kennedy then made a deal with Soviets that the USA would remove their missiles from Turkey as long as it was kept a secret. Khrushchev accepted the deal and the crisis was over.
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Consequences of the Cuban Missile Crisis

The superpowers had almost gone to war; a war that would have destroyed much of the world. This was the biggest crisis of the Cold War. However, war was avoided and it did lead to better relations...

1. The telephone hotline		In June 1963, a direct communication line was set up between Moscow and Washington, known as the 'hotline'. This was to try and stop tensions getting so high in the future.
2. The Test Ban Treaty		In August 1963, a Test Ban Treaty was signed by the US, the USSR, and Britain. This banned the testing of nuclear weapons in outer space, underwater, or in the atmosphere.
3. The Outer Space Treaty		In 1967, the Outer Space Treaty was signed. This banned putting nuclear weapons in outer space.
4. The Nuclear Non-proliferation Treaty		In 1968, the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty was signed. This was intended to stop the spread of nuclear weapons, as countries who signed the treaty could not share their nuclear technology with others.

Overall, the crisis made Kennedy more popular in the USA as he had stood up to Khrushchev and avoided war. However, for Khrushchev it was a humiliating defeat and played a role in him being forced out as leader in 1964.

Crisis 3: The Prague Spring and Soviet Invasion of Czechoslovakia

Czechoslovakia and the USSR

- In 1948, the Soviet Union established a communist government in the Eastern European country of Czechoslovakia.
- Moscow controlled much of what happened in the country, and the economy was run for the benefit of the Soviets.
- The Czech people had few consumer goods, no freedom of speech, or access to a free press.
- Towards the end of the 1960s, protests against low standards of living began to grow.
- Alexander Novotny had been the leader of Czechoslovakia from 1957. He was unpopular because he was a hard-line communist who refused to introduce reform.
- The Czech economy was in serious decline in 1960s and the standard of living fell massively.

The Prague Spring Reforms - 1968

Alexander Dubcek	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alexander Dubcek was elected as the new leader of the Czechoslovakian government in 1968. • Although Dubcek was a committed communist, he also believed citizens should be free to express themselves and to criticise the government's decisions without fear of being punished – he wanted to introduce 'socialism with a human face'. • Dubcek introduced a set of reforms which became known as the 'Prague Spring' reforms.
The reforms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Less censorship: criticism of the government allowed • More powers for trade unions; less government control of industry • More power for Czech regional governments • Trade with the West increased • More freedom for Czech people to travel abroad

Whilst there was great enthusiasm amongst the Czech people for these reforms, Moscow was worried that other countries in the Warsaw Pact would want similar freedoms. This could be a dangerous path towards Moscow losing its influence in its satellite states

The Soviet response

- The new Soviet leader, Brezhnev (who replaced Khrushchev in 1968), urged Dubcek not to go too far with his reforms. He also ordered other Warsaw Pact countries to place their troops in Czechoslovakia to scare Dubcek.
- However, when Dubcek invited the Romanian and Yugoslavian leaders to a meeting in August 1968, Brezhnev decided to act. Both Romania and Yugoslavia had recently tried to break away from the Warsaw Pact – Brezhnev could not let this happen to Czechoslovakia, too.
- On 20th August 1968, **500,000 Warsaw Pact troops invaded Czechoslovakia** and ended the 'Prague Spring'.
- There was little the Czech people could do against such a large military force, and the troops entered virtually unchallenged, except for a few brave protestors.
- Dubcek was arrested, sent to Moscow, and ordered to reverse his reforms.

- In 1969, Moscow replaced Dubcek with a communist loyal to Moscow, who restored hard-line communist rule in the country which remained in place for the next 20 years.

The Brezhnev Doctrine

In 1968, the 'Brezhnev Doctrine' was established. This was the Soviet leader's policy that said the actions of any individual communist country affected all communist countries. Therefore, if one country's actions threaten the survival of its communist regime, all others must take action to prevent this. This meant that communist countries could not introduce reforms or they risked invasion.

Consequences and reactions

1. **In Czechoslovakia** – people continued to protest the soviet invasion until April 1969. Jan Palach, a student, set fire to himself in the middle of Prague as a protest.
2. **The Brezhnev Doctrine was issued** – this sent a message to all Warsaw Pact countries that they could not introduce reforms.
3. **Temporarily worsened relations between East and West** – The USA criticized the Soviet actions but didn't do anything else because they were too busy with the war in Vietnam.

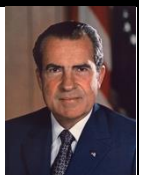
Topic 3: The End of the Cold War (1970-91)

Keywords:

Term	Definition
Détente	A term used to describe the relationship between the USSR and USA during the 1970s. This involved a period of mutual understanding and greater cooperation between the two countries.
Doctrine	A statement of ideas.
Evil Empire	A term used by President Reagan in 1983 to describe the Soviet Union.
Second Cold War	Phrase used to describe the period between 1979 and 1985, which marked a new low in superpower relations.
Boycott	To stop economic or social relations with (a country, organization, or person) as a punishment or protest.
Glasnost	'Openness' - censorship of the press in the Soviet Union was to be relaxed and people were allowed to discuss political issues.
'Gorbymania'	A term used by the Western media to describe America's positive attitude towards Gorbachev (the leader of the USSR in the 1980s) and his new thinking.
Perestroika	'Restructuring' - Economic reforms designed to make the Soviet economy more efficient. They included reducing state control, increasing capitalist elements in the economy and allowing foreign investment in the USSR.

1968: A new leader for the USA


- Richard Nixon is elected as the new president of the USA in 1968
- He was determined to take his country out of the Vietnam War which had cost the USA billions of dollars and resulted in the deaths of almost 60,000 American soldiers.
- Many problems in America when he becomes president (anti-war demonstrations, inequality, race)



Causes of Détente

- **The arms race had become too expensive.** Both countries needed money for internal reforms and wanted to cut their defence spending.
- Price of oil rising
- Threat of nuclear war during Cuban Missile Crisis had gotten too high
- USA wanted to focus on ending the Vietnam War
- Development of technology in the USA that the USSR wanted to gain access too.
- There were poor living standards in the Soviet Union and the economy was not developing which was a problem for Brezhnev

Early détente

Nuclear Test Ban Treaty, 1963	Banned testing of nuclear weapons on the ground and in the atmosphere	
Outer-Space Treaty, 1967	Banned the placing and testing of nuclear weapons in space and on the moon	

Key policies of détente

SALT 1 - 1972



Agreements:

1. Anti-Ballistic Missile systems (ABM) are only allowed at two sites, with each site containing 100 missiles.
2. A 5-year freeze on the total number of ICBMs.

Strengths of the treaty:

- It was symbolic of their co-operation –they both wanted to reach an agreement publicly. Both leaders visited each other as a sign of these negotiations. In 1974 talks began on SALT 2. It was agreed only by a piece of paper

Weaknesses:

- It was agreed only by a piece of paper. Both sides still had the capacity to destroy the other with their nuclear weapon. It Did not cover the latest technology **MIRVs** (multiple weapons, one missile)

The Helsinki Agreements – 1975



Three 'baskets' or areas of agreement were made:

1. **Security** - European Borders: Boundaries between East and West Germany were recognized for the first time and boundaries of the Soviet Union's satellite states were accepted.
2. **Co-operation** - 1975 there was a joint space mission. Both sides agreed to work for closer relations with trade agreements and technology exchanges.
3. **Human rights:** Respect for human rights such as freedom of speech, religion, and movement across Europe. 33 countries from NATO and Warsaw Pact met to build on good relations from SALT 1

Strengths:

- This was considered the **high point** of détente. There was more freedom for people in Soviet controlled countries. Progress on borders since the separation of Germany in 1949.

Weaknesses:

- Both sides were suspicious of the other motives.

SALT 2 - 1979



Agreements:

1. Restrictions on missile launchers and strategic bombers
2. Ban on testing or development of new **ICBMs**
3. Reduce nuclear missiles to 2250 each

Strengths:

- Further sign of co-operation, but **Carter** had it removed from the Senate and it was never **ratified** (formally approved to become US policy).

Weaknesses:

- America was growing concerned about the Soviets' trustworthiness
- **President Carter's** advisers wanted a stronger stance on USSR
- Soviet Union invaded Afghanistan ending détente

Other détente policies and events

The Apollo-Soyuz Mission

In July 1975, the US and Soviets had a **joint space mission**. This was the first international space mission, and it was a powerful symbol of détente. Russian and American aircraft docked in space and the astronauts were photographed shaking hands.



Ping-pong diplomacy



In 1971 the USA accepted an invitation from the Chinese table tennis team to tour China. This got a lot of media attention - paved the way for higher-level visits and meetings and better relations between the USA and China.

1977: A new leader for the USA

- Jimmy Carter became president in 1977 and served until 1981.
- During his early presidency he negotiates SALT 2
- He is then forced to take a stronger stance on the USSR, pulling out of SALT 2
- Hostage crisis in Iran affects his presidency
- He gives the **Carter Doctrine** following the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan



Why did détente end?

1. The USA did not trust the Soviet Union and vice versa
2. US embassy in Tehran (Iran) was attacked
3. Carter's advisors wanted him to be stricter with the Soviet Union (Carter Doctrine)
4. The Soviet Invasion of Afghanistan

Iran hostage crisis

- **Islamist revolutionaries** (Muslims who wanted their country to be run by **Sharia/Islamic laws**) overthrew the **Shah (monarch)** of Iran in November 1979
- During the Revolution, **52 Americans were held hostage at the US embassy**. They were held **hostage** for 444 days!
- This was a huge humiliation for America and made them look weak. It meant **President Carter was forced to stand up to threats**, especially from the USSR
- The US relied on oil from the Middle East so also had to protect its interests there.

Why did the Soviets invade Afghanistan?

- **The USSR did not want Muslim fundamentalism to spread to the central Asian states within the USSR (from Iran)** → This might lead to problems as Muslims within the USSR could challenge Soviet rule in favour of Islamic rule. They **did not want Communist ideology to be undermined by Islam**.
- There were **30 million Muslims in the Soviet Union** and Brezhnev wanted to show them that there would be no changes
- The Soviet Union was also interested in maintaining influence in the Persian Gulf area because they **wanted access to oil in the region**.




The events of the Soviet Invasion of Afghanistan, 1979






- In April 1978, a pro-Soviet government took control of Afghanistan and received economic help from Moscow.
- In 1979 Hafizullah **Amin** took down the government in a coup.
- At first, the USSR supported the coup, but Amin's government became unpopular as other Muslim groups tried to overthrow him.
- When Brezhnev heard rumours that Amin was talking to the USA about possible American support, he decided to act.
- **On the 24th of December 1979, Soviet forces invaded Afghanistan**. They claimed that they had been invited in by Amin to support his government against terrorists. However, **Amin was assassinated on the 27th of December** (almost certainly by Soviet commandos). Amin was replaced by a pro-Soviet leader, **Babrak Kamal**.
- **The Soviets remained in Afghanistan for almost 10 years, fighting against the opponents of Babrak Kamal**. The Muslim guerrilla fighters who were fighting against Amin and then Kamal were known as the **mujahideen**. Their war against the USSR lasted until the soviets withdrew in 1989. During this period, the USA supplied the mujahideen with weapons and billions of dollars.

Consequences of the Soviet Invasion of Afghanistan

Carter's immediate response	Carter said the invasion posed the biggest threat to world peace since the end of the Second World War . He withdrew from the SALT 2 proposal and increased spending on arms .	
The Carter Doctrine	Carter gave a speech to the American people in 1980 where he said that the USA would use military force if necessary to defend its national interests, especially oil interests in the Persian Gulf . It also promised US military aid to all the countries bordering Afghanistan. This became known as The Carter Doctrine .	

<p>Olympic Boycotts</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carter also pressured the US Olympic Committee to boycott (not attend) the Moscow Olympic Games of 1980. 61 other countries followed the USAs example. • 4 years later, the USSR responded by boycotting the Los Angeles Olympic Games. Only 13 other countries • The USAs boycott was highly significant move as the Olympic Games are a global event, which the USSR was hoping to use to promote communism to the huge television audience. The boycott reflected the influence that the USA had in international affairs.
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<p>1980: A new leader for the USA</p>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ronald Reagan beat Jimmy Carter in the 1980 presidential election. He became President of the USA in 1981. • Reagan called Carter weak. Reagan believed that the USA should reclaim its position as the most powerful country in the world. He believed that the USA had to stand up to communism. • Reagan was a committed Christian. • Reagan was president for 8 years. During the first 4 years, tensions between the USSR and USA remained high in a period called the Second Cold War, but during the second 4 years he helped to bring the Cold War to end. 	

<p>Reagan's policies</p>	
<p>The 'Evil Empire' speech – 1983</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Two years into his presidency, Reagan made a speech to a group of Christian Evangelicals – Christians who focus on scripture in the Bible – in which he called the Soviet Union an 'evil empire' • He said that the Cold War was a moral and spiritual fight between right and wrong. 
<p>Increased military spending</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Massive increases in the defence budget - more aggressive approach to fighting Communism • In 1982, defence spending increased by 13% with another 8% increase in 1983 and 1984 • Two new pieces of military technology. (1) Trident submarine - part of the nuclear deterrence because it could fire ballistic missiles at targets thousands of miles away. (2) The stealth bomber - could drop nuclear bombs and get past air defences because it was almost impossible to pick up on radar. • All this restarted the arms race, increasing tension. 
<p>The Strategic Defence Initiative (SDI) – also known as 'star wars'</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a hugely ambitious military project to weaponize space • It involved putting satellites in orbit around earth that had lasers on them that would shoot down Soviet missiles, creating a 'nuclear umbrella' that would protect the US from Soviet attack • This went against the 1967 Outer Space Treaty which had banned weapons in space. • Wasn't ready – but the Soviets didn't know this! 
<p>The Reagan Doctrine</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reagan said that the US would support anti-Communist governments throughout the world. • He went even further and said that the US would also support anti-Communist groups in their activities against Communist governments. • This was a more confrontational foreign policy than Truman who advocated containment, and Carter who said the US would use military force if attacked first. • Reagan was actively trying to reduce the number of Communist governments. • Helped rebels in El Salvador and Nicaragua fight against communism → increased tension!

<p>The Soviet reaction</p>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Soviet economy was suffering. The USA increasing military spending and the SDI restarted the arms race – but this time the soviets couldn't keep up with US in terms of weapons and technology. • ...leads to a major shift in Soviet thinking...which helped to change Reagan's attitude to the Soviets and ultimately lead to the end of the Cold War. 	

<p>Gorbachev and his 'new thinking'</p>	
<p>Who was Gorbachev?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brezhnev died in 1982. There were two temporary leaders in between Brezhnev and Gorbachev. He was younger than previous leaders • Mikhail Gorbachev becomes leader in 1985 • During the Brezhnev era, huge amounts of money was spent trying to compete with USA, the USSR was very poor and standards of living were very low. queuing 5 hours for a loaf of bread in Moscow

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Years of poor leadership left Soviet Union in chaos. Gorbachev knew had to introduce drastic changes to improve things in the USSR - 'new thinking' • Gorbachev's aim was to reform communism, not abandon it
<p>Glasnost and Perestroika</p>	<p>Glasnost: (openness) ensured censorship of the press was relaxed. People were allowed to challenge the government.</p> <p>Perestroika: (reconstruction) economic reforms designed to improve the Soviet economy and make it more capitalist</p>
<p>The end of the Brezhnev Doctrine</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The USSR would no longer get involved in the affairs of Warsaw Pact states • Gave eastern European countries more independence and the chance to run their own affairs
<p>The end of the arms race</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce spending on arms and defence • Leads to new arms reductions agreements with the USA → improving superpower relations
<p>Reactions to Gorbachev's new thinking</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Very popular within the USSR <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Gorbachev showed he was a leader who was willing to listen. Changes had a good impact on the economy ○ People who had been imprisoned for speaking out against the Soviet government were released ○ The more freedom people were given, the more they wanted... • The USA approved of Gorbachev's new thinking - it was a real opportunity to improve superpower relations and bring an end to the Cold War • Reagan didn't need to be tough on the USSR and tough on communism as Gorbachev wasn't looking to spread communism • As a result, between 1985 and 1989, there were a number of meetings and agreements between both countries

Summit meetings	
<p>Geneva Summit - 1985</p>	<p>The first official meeting of Reagan and Gorbachev. No formal agreements were made but a good working relationship was established and a mutual desire to improve relations. Both leaders committed to making the world a 'safer place'. They agreed to meet again soon.</p>
<p>Reykjavik Summit, 1986</p>	<p>Gorbachev was particularly worried about the danger of nuclear weapons because of the Chernobyl disaster (April, 1986 - a nuclear power plant exploded) Gorbachev proposed phasing out the production of nuclear weapons if the USA gave up the SDI. Reagan refused to give up the SDI. No formal agreement was made.</p>
<p>Washington Summit, 1987</p>	<p>A formal treaty was signed - the INF Treaty (Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty). This treaty eliminated nuclear missiles with ranges of 500-5500 km. By the treaty's deadline in 1991, the USA had destroyed 846 of these weapons and the USSR had destroyed 1846. Both nations were allowed to inspect each other's military installations. This was important because it was the first treaty to reduce the number of missiles that the superpowers possessed (SALT I only limited growth of weapons). It was also important because it showed that Gorbachev was willing to compromise – they were able to make an agreement even though Reagan refused to give up the SDI.</p>
<p>Moscow Summit, 1988</p>	<p>Some details of the INF Treaty were resolved at the Moscow Summit in 1988. This was an important summit because later in the year, Gorbachev travelled to USA, where he made a speech to the United Nations (UN) where he announced: (1) A reduction of Soviet troops in Warsaw Pact countries. (2) That Soviet forces would leave Afghanistan</p>
<p>Malta Summit, 1989</p>	<p>Gorbachev met the new American president, George Bush (Sr.) No new agreements were made, but this meeting as marked the end of the Cold War. Gorbachev said: 'I assure the President of the United States that I will never start a hot war against the USA. We are at the beginning of a long road to a lasting, peaceful era'</p>

The INF Treaty, 1987

This treaty eliminated nuclear missiles with ranges of 500-5500 km. By the treaty's deadline in 1991, the USA had destroyed 846 of these weapons and the USSR had destroyed 1846. Both nations were allowed to inspect each other's military installations. This was important because it was the first treaty to reduce the number of missiles that the superpowers possessed (SALT I only limited growth of weapons). It was also important because it showed that Gorbachev was willing to compromise – they were able to make an agreement even though Reagan refused to give up the SDI.

The impact of Gorbachev's new thinking on Eastern Europe

- Gorbachev ended the Brezhnev Doctrine - the Soviet satellite countries were free to choose how they wanted to be governed.
- In 1989 Gorbachev announced the **Sinatra Doctrine** - Warsaw Pact countries could do what they wanted
- They no longer had to fear that the Soviets would interfere like they had in Hungary and Czechoslovakia.
- Gorbachev's reforms in the USSR encouraged similar reforms in the Warsaw Pact countries to improve standards of living and introduce more freedoms.
- Gorbachev's intention was to strengthen communist governments in the Warsaw Pact countries, but they ultimately led to the end of the Warsaw Pact and the breakdown of communism in Eastern Europe...

Poland	<p>1988: Strikes throughout the country</p> <p>1989: The free trade union Solidarity wins elections - the first non-communist prime minister in Eastern Europe is elected</p>
Hungary	<p>1988: Gorbachev accepts that Hungary can become a multi-party state</p> <p>1989: Hungary opens its border with Austria, breaking the 'Iron Curtain'</p> <p>1990: Democratic elections were won by an anti-communist group</p>
East Germany	<p>October, 1989: Gorbachev visits East Germany and tells them that Soviet troops will not interfere in protests</p> <p>4 November, 1989: 1 million protested in East Berlin</p> <p>9 November: Berlin Wall pulled down</p> <p>1991: Germany reunified as one country</p>

The fall of the Berlin Wall

Reagan's speech	<p>On 12th June 1987, US President Ronald Reagan stood in front of the Berlin Wall in West Berlin and gave a speech that would become one of his most iconic.</p> <p>In his speech, he spoke directly to Gorbachev and told him that if Eastern Europe or the USSR were to have any chance of prosperity or reform, he must 'tear down this Wall'.</p> <p>This phrase prompted loud cheers from the crowds of West Berliners who had come to watch Reagan speak and it felt as though the USA were putting firm pressure on the USSR to relax its controls over Eastern Europe.</p> <p>Two years later the wall came down.</p>
Why did the Wall fall?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Gorbachev's 'new thinking' - Gorbachev had encouraged the leaders of Warsaw Pact countries to embrace his 'new thinking' and reform their own economies and introduce more freedoms. The leader of East Germany, Erich Honecker, did not want to introduce reforms and asked for Gorbachev's help to keep control. However, Gorbachev refused – showing he wasn't going to get involved in East German affairs. 2. Increased protests -- Protests in East Germany were growing in the late 1980s. On 4th November, the largest demonstration in East Germany's history took place in East Berlin, with over one million people. In demands that were similar to the others voiced throughout Eastern Europe, the protesters demanded free elections, freedom of the press, freedom to travel and an end to the secret police. <p>Events in Hungary -- On 2 May 1989, the Hungarian government opened its border with Austria. By the summer, more than 30,000 East Germans used the newly opened Hungarian border to cross from East into West Germany via Hungary and Austria. the numbers leaving East Germany reached over 100,000. The Berlin Wall had been built in 1961 precisely to prevent this mass movement of people. This showed that, by the summer of 1989, the Berlin Wall no longer served its purpose</p>
The significance	<p>The significance of the fall of the Berlin Wall -- For 28 years, the Berlin Wall had stood as a symbol of repressive, Communist control and the division of Europe. Therefore, its destruction in 1989 symbolised the opposite – that a new era had dawned where Soviet control had been dismantled and where states like Germany that were divided by Cold War differences, could now be reunited.</p>

The collapse of the Soviet Union

- Countries that were officially part of the USSR had seen the reforms of Warsaw Pact states and wanted independence too. In 1990, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania declared themselves independent which was accepted by Moscow in 1991
- Many hard-line communists in the USSR disapproved of Gorbachev and his reforms - on the 19th of August 1991, a group attempted a coup d'état. Gorbachev was able to keep power but it was clear he had lost his authority. He resigned on the 25th of December, 1991.
- After this, the Soviet Union was split into several countries. Now there was only one superpower left, the USA..

The end of the Warsaw Pact and Cold War

- In 1989, US President Bush had declared at the Malta Conference that the Cold War was over. However, at this point communism was still undefeated and the coup against Gorbachev could have restarted tensions between East and West.
- As soviet control of Eastern Europe fell away, it became obvious that the Warsaw Pact could not survive. After all, the **Warsaw Pact** was an alliance that united the communist states of Eastern Europe against capitalist states. If there were no communist states in Eastern Europe, it could not survive and **it formally ended in July 1991**
- With the **collapse of the USSR in December 1991** came **the end of the Cold War**. This finally **ended the rivalry between Communism in the East and Capitalism in the West**

PAPER 2

Early Elizabethan England 1558-1588



KEY TOPIC 1: QUEEN, GOVERNMENT AND RELIGION, 1558 -69

Key words:

Key term	Definition
Nobility	Belonging to the aristocracy – the highest class in Elizabethan society.
Accession	Becoming king or queen (gaining power)
Monarch	A King or Queen
Hierarchy	A system in which people or things are arranged/ranked according to their importance
Divine Right	The belief that the monarch's right to rule came from God
Legitimate	Being born whilst the reigning King and Queen were married.
Succession	The issue of who was going to succeed the throne after the existing monarch died.
Reformation	The Protestant movement that swept across Europe challenging the teachings of the Catholic Church.
Recusant	Catholics who were unwilling to attend church services set down by the Elizabethan religious settlement.
Vestments	Fancy, highly decorated robes worn by priests in the Catholic church
Crucifix	Symbol of Jesus on the cross
Clergy	Religious leaders such as bishops and priests.
Privy Council	A group of advisors who help the monarch govern.

Royal Court	The extended royal household including nobles, foreign visitors and servants.
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Who was Elizabeth I?	
Key facts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ruled from 1558 to 1603 à for 44 years. • Famous for never getting married à nicknamed the 'virgin queen'.
Family	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Father was Henry VIII • Mother was Anne Boleyn (2nd wife of Henry VIII – was beheaded) • Half-sister was Mary I – Mary I (bloody mary) was the queen directly before Elizabeth. • Cousin was Mary, Queen of Scots (MQS)
Character strengths	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She was very intelligent and had been very well educated. She understood how politics worked. She spoke Latin, Green, French and Italian. • Her tutor wrote about her: <i>'Her mind is free from female weakness and she is endued [blessed] with a masculine power for hard work. No memory is more retentive than hers.'</i> • She was confident and charismatic – she made great speeches and was able to win over her subjects.
Character weaknesses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She had a bad temper which people feared. • She took a long time to make up her mind on serious matters (slow to make decisions), and her Privy Council and advisers could find her extremely frustrating.

Elizabethan Society in 1558	
Society	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The structure of society in England was hierarchical. This meant that people had power and were ranked based on their importance. • Each group in society knew its place and obeyed those who were above them in the hierarchy. • One of the biggest determinants of your place in the hierarchy was how much land you owned. • The Monarch was at the top of the hierarchy, followed by the nobility (dukes, lords, ladies etc.) Below was the gentry (people who owned lots of land), yeomen (owned a small amount of land), tenant farmers (rented land from yeomen to farm), and the landless/labouring poor (didn't own or rent land, just worked on the land farming). • At the very bottom of the hierarchy were vagrants/vagabonds – these were homeless people without jobs. They often moved around begging for money and sometimes would steal or commit other crimes in order to survive. • The largest group in the hierarchy were the landless/labouring poor • 90% of England's population at this time lived in the countryside

Elizabethan Government		
What	Key features	Role
Royal Court	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lived in the same palace as Elizabeth Members of the nobility/ Elizabeth's key servants, advisors, and friends The Royal court was the centre of political power. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To entertain and advise Elizabeth
Privy Council	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Elizabeth's closest advisors There were 19 members They met at least 3 times a week. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To debate current issues and advise Elizabeth on government policy To make sure Elizabeth's final decisions were carried out To oversee law and order, local government, and the security of England Monitored the Justices of the Peace and Parliament
Parliament	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Was made up of the House of Commons (450 men – voted for by wealthy landowners) and the House of Lords (100 Lords, bishops and judges) Elizabeth was the only one who could call Parliament into session and dismiss them. She needed them to give her permission to use tax money. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To grant extraordinary taxation (occasional, additional taxation to pay for unexpected events, such as war) To pass laws

Elizabeth's Key Advisors	
Sir William Cecil – Secretary of State	Elizabeth appointed Cecil as the Secretary of State in 1558. He was her most important minister and guided her wisely for 40 years.
Robert Dudley – Earl of Leicester	A trusted adviser who was very close to Elizabeth. There were rumours that he and Elizabeth were lovers. After the Treaty of Nonsuch (1585), Elizabeth sent Robert Dudley to lead the army of 7,400 English troops in the Netherlands.
Sir Francis Walsingham	He was in charge of Elizabeth's secret service and advised her on foreign affairs. Walsingham became secretary of state of Queen Elizabeth in 1573. He is remembered as Elizabeth's 'spymaster' as he used spies to uncover plots against Elizabeth (Throckmorton and Babington plots).

Key problems Elizabeth faced at accession	
Legitimacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Being legitimate meant being born whilst the king and queen were married. Elizabeth's legitimacy was in doubt because her father (Henry VIII) had divorced his first wife Catherine of Aragon in order to marry Elizabeth's mother Anne Boleyn.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Catholics did not believe in divorce and the pope had not allowed Henry's divorce. Therefore, many Catholics in England viewed Elizabeth as illegitimate.
Gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most people thought a woman was too weak to rule the country alone. The Christian religion also taught that women should be under the authority of men. A female ruling alone would be seen as weak and vulnerable. Elizabeth's sister Mary I had been hated by many due to burning people at the stake, losing a war to France, leaving England in debt and marrying the King of Spain who was unpopular in England. Many felt they did not want another queen in charge.
Marriage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It was very unusual for a queen to rule alone without a husband at this time – Many people thought that Elizabeth should marry, however she had no intention of doing so. People wanted Elizabeth to produce an heir to the throne to ensure political stability. Many European kings and princes proposed marriage to Elizabeth, including Philip II of Spain. Some English noblemen also proposed. Elizabeth's problem was who to marry – if she married an English noble, this could create jealousy amongst other nobles. If she married a European monarch, they could be disliked by parliament and Elizabeth's subjects which would create issues for her (also, most of the European monarchs were Catholics).
Finances	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Monarchs were expected to pay for the costs of running England. If they needed more money, they had to call Parliament, but they didn't like to do this because it gave Parliament too much power and raising taxes was unpopular with the people. When Elizabeth became queen, she inherited a debt of £300,000. Costly wars fought when Mary I was Queen. Mary I had sold off Crown lands, making it hard for Elizabeth to raise money. Crown land was land owned by the monarchy that was rented out for income. Elizabeth spent over £100,000 at the start of her reign
Religion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> By the time Elizabeth became queen in 1558, England had been through many religious changes. Henry VIII had broken away from the Catholic Church when the pope wouldn't allow him a divorce. He created the Protestant Church of England. When Henry died his young son became King, he kept England Protestant, but he died at a young age. Then, Henry's first daughter, Mary I, became queen and turned England back into a Catholic country. When Mary died and Elizabeth became queen, she faced the issue of what to do about religion. She was protestant like her mother, but should she keep England Catholic or return to Protestantism Elizabeth I was a Protestant but many of her subjects and most of the clergy were Catholic. Changing the religion of a country required a new law. Catholic bishops often tried to prevent this. Geographical divisions - London and the south-east of England mainly believed in Protestantism whereas the north-west were Catholic.
Foreign threats: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> France, Spain and Scotland were all Catholic countries and believed Mary; Queen of Scots (Elizabeth's cousin) had a stronger claim to the throne of England than Elizabeth. 	
Scotland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> France and Scotland had recently created an alliance – the Auld Alliance Mary Queen of Scots (Elizabeth's cousin) had a claim to the English throne and she was also married to the French heir to the throne. Many people thought Mary was the legitimate queen. She was also a Catholic and so she was supported by the Catholics in England

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In 1558 there were French troops on the border between England and Scotland. This border was hard to defend which meant there was a lot of raids and fighting. Elizabeth had to worry about war with Scotland, her cousin Mary Queen of Scots replacing her, and potential war with France. Elizabeth's sister Mary I had lost the French port of Calais to the French in an unsuccessful war that England and Spain had fought against France. Elizabeth wanted to get the port of Calais back to demonstrate England's strength (it was also good for trade which meant good for her finances).
France	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> France was wealthier, had a larger population and an alliance with Scotland. Elizabeth wanted to regain control of Calais in France as the port had provided a military base in France and was an important trading post and had only recently been captured by the French
Spain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There were real concerns that Catholic France and Spain would unite against England and its Protestant queen.

The Reformation and the English Reformation

The Reformation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Religion was central to life in Europe in the 16th Century Until 1517, Catholicism was the dominant (main) religion in Western Europe The Reformation began in Europe because a growing number of people believed that the Roman Catholic Church had become corrupt and greedy and did not represent true Christian values anymore. These people believed the Catholic Church needed to be reformed or changed. This led to some people in Europe, known as Protestants, abandoning the Catholic faith and establishing their own Churches, without the pope (head of the Catholic Church).
The English Reformation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The English Reformation began in 1532, when Henry VIII created the Church of England (breaking away from the Catholic Church). One of the main reasons he broke away from the Catholic Church was because he wanted a divorce that the Pope would not allow him to have. Another reason was because he thought the Pope had too much control and he wanted complete control over England. Henry made himself head of the Church of England.

Differences between Protestantism and Catholicism:

Protestantism	Catholicism
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No pope Bible and church service in English Belief that people should have their own personal relationship with God Churches should be plainly decorated and be kept simple so as not to distract from worshipping God Priests are allowed to get married 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Pope is head of the Church Bible and church services in Latin Priests are special and wear special robes, known as vestments Churches should be highly decorated (ornate) in honour and glory of God Priests are not allowed to get married

Religious problems Elizabeth faced in 1588

Problems with the Clergy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most bishops were Catholic and wouldn't want to change religion.
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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many Catholic Bishops were involved in parliament. Parliament was needed to agree a change in religion and the Catholic bishops would try to resist this. • Elizabeth would have to replace the Catholic bishops if they disagreed with her
Geographical problems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the North of England was strongly Catholic • the South of England, especially in and around London was mostly Protestant
Problems with Puritans	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Radical Protestants were often referred to as Puritans because they wanted to 'purify' the Christian religion by getting rid of anything that wasn't in the Bible. • Puritans were openly very hostile towards the Catholic religion. If Elizabeth supported their extreme ideas, she would risk losing the support of many Catholics. • Puritans also wanted to run their own church which could be seen as a challenge to the Queens authority.
Problems with the people	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most historians believe that the majority of ordinary people still had preferences for Catholic traditions when Elizabeth became queen.
The queen's personal beliefs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elizabeth was a Protestant and disliked what she regarded as the superstition in the Catholic services. • However, she maintained a fondness for certain Catholic ideas. She liked priests to wear special clothes and enjoyed music, hymns and some decoration in the church.

The religious settlement (1559)

With all of the problems surrounding religion, Elizabeth wanted to find a compromise with her religious settlement that both Catholics and Protestants would accept. The religious settlement had two main parts.

The Act of Supremacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Made Elizabeth the Supreme governor of the Church of England (not the Supreme Head like Henry VIII had been – this title was still not acceptable for a woman) • All clergy and royal officials had to swear an oath of allegiance (loyalty) to Elizabeth as head of the church. If they refused 3 times, they could be executed. • England became officially Protestant again. Bishops were given the job of running the church.
The Act of Uniformity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This was an order that every church in England had to have the same appearance • Everyone had to attend church on a Sunday and other holy days or face paying a 1 shilling fine. This was large amount for a poor person but little for a noble. <i>Elizabeth turned a blind eye if fines were not collected.</i> • All churches had to have a common prayer book that was in English (the book of common prayer). • Priests should be allowed to wear special clothing (vestments) and there should be some decorations and statues in churches to keep the Catholics happy. • Priests were allowed to get married.

Success and impact of the religious settlement

Impact on the clergy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 8000 out of 10,000 priests took the oath of supremacy excepting the religious settlement. • However, only one Catholic Bishop out of 28 took the oath so they all had to be replaced.
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Impact on the people	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most ordinary people accepted Elizabeth's religious settlement. • The new prayer book helped this as the wording could be interpreted in different ways keeping both Catholics and Protestants happy. • Those who did not attend were called recusants (dedicated Catholics). • Some Protestants became violent in their enthusiasm for the changes in the Religious Settlement and destroyed Catholic statues of Saints.
Enforcing the religious settlement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elizabeth wanted a Protestant church that Catholics could accept. She did not want them to feel forced to choose between loyalty to their religion and their Queen – as long as people looked like they obeyed the rules in public, she didn't mind what they did in private. • Protestant bishops visited churches ensuring the settlement was followed. • The first visits to inspect the churches resulted in 400 members of the clergy being fired for not following the religious settlement.

Puritan challenges to the religious settlement

Puritans were very strict, radical Protestants. Puritans wanted the religious settlement to go further and to get rid of all Catholic traditions. Some Puritans began disobeying the religious settlement – the two biggest challenges were over crucifixes and clothing. The Puritan challenge was relatively small.

Crucifix controversy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The crucifix is the symbol of the cross that Jesus died on • Puritans did not like the crucifix as it was an unneeded object but Catholics did not want them to be removed. Elizabeth liked the image she ordered there to be a crucifix in every church. • Elizabeth gave into the Puritans as the Puritan bishops threatened to resign and she did couldn't replace them.
Vestment controversy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Puritans believed priest shouldn't wear fancy robes. (Vestments). Catholics believed priests should wear special robes. Elizabeth wanted all priests to wear Vestments • Elizabeth didn't back down • Book of Advertisements set out what priests wear • An exhibition was held in London to demonstrate what priest must wear – 37 refused to attend and lost their jobs
Reasons the Puritan challenge was weak	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of support -- Puritans were a small minority in Elizabethan society. Strict moral views, including hatred of entertainment (theatre + pubs), put them at odds with the majority of ordinary people. • They didn't have an alternative to Elizabeth – Puritans never called for Elizabeth to be removed as they didn't want to have a Catholic monarch such as Mary Queen of Scots • The Puritans were not united. The moderates only wanted slight changes to the Church but the extremists wanted to get rid of the Church of England completely.
Reasons the Puritan challenge was strong	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Level of education – Puritanism was strong in the universities and in London where literacy rates were higher. This was because puritans focused on studying the bible. • There were a surprising number of Puritans at the centre of Elizabeth's government, such as the Earl of Leicester and Francis Walsingham.

Catholic challenges to the religious settlement

- Catholics ran a **Counter-Reformation** campaign against Protestantism and in 1566 the Pope stated that Catholics should not attend Church of England services.
- **Elizabeth** chose to **ignore** these small acts of disobedience.
- One third of the nobility and many of the gentry were **recusants** and in November 1569 during the Revolt of the Northern Earls a full **Catholic mass** was held at Durham Cathedral.
- Despite growing support for Protestantism in Europe, Catholicism remained dominant. **Elizabeth was concerned** that the greatest Catholic power, **Spain**, wanted an alliance with France in order to **weaken Protestantism**.

The role of the Church of England in society

- The vast majority of people went to church at least once per week
- People's lives revolved around the church: baptism, marriage, death, and harvests were all major religious events
- The church ran schools and organised social
- Religion guided people's morals and behaviour

Mary, Queen of Scots

Mary, Queen of Scots claim to the throne	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Mary, Queen of Scots was Elizabeth's cousin.• Mary had claimed that Elizabeth was not the rightful Queen of England because her mother's marriage to Henry VIII had been illegal. In 1558 Mary had declared she was the rightful queen of England.• Mary had a strong claim to the English throne, and she was married to the French king, Francis II and lived in France with him.
MQS arrives in England	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• When Mary's husband Francis II (French King) had died, Mary returned to Scotland (1560). Although she was queen, the Protestants lords controlled most of Scotland.• Mary remarried in 1565 to a man called Lord Darnley. In 1567 Lord Darnley was murdered & Mary then married the main suspect in the murder the Earl of Bothwell in 1567.• Most people thought Mary was involved in her husband's murder and the Protestant Scottish Lords were furious and forced Mary to abdicate.• Mary fled to England begging Elizabeth to help her retake her Scottish throne• Mary's arrival in England in 1568 forced Elizabeth to consider her options.• Mary stayed in England in prison because Elizabeth could not decide what to do with her.<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Elizabeth believed in the divine right of monarchs, which meant she thought MQS was chosen by God to be a Queen and Elizabeth was going against God if she executed her (which is what she was being advised to do by her Privy Council).• Elizabeth also• In 1569 a plot was hatched that would see Mary marry the Duke of Norfolk. The plan was unveiled to Elizabeth which confirmed how dangerous Mary was even in prison.

TOPIC 2: CHALLENGES TO ELIZABETH AT HOME AND ABROAD

Keywords

Key term	Definition
Papacy	The government of the Catholic Church, ruled by the Pope.
Heretics	People who deny the teachings of the official religion.
Martyr	Someone who is killed for his or her beliefs, especially religious beliefs.
Excommunicated	A severe punishment, imposed by the Pope which expels people from the Catholic Church. They cannot take part in religious worship or receive church services and it is believed by Catholics that they will go to Hell.
Conspiracy	A secret plan with the aim of doing something against the law.
Papal Bull	A written order issued by the Pope.
Armada	A large group of armed ships that fight wars at sea
Circumnavigate	To sail all the way around something
Privateers	A person/ship allowed by a government to attack and steal from other ships at sea
Ambassador	Important officials who work in a foreign country representing their own country
New World	North, South and Central America

The Revolt of the Northern Earls, 1569

Who was involved in the Revolt?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Thomas Percy (Earl of Northumberland) – Catholic who had lost power Thomas Howard (Duke of Norfolk) – A protestant who was angry he had lost power Mary, Queen of Scots – plan was to put her on the throne
Why did the Northern Earls revolt?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> They wanted Catholicism to be restored in England They had lost power when Elizabeth became queen (Elizabeth had appointed 'new men' to advise her who she trusted more) Elizabeth had appointed a Protestant Archbishop of Durham (a major city in the north), which had turned northerners against her.
What happened during the revolt?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Initially the plotters wanted to get Mary Queen of Scots to marry the Protestant Northern Earl Thomas Howard. They believed that Elizabeth might then name Mary her heir as if they had a child it would be a future protestant king. However the plot developed and soon changed to overthrow Elizabeth and place Mary in charge (Spanish troops were going to help this happen) Elizabeth was tipped off about the plot and arrested Thomas Howard Mary, who Elizabeth had in captivity already, was moved further south so the plotters could not free her The Earls of Northumberland & Westmoreland pushed ahead with the plot to overthrow Elizabeth & managed to take over large parts of the north Elizabeth eventually crushed the rebellion as she had far more troops (14000) and the Spanish never came to help the rebels
What was the significance of the revolt?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It was the first and most serious Catholic rebellion against Elizabeth. As a result, treason laws became harsher. It also prompted Elizabeth to treat Catholics more harshly.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The revolt encouraged Pope Pius VI to excommunicate Elizabeth I in 1570. He said that all English Catholics did not owe Elizabeth their loyalty. • The Pope issued a papal bull (a written order) to all Catholics to get rid of Elizabeth.
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The Ridolfi Plot, 1571

Who was involved in the plot?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Roberto Ridolfi – Italian banker living in England acting as a spy for the Pope. 2. Spain had agreed to support and King Philip said he would send over 10,000 troops to help/invade England 3. The Duke of Norfolk agreed to lead the rebellion.
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What happened during the plot?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ridolfi arranged a plot to murder Elizabeth; the Spanish would then invade England and put MQS on the throne. • In 1571 – Ridolfi left England to discuss his ideas with the Pope and Philip of Spain. He was never able to return because Elizabeth’s government found out about the plot. • Sir William Cecil found out about the plot in 1571. • Duke of Norfolk was arrested and executed in 1572.
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What was the significance of the plot?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It showed that the Catholics were still a serious threat to Elizabeth • It showed the threat of Spain towards England.
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Consequences of the plot	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • After 1574, Catholics were smuggled into England to keep the Catholic faith alive. • The Catholics hid in ‘priest holes’ which were hiding places where they could not be discovered. • 1581 -- Recusants would now be fined £20 (huge amount of money) • 1581 – Law passed saying that anyone trying to convert someone to Catholicism would be executed for treason
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The Throckmorton Plot, 1583

Who was involved in the plot?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mary’s cousin the French Duke of Guise would invade and overthrow Elizabeth and replace her with Mary 2. Philip II of Spain would provide the finances & the Pope supported the plot 3. The Plot was named after the person delivering the messages between Mary and Duke of Guise. His name was Francis Throckmorton.
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What happened during the plot?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elizabeth’s Secretary of State and Spymaster Sir Francis Walsingham discovered the Plot and Throckmorton was arrested and executed.
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What was the significance of the plot?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It was clear that Mary Queen of Scots, the Pope and King Philip II of Spain were a continual threat to Elizabeth • Throckmorton had a list of names of Catholic sympathisers in Elizabeth’s court, helping Elizabeth to believe there was a big Catholic threat in England • Life was made even harder for Catholics as Elizabeth and Francis Walsingham spied on them even more. • About 11,000 Catholics were imprisoned, kept under surveillance, or under house arrest following the plot • Helping or hiding a Catholic was now punishable by death
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The Babington Plot, 1586

Who was involved in the plot?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Anthony Babington: An English Catholic with links to the French 2. The Duke of Guise: the plan was for the French Duke of Guise to invade England with 60,000 men and put MQS on the throne.
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	3. Both Philip II of Spain and the pope supported the plot.
What happened during the plot?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anthony Babington wrote to Mary, Queen of Scots about the plot. • The plot was discovered as Mary's mail was always checked. • It was found by Sir Francis Walsingham. • All involved were arrested. • Babington was arrested and executed
What was the significance of the plot?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mary had now been involved in too many plots against Elizabeth. The Privy Council put her on trial her and found her guilty of treason. • Mary was sentenced to death. Elizabeth did not sign the death warrant until 1587. Mary was executed on February 8th 1587. • The relationship between Spain and England had completely broken down, especially as Elizabeth was helping the Dutch Protestants against the Spanish. • Elizabeth became determined to crush the Catholic faith. There were mass arrests of recusants. 300 recusants in London alone and 31 priests were executed.

The execution of Mary, Queen of Scots

Why was Mary Queen of Scots executed?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mary had been involved in too many plots against Elizabeth – this was treason • If Mary escaped, she would be a threat against Elizabeth again • New Act of Parliament was passed in 1585 – The Act for the Preservation of the Queen's safety. The act said that action against MQS could be taken if there was proof she had plotted against Elizabeth.
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Declining relations between England and Spain

Political rivalry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elizabeth had refused to marry Philip II of Spain when she became queen. Philip was deeply disappointed as he had hoped that the marriage would ensure England remained Catholic and that he would control the country. Philip was also disappointed because he had hoped to bring England into an alliance against France • Spanish ambassadors became involved in several plots to remove Elizabeth. • Elizabeth had supported French protestant rebels which angered Philip further.
Commercial rivalry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spain controlled the Netherlands. This was the main route for England to trade with the rest of Europe. • Spain also controlled much of the New World where there were valuable trading opportunities. Anyone who wanted to trade in the New World needed permission from Spain. • English merchants ignored Spain's rules and traded illegally without licenses. • English merchants known as privateers were given permission by Elizabeth to attack Spanish ships in order to make a profit.
Religious rivalry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The massive religious differences between Spain and England became obvious with Elizabeth's Religious Settlement of 1559. • King Philip of Spain was a strong Catholic. He regarded Elizabeth's Protestant Church as a great evil. Philip thought it was his life's work to return countries to the Catholic faith.

<p>Sir Francis Drake</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An English privateer/pirate • Was the first Englishman to circumnavigate the globe in 1577 (sail all the way around). • Drake returned to England in 1580 with £400,000 of Spanish treasure which he had stolen. • He attacked 13 Spanish ships off the coast of Peru; most notably the Cacafuego – a Spanish treasure ship from which Drake captured £140,000 worth of cargo. • Drake claimed a region of California for Elizabeth, calling it New Albion. • When Drake returned to England, Elizabeth was so impressed that she knighted him publicly on the deck of his ship, called the Golden Hind. • Philip II was outraged by this public display of support for a pirate.
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Outbreak of war with Spain	
<p>The Dutch Revolt</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Spanish controlled the Netherlands. • Since the 1550s, the Dutch had been unhappy about Spanish interference in Dutch affairs. • The Dutch Revolt broke out in 1566 • In 1567, Philip sent the Duke of Alba with 10,000 men to crush the Dutch Revolt. • The Privy Council put pressure on Elizabeth to help the Dutch Protestants but Elizabeth did not want to directly help the Dutch Protestants by sending troops over as this might lead to war with Spain
<p>English involvement in the Netherlands</p>	<p>As Elizabeth wanted to avoid war, she was reluctant to help Dutch Protestant Rebels in the Netherlands. Instead, she unofficially helped the Dutch fight against the Spanish:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She allowed privateers to attack Spanish ships and land. • She pursued friendly relations with France (which would anger Spain). • She sent a loan of £100,000 to the Dutch Rebels.
<p>The Spanish Fury</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spain was bankrupt and not able to pay its army. The Spanish army rebelled against Spain in the Dutch city of Antwerp in 1567 and refused to fight. • This was known as the Spanish Fury (Fury means angry). • They used great violence and destroyed Dutch towns and cities in their anger.
<p>The Pacification of Ghent</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This was a list of demands put together by the Netherlands during the Spanish Fury. It demanded: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. All Spanish troops were to be sent away from the Netherlands 2. The Netherlands should be in control of its own government and not Spain 3. An end to religious persecution of the protestants (being attacked) • Elizabeth promised to help ensure the Pacification of Ghent was carried out. She agreed at some point in the future that she would send troops to the Netherlands. • Spain agreed to the Pacification of Ghent in 1577. • Peace only lasted for 6 months and Spain attacks the Netherlands again.
<p>The Treaty of Joinville - 1584</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Because Elizabeth had been hesitant about helping the Netherlands, the Dutch turned to France. The French Duke of Alencon went to the Netherlands with an army to fight the Spanish. • The Duke of Alencon died in 1584 and the King of France signed the Treaty of Joinville which brought France and Spain into an alliance against Protestantism. • The French were no longer helping the Dutch Rebels so Elizabeth had to send help or the Protestants would be defeated.

Treaty of Nonsuch - 1585	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elizabeth agreed to send an army of 7,400 troops to help the Dutch against the Spanish. • This effectively put England and Spain at war. • She put Robert Dudley, The Earl of Leicester in charge of English troops in the Netherlands. • Elizabeth also sent Sir Francis Drake to raid Spanish settlements in the New World in 1585, hoping it would reduce Spain's finances. This only angered Philip II, who told the Pope he intended to invade England at the end of 1585.
Sir Francis Drake and the raid on Cadiz	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In March 1587, Elizabeth ordered Drake to attack Spain's navy. • On 19 April Drake sailed to Cadiz (in Spain) and destroyed 30 ships. The attack is sometimes referred to as 'Singeing the King of Spain's beard.' • Drake then attacked the coast of Portugal and the Azores which delayed Spain's building of the Armada by a year

The Armada	
Spanish invasion plans	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In May 1588 Philip II launched the Spanish Armada because of religion, politics, circumstances and the aggravation caused by Drake and the Dutch rebels • 130 ships, 2,431 guns and around 30,000 men were under the command of the Duke of Medina-Sidonia. • Duke of Medina-Sidonia would sail from Spain to the Netherlands and would join forces with Duke of Parma who was waiting in the Netherlands • Together they would land in Kent and march to London • Elizabeth would be removed and a new Catholic government would be set up
Reasons for the English victory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • England's new ships, Galleons, were faster and easier to manoeuvre and were quicker to fire cannon balls. Fire ships were used effectively. The weather was favourable • The journey: the Spanish were delayed in setting sail because of the weather and Spanish ships had already been at sea for 10 weeks – they were tired and suffering. • The Spanish were not well supplied and what they did have was not well preserved. Food and drink was stored in poor quality wooden barrels – Francis Drake's raid on Cadiz had destroyed the fine quality barrels that were to be used and the Spanish had to make new ones very quickly. • Planning and communications between Medina-Sidonia (on the ships) and Parma (waiting in the Netherlands) was weak. • Elizabeth had appointed Lord Howard to lead the British Navy. He provided excellent leadership for the English fleet (as opposed to Medina-Sidonia – who lacked confidence). • At the Battle of Gravelines on 8th August 1588, the English defeated the Armada. • The Armada was defeated and scattered by the winds. • In fact, most of the destruction was done by really strong winds that wrecked Spanish ships as they tried to return home through the treacherous waters of the Scottish on Irish coasts. Thousands were killed on the journey back to Spain.
Consequences of the English victory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A great propaganda victory for Elizabeth– it made her look really strong to the rest of the world and to Spain. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Elizabeth took advantage of this and had a new portrait made that showed her looking powerful. • As the weather had massively helped England to defeat the Spanish, Elizabeth had the view that God was on the side of the Protestants and wanted them to win.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Spain and England remained at war for the duration of Elizabeth's rule. Philip did not give up fighting against Protestantism just because the Armada was defeated.
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TOPIC 3: ELIZABETHAN SOCIETY IN THE AGE OF EXPLORATION, 1558-88.

Key words:




Key term	Definition
Rural	Population of the countryside.
Arable farming	Growing crops on farm land.
Subsistence farming	Growing just enough to feed the family but not to sell.
Vagabonds	Homeless people without jobs, who roamed the countryside begging for money.
Recession	Falling prices and businesses losing money. This can lead to unemployment.
Astrolabe	An instrument used by sailors used to help them navigate the sea.
Quadrant	Similar to an astrolabe, it was used by sailors to help with navigation at sea.
Colonies	Lands under the control and influence of another country - occupied by people from that country.
Monopoly	When one person or company controls the supply of something. This means they can charge what they want for it.




Education	
What were Elizabethan attitudes towards education?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attitudes were beginning to change but still showed a divide between rich and poor. • Education was not about talent and ambition • Education WAS about helping a person prepare for the life they had been born into. There was no concept of social mobility (being able to change your position in society). • Most education would involve practical skills, maybe some literacy. • Only a small percentage of children, especially boys had any formal education
Education for children of the nobility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • learned a variety of subjects such as foreign languages, including Latin and Greek, History, Philosophy, Government and Theology • As Elizabeth I was highly educated in these subjects, many noble families ensured that their daughters were, too. • Girls of the nobility also learned a variety of skills expected for upper class women such as music, dancing, needlework, horse-riding and archery. • They were tutored at home, both girls and boys, but separately from the age of around 7. • Boys were taught to be skilled in horse riding and archery too, and also fencing, swimming, wrestling and other sports thought fitting only for men.
Grammar schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The greatest change in education in Elizabethan England was the development of grammar schools. • 42 grammar schools were founded in the 1560s, and 30 more in the 1570s. • As a result there were more schools in Elizabethan England than there had ever been before. (Before this, the church provided most education - this was minimal) • Grammar schools were private schools for smart boys who came from well-off families - the sons of middling sorts: the gentry, professionals, or wealthy business owners. Not for girls. • Families had to pay fees to send their sons to grammar schools but some lower class boys who were very clever did not have to pay fees. • The school year was very long with breaks only at Christmas and Easter.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School days were also very long - usually beginning at 6 or 7 a.m. and lasting for 10 hours.
Petty schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • These schools were set up and run in a teacher's home. Boys whose parents could afford to send them school sent them to petty schools first. If boys did well at petty schools and were very bright they would go on to grammar schools. • They would learn Reading and Writing in English and basic Arithmetic. • Punishment was very harsh at petty schools. Beating for poor behaviour or not doing well in lessons was common.
Dame schools and schools for girls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Girls of all classes did not often go to school. • Some girls went to dame schools - these provided basic education for girls. They were called 'dame' schools because they were often run by a local, educated woman. • Girls went from being under the control of their fathers to their husbands. They were not expected to support themselves. • Wives and mothers needed skills such as cooking and baking, as well as treating simple injuries and mixing herbal remedies.
Labourers and poor children	<p>Most Elizabethans, boys and girls, received no formal education as the majority of the population were farmers and labourers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They learned what they needed from their families, working at home or farming. • Many worked from an early age Their jobs did not need numeracy or literacy.
Universities	<p>For those who were able to go on to higher education, Elizabethan England had two universities: Oxford and Cambridge.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You would start university at the age of 14 or 15. <p>The curriculum included Geometry, Music, Astronomy, Philosophy, and Rhetoric (the art of public speaking and persuasion), as well as Medicine, Law, and Divinity.</p>

Leisure

Sports for the nobility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hunting on horseback, with hounds (dogs). Done by both men and women. • Hawking - hunting with hawks (birds). Done by both men and women. • Fishing. Done by both men and women. • Fencing. Done by just men. • Real tennis - a cross between modern tennis and squash, balls could bounce off the walls as long they did not go above a certain limit. Done by just men.
Sports for the working class: football	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Football was a game for lower class men. It was extremely violent, and men were sometimes killed during matches. • Football games could last for hours. • The aim of the game was to get the ball into the other sides goal. • There were no rules against picking up the ball and running with it or the number of players or the size of the pitch or even tripping up the opposing team's players.

Blood sports 	<p>Watching animals fight to the death was also considered entertainment and people of all classes would watch, even Elizabeth I. Often, large sums of money would be gambled on the outcomes.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bear baiting - During baiting, a bear would be chained to a post and dogs were unleashed to fight against it. The bear's teeth would be broken short so that they could not bite the dogs. Care was taken not to kill the bears as they were expensive, but many dogs were killed by the bears. This was incredibly popular to watch and special arenas were built in London. • Cock-fighting - Cockerels are aggressive birds and when cock-fighting were made to wear metal spurs to attack each other, as well as using their beaks. Many places, even small towns, had special arenas built for cock-fighting.
Theatre  	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Theatre became extremely popular during Elizabeth's reign. • Comedies and tragedies were popular. Theatre companies were set up, and big theatres were built especially for plays such as <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ The Red Lion - built in Whitechapel (London) in 1567 ○ The Rose - built in 1587 • Theatre was enjoyed by ALL classes. For one penny you could stand in 'the pit' very close to the stage. These members of the audience were called 'groundlings'. The wealthy paid a much higher entrance fee to sit in seat round the edge of the theatre. • Only men were allowed to act – women's parts would be played by men. • Sometimes there queues of 2,000 people waiting to see a performance. • The Queen did not go to the theatre, but she loved plays so much she created her own company of actors to put on plays at Court called 'The Queen's Men'. • Puritans disapproved of theatre as they thought it was immoral.

Why had poverty increased in Elizabethan England?	
Population growth and rising prices 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • England's population grew by 35%, especially in the towns and cities - These people in cities needed food • Food prices were higher in the cities as there was not enough land to grow much food. • Poor harvests also meant less food and higher prices – grain prices specifically grew which made bread very expensive • Wages did not rise quick enough, and landowners were charging higher rents due to rising prices à affected landless labouring poor and tenant farmers the most who had to pay rents
Increase in sheep farming 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • English wool was England's biggest export & was very profitable • As the price of wool increased and there was more profit to be made from it, sheep farming took over crop farming so there was less food. • Sheep farming needed fewer workers, so some were unemployed. • Some crops were only grown for sheep to eat taking up more land (even less land to grow food).
Enclosure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enclosure meant that fields were broken up into smaller and more efficient areas. • The landowners and farmers actually became richer, but this meant they charged more for their food and land. (= the poor get poorer/more people become unemployed) • Better ways of farming led to less need for farmers. • When land was broken up sometimes individual farmers lost land and so would do without.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Common land was often enclosed and no longer free for everyone to use. This stopped subsistence farming where people grew crops there to survive
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Changing attitudes and policies towards the poor

Basic facts about the poor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The poor were defined as those who spent 80% of their wages or more on 'bread'. 40% of the poor were under 16 years old • The poor could get poor relief (= money to help them – paid for through taxes). Many richer people gave to charity to help the poor. • People were sympathetic towards those who were ill and could not work (impotent) but believed many were too idle (lazy) to work. • Many more poor people in towns and cities • Vagabonds (Beggars) were severely punished by whipping and being put in prison.
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Why did attitudes and laws towards the poor change?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People were worried that vagrants and vagabonds would cause more problems (e.g. spread disease, commit crimes and cause revolts) • The government thought unemployment would be bad for the economy
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What was done to help the poor?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 1568, Statute of Artifices <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To make sure poor relief was collected • If it wasn't paid there would be prison • Officials were punished if they did not enforce the poor relief payment 2. 1572, Vagabonds Act <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vagrants to be whipped and a hole drilled through their ear. • Vagrants given the death penalty if they were caught begging 3 times. • There should be a register of the poor v Towns had to find work for the poor. 3. 1576, Poor Relief Act <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To tell the difference between the able poor and those who were faking their illness. • Able bodied poor were given wool and raw materials to make things to sell • Those who refused to work were sent to a special prison known as a House of Correction.
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What was the impact of the poor laws?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poverty continued • More people appeared in towns for work • Less than 10% of vagrants were punished in some towns as people were sympathetic to them. • Many vagrants were sent back to the countryside from the towns. • It did prove that unemployment was a problem and people were not just being lazy. • The Poor Relief Act gave a way for the poor to make something to earn money
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Exploration and discovery in Elizabethan England

Why did Elizabethans want to explore	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expanding trade -- traders and merchants needed to look for new opportunities as conflict with Spain ruled out some areas • The Triangular Trade – Africa had already been discovered and it was hoped that it could lead to further opportunities for trade. John Hawkins was a famous navigator and explorer who played a large role in the beginning of the slave trade.
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<p>New technology</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Navigation was becoming more accurate, and sailing was becoming safer. Mathematical ways of navigation were more reliable. • Quadrants and astrolabes could calculate a ship's position. • Maps -- Longitude and latitude were created on maps to make sure sailors all followed the same directions. Printing maps made them all the same. • Ships -- Galleons were much bigger and could carry a bigger cargo for longer journeys. Improved sails and faster and more manoeuvrable galleons with better fire power.
<p>Significance of Drake's circumnavigation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It showed England as a great sea-faring nation • It showed great courage – he only returned back with 1 ship 'The Golden Hind' and 56 men. They were only the second crew in History to achieve this. • It boosted English morale and It encouraged more exploration • Claiming of Nova Albion helped to encouraged further colonisation of America.

<p>Sir Walter Raleigh and the colonisation of Virginia</p>	
<p>Who was Sir Walter Raleigh?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He was from the gentry and became an explorer, writer and historian • He made tobacco smoking popular in England Elizabeth I gave him money to explore land in North America • Raleigh investigated and organised the funds needed to establish an English colony in Virginia (Roanoke).
<p>Attempts at colonisation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elizabeth granted Raleigh permission to colonise Virginia in 1584 • Colonising Virginia was hoped to aid trade and provide economic benefits as tobacco and sugar cane were harvested and it also provided England with a base from which to attack Spanish colonies in the New World. • The first settlement of Virginia in 1585 involved over 100 men (Raleigh had wanted to send over 300) • After the first attempt failed and all the settlers returned, a second group was sent to Virginia in 1587.
<p>Why did Raleigh's attempts fail?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The first journey out to Virginia was a failure as the colonists had left England too late to plant any crops. The colonists were not able to produce enough food. • The colonist's expectations were not met when they reached Virginia and realised they had to put in the necessary groundwork to make a profit such a working the land or building homes. • The colonist's inexperience led to them relying on the Native Americans for help. The chief of Roanoke (Wingina) turned against the English settlers. Wingina believed the English had supernatural powers from their God and would try and destroy the Indians, this was based on the deaths of Indians with no physical contact from the English (European illnesses they'd never seen before).



Paper 3: Weimar and Nazi Germany 1919-39



TOPIC 1: THE WEIMAR REPUBLIC 1918-29

Term	Definition
Armistice	An agreement between two countries to stop fighting/ end a war.
Dolchstoß	The belief that the German army had been betrayed by people in Germany, especially those who had signed the Armistice in November 1918 even though the army was still capable of fighting – they believed the army had been ‘stabbed in the back’.
Diktat	An agreement forced on someone.
Reparations	The compensation which the Allies made Germany pay at the end of the First World War, because they said Germany caused the war. It totalled £6.6 billion.
Coalition	Several political parties, agreeing to work together.
Constitution	The rules which say how a country should be governed and how power will be shared.
Proportional Representation	An electoral system in which a party is given a number of MPs (representatives) in direct proportion to the total number of votes for that party.
President	The head of state in the Weimar Republic.
Reichstag	German parliament.
Democratic	Controlled by the people.
Depression	A downturn in trade. Less is brought and sold; this causes falls in profits, more bankrupt businesses and more unemployment.
Freikorps	Right-wing ex-soldiers used by the government of the Weimar Republic as a military force to control violence especially from left-wing political groups.
Inflation	Rising prices - it means that money buys less and is therefore worth less.
Hyperinflation	Extreme inflation where prices rise extremely quickly and money loses nearly all its value.
Rentmark	The new currency set up by Stresemann in 1923 to solve the problem of hyperinflation. This bank note was printed in limited supply so it had real value. It meant that after 1923, German money was trusted at home and abroad.
Putsch	An attempt to remove or reinstate the leader of a country or district using force.

Germany and World War I

Key WW1 facts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lasted from 1914 to 1918
How was Germany affected by the war?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2 million German soldiers died in the war • German government's debts (money they owed) had tripled between 1914 to 1918, from 50 billion marks to 150 billion marks. • Over 750,000 Germans died because of food shortages during the war. • 500,000 women were left as widows (left without a husband) and 1 million children became orphans (without parents). • Germany was very weak in 1918, before the war had ended.
The German Revolution and abdication of the Kaiser	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • German soldiers were unhappy with how the war was being fought and they mutinied → stopped following orders of Kaiser Wilhelm II (German King). • The people also went on strike (refused to work) and rioted against the government. • These actions were known as the German Revolution. • Kaiser Wilhelm was forced to abdicate (give up the throne) and flee the country on the 9th of November 1918. 
The end of World War I (the armistice)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The day after the Kaiser abdicated, on the 10th of November, power was given to Friedrich Ebert from the Social Democrat party (SPD), he becomes Chancellor of the new government called the Weimar Republic. Germany was now a democracy for the first time in its history. • On the 11th of November 1918, the day after Ebert became the new leader, the armistice was signed. An armistice is a formal agreement to stop fighting between countries who are at war. This was the first major decision of the new government – to surrender and bring World War I to an end. 





The new Weimar government

The Weimar Constitution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Weimar Constitution was written in 1919 – set up how to government would work. • The President was head of state, and the chancellor was head of the government. • All men and women over the age of 20 could vote. • People voted for a president and then the president chose the chancellor. • The parliament was called the Reichstag – members of the Reichstag were also voted for by the people. Members of the Reichstag made laws and controlled how much tax people had to pay.
Strengths of Weimar Constitution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It made Germany the most advanced democracy in Europe – men and women had the right to vote from the age of 20. At the same time, in Britain, only men over 21 and women over 30 had the right to vote. • It established the right of free speech and freedom of religious belief.
Weaknesses of the Constitution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Article 48 of the constitution said that in an emergency the President could make laws without going to the Reichstag (parliament). This gave the President too much power. • Proportional representation meant that every political party received the same percentage of seats in parliament as the percentage of votes they got in the election. E.g 33% of votes = 33% of the seats in parliament. There were 421 seats in total. This led to lots of smaller political parties = no one party was large enough to secure the majority of seats in the this led to coalitions, which is when two or more parties join to form a government when no single party wins enough seats in the parliament to be able to pass laws. Coalition governments were often weak and short lived.
Why was the new Weimar Government unpopular from the start?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The new Weimar politicians who signed the armistice were called the November criminals – Germans were unhappy that they had surrendered.



The Treaty of Versailles

- Official peace treaty of World War I
- The treaty was called a '**diktat**' by the Germans, meaning the terms or points of the treaty were imposed on Germany, not agreed by Germany. It was a dictated peace.
- Key terms of the treaty = LAMB (Land, Army, Money, Blame)



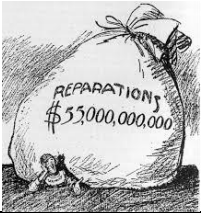
Land	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In total, Germany lost 13% of its land and 10% of its population (6 million Germans). Germany's overseas empire was taken away and given to Britain and France. They lost 11 colonies. Germany lost important land where coal and iron and coal were produced. This land was worth a lot of money. They lost 48% all their coal production. Germany also lost the area Alsace-Lorraine, which was returned to France.
Army	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Army limited to 100,000 soldiers. Army not allowed to have tanks. The navy was limited to 6 battleships. Submarines were completely banned. The German air force was banned. The Rhineland (German land on the border with France) was demilitarized – no soldiers were allowed there. 
Money 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Germany had to pay reparations of £6.6 billion to Britain, France and Belgium as compensation for the war.
Blame 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Germany had to accept full blame for starting the war. This was called Article 231 – the War Guilt Clause. They were not allowed to join the League of Nations. This was the organisation set up at the end of the war to keep peace.
Dolchschoß – the stab in the back theory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The treaty was extremely embarrassing for the German people, and they wanted someone to blame. They believed that they had not been defeated in the war and that the German politicians had betrayed them (the November Criminals). Soldiers returned home and spread the myth that Germany could have won the war if politicians like Ebert had not 'stabbed Germany in the back'. This is called the 'stab in the back theory' or Dolchstoß. Many Germans also blamed a Jews and communists. The Weimar Government became very unpopular amongst soldiers, the middle class and right-wing groups like the Nazis. Many people believe that Weimar Government politicians had 'stabbed Germany in the back' by ending the war. They were also to blame for Germany's problems because they signed the Treaty of Versailles.

Political challenges to the Weimar Republic

Spartacist Revolt 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Spartacists led a communist revolution in Berlin in 1919. The revolt was led by the Rosa Luxemburg (Red Rosa) and Karl Liebknecht The government ended the revolt violently using the Freikorps (anti-communist private armies formed after WWI by ex-soldiers). The government was able to solve the Spartacist problem but looked weak as it had to rely on the Freikorps. 
Kapp Putsch	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Kapp Putsch was a right-wing revolt which attempted to get the Kaiser back in power –led by Wolfgang Kapp in March 1920. The army refused to help the government fight the Putsch and the Freikorps supported Kapp, so the Weimar government had to use the people to end the revolt. All workers went on strike. This meant that the revolt failed but again the government looked weak as it was unable to solve the problem by itself.
General problems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Frequent strikes and protests going on from 1919-1923. People unhappy with the Treaty of Versailles, the new government, economic problems etc

Economic challenges to the Weimar Republic

The French occupation of the Ruhr



- **The French occupied (took over) the Ruhr land in Germany in 1923** because Germany was late in making reparations payments.
- On the 11th of January, **60,000 French and Belgian troops** marched into the Ruhr. They took control of all **mines, factories and railways**.
- The Ruhr was the area where most of Germany's factories were located. The French took raw materials, industrial machinery and manufactured goods instead of cash payments.
- The German workers went on strike to protest the French occupation of the Ruhr, but the Weimar government kept paying them their wages. This made Germany's economic problems worse.

Hyperinflation



- Hyperinflation = **German money became worthless**.
- With the high reparations payments and the French taking over Germany's most valuable land, **the Weimar government had no money** and had to start **printing more money** to pay the workers who had gone on strike. This led to hyperinflation.
- A loaf of bread in 1919 cost 1 mark; in 1922 it cost 200 marks; and in 1923 it cost 100,000 marks. By November 1923, it cost 200,000 million marks.
- Prices went up so fast that workers had to rush into shops after being paid, as **prices went up by the hour**. Some workers were **paid twice a day**, so they could rush out and buy goods before prices rose even further.
- Children played with the worthless money as toys. People would carry their wages home in wheelbarrows.
- People with savings were hit the hardest – those with money in bank accounts or **pensions**. Their saved money became worthless. The middle classes were the worst affected.
- Many workers became unemployed. This made the government even more unpopular. On the other hand, people with loans found they could pay them off very easily.



Economic recovery

Gustav Stresemann



- Became chancellor in 1923
- He solved Germany's economic problems by negotiating the French withdrawal from the Ruhr and the Dawes Plan (1924) which cut reparations. He dealt with inflation by replacing the mark with a new temporary currency, the **Rentenmark** in 1923. He also set up a new state-owned bank called the Rentenbank.



The Dawes Plan





- Was agreed by Stresemann and the US vice president Charles Dawes
- It meant Germany only needed to pay reparations as it could afford them and gave Germany longer to pay.
- Payments began at 1 billion marks for the first year and increased over a period of four years to 2.5 billion marks a year.
- **US banks agreed to loan money to Germany**. 800 million at first. Over 6 years, \$3 billion was given. This was used to build railways roads and factories to boost Germany's economy.

The Young Plan


- In 1929 Germany negotiated further changes to reparations known as the **Young Plan**, named after an American banker (Owen Young).
- **A timescale for reparations payments was set, with Germany making payments until 1988 (an extra 60 years to pay).**
- **The total amount they had to pay was reduced from £6 billion to £1.85 billion.**

Political recovery






<p>The Locarno Pact</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In December 1925, Stresemann signed the Locarno Pact. This was a treaty between Germany, Britain, France, Italy, and Belgium. Unlike the Treaty of Versailles, it was agreed by Germany on equal terms with the other countries – it was not forced on Germany like the Treaty of Versailles Germany accepted the new 1919 border with France, and in return France promised peace with Germany. The Locarno Pact was a success in Stresemann’s view because it made another war in Europe less likely and Germany was finally being treated as an equal. Stresemann won the Nobel Peace Prize in 1926 for negotiating the treaty.
<p>The League of Nations</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In 1925, Germany was allowed to join the League of Nations. This was important as it increased Germany’s international respect and made them a ‘great power’ in the world again.
<p>The Kellogg-Briand Pact, 1928</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Kellogg-Briand Pact was signed by Germany and 64 other countries around the world. The countries agreed that they would try and solve all disagreements in the future in peaceful ways. They were agreeing to avoid going to war in the future. This pact showed an improved relationship between Germany and other countries in the world, like the USA

Changes in the standard of living

The standard of living means how much money and comfort people have. This started to improve after 1924.

<p>Wages and employment</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Wages increased every year from 1924. By 1928, German workers were some of the best paid in Europe. On average, the length of the working week was shortened. However, many of the middleclass did not experience a rise in wages and unemployment was high in professions such as lawyers and teachers. There was a gradual improvement in employment. 	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th colspan="2">Unemployment</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1926</td> <td>2 million</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1928</td> <td>1.3 million</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Unemployment		1926	2 million	1928	1.3 million
Unemployment								
1926	2 million							
1928	1.3 million							
<p>Housing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Weimar government attempted to deal with a critical shortage of housing. Between 1924 and 1931 more than 2 million new homes were built By 1928, homelessness had been reduced by more than 60%. 							

Social and cultural changes in Weimar Germany

<p>Women</p>  	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Women in Germany in the 1920s had more freedoms than before to have jobs, go out by themselves, and to involved in politics. People on the right-wing, however, did not like that woman had more freedoms and believed their primary role should be to have a family. By 1926, there were 32 women in the Reichstag (German parliament) There were a growing number of women working in new jobs such as teaching and social work or work in shops. By 1933 there were 100,000 women working as teachers and 3,000 women doctors. Women who were doing the same jobs as men were paid on average 33% less than men. Younger, unmarried women living in cities enjoyed much more freedom than they had before. Many of these women were known as ‘new women’. They had more independence than before. They bought more clothes, went out more, wore more makeup, cut their hair short, drank and smoked in public, and weren’t as bothered about getting married and having a family. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The birth rate was falling in the 1920s (women were having fewer babies). The divorce rate was rising in the 1920s.
<p>Culture</p>   	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Germany’s culture (way of life) began to change in the 1920s. People experimented with new styles of art, architecture, and cinema. Germany became a cultural capital of Europe. Cinema – The 1920s was the golden age for German cinema. The best-known film of the era was Metropolis which was very technically advanced. Art – In art, painters like Otto Dix painted scenes from German life which were very realistic critical of German society. Architecture – new style called Bauhaus. Use of bold designs, unusual materials with basic colours. They designed new buildings and furniture.

But then....

After all these improvements, Germany faced another crisis in 1929: The Wall Street Crash. This set off a global economic depression and many people in Germany were once again poor, unemployed, and hungry.

TOPIC 2: HITLER AND THE GROWTH OF THE NAZI PARTY

Term	Definition
Right-wing	Those on the right wing of politics generally want to keep society stable; want a strong government dominated by powerful leaders. Those on right usually support capitalism and stress the importance of law and order and traditional family values.
Night of the Long Knives	This involved the assignation of Hitler's political rivals within the Nazi Party - including Ernst Rohm of the SA. It resulted in Hitler becoming the undisputed leader of Germany.
Schutzstaffel/SS	The SS, a military group set up in 1925 as a personal bodyguard for Hitler.
State of Emergency	A crisis so great that the normal rules of governing are suspended and the rulers are given extra powers to allow strong government.
Enabling Act 1933	This changed the constitution of the Weimar Republic. It gave Hitler the right to make laws for four years without the consent of the Reichstag.

Hitler's early life and WW1

- Hitler was born in **Austria (not in Germany!)** in 1889.
- He moved to Vienna (the capital city of Austria) at 16 to try and become an artist. He failed and became homeless between the years of 1908 and 1913. It was during this hard time he developed his hatred of Jews.
- He moved to Germany in 1913 and then became a soldier in World War I. He received a prize for his efforts during the war called the **Iron Cross**.
- He found it hard to accept that the war had ended in 1918 and that Germany had lost. He blamed the Weimar Republic for Germany's defeat (dolschoss).
- At the end of the war, in 1918, Hitler was recovering from a gas injury at a hospital in Munich. When he was released from the hospital in Munich, he attended meetings of a new political party called the **German Worker's Party (DAP)**.



Hitler joins the German Workers Party (DAP)

- The German Worker's Party (DAP) was set up by **Anton Drexler** in **1919** in **Munich**. At first it was only a small group of 50 members.
- The DAP were **nationalists** (believed Germany should be made stronger) and **socialists** (believed the wealth in Germany should belong to the workers)
- The DAP also hated the Weimar Republic, Treaty of Versailles, and Jews who they blamed for Germany's problems.
- **Hitler joined the DAP in 1919.**
- In **1920**, the party was renamed the **National Socialist German Workers' Party (NSDAP or Nazi Party** for short).
- **Hitler helped the DAP grow.** He created the **25-point programme**. This included scrapping the Versailles treaty, expanding Germany and forcing the Jews to leave. By 1920 membership was up to 3000





The 25 Point Programme

This was the set of plans and aims – what the Nazi Party planned to do if they were in charge of Germany. Some of the points were:

- Everybody should have a job
- Build up Germany's army
- Expand German land
- Only German races allowed to members of the nation – no Jews and other non-Germans must leave

The early Nazi Party

<p>Organisation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The NSDAP set up a permanent office in Munich. This was a big city in Southern Germany. Hitler also chose a swastika symbol as the symbol of the Nazi party. They bought two newspapers (called the 'People's Observer' and Der Sturmer 'the stormer'). This allowed the Nazis message to spread across Germany. When Hitler became leader of the Nazis, he carefully selected other party leaders for their skills to help the Nazi image. These leaders included: Ernst Rohm (SA leader) and Rudolf Hess (Hitler's deputy) 	
<p>Hitler's personal appeal</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hitler was very skilled as an orator (public speaker). This helped to increase support for the Nazi party. As he was such an energetic and passionate speaker, membership of the Nazi party grew to 3000 by 1920. 	
<p>The role of the SA (Sturmabteilung)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Set up in 1921 and led by Ernst Rohm, was the Nazi private army. They wore brown uniforms and were called Brownshirts. They helped the party grow by scaring rivals, protecting Nazi leaders and disrupting rival meetings. They were intimidating to Hitler's opponents. They controlled the crowds at meetings of the Nazi Party by using violence 	
<p>Hitler gains complete control</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In January 1922, Hitler persuaded the members of the Nazi party to give up the right to elect their leader. He now had complete control of the Nazi Party and could not be challenged by another person being elected as leader. This was known as the Fuhrerprinzip. Hitler was the Fuhrer (leader) of the party and had complete control and authority over everything. The NSDAP was his party. Under Hitler's complete control, the party kept growing. It grew from 1,100 members in June 1920 to about 55,000 in November 1923. 	


The Munich Putsch 1923

<p>Causes</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hitler knew people were annoyed about hyperinflation and the French occupation of the Ruhr. He thought he could convince people to support him. He wanted to act before Stresemann improved the economy, as when people are happy, they don't vote for extreme parties.
<p>Events</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hitler and 600 SA ran into a meeting of the Bavarian government at a beer hall and forced them to agree to a Nazi takeover. They only said yes because the Nazis held them at gun point. When Hitler left, they changed their mind and called out the local police and army. The Nazis tried to take over the city; but the police were much stronger. 16 Nazis were killed, and Hitler was captured.
<p>Results and consequences</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Munich Putsch failed. The Nazis were too weak: They only had 2000 rifles and they were outnumbered by the Police. Hitler was given 5 years in prison. But at his trial he made lots of speeches and became famous in Germany. He used his time on prison to write his book, Mein Kampf (My Struggle) – which also gave him publicity – and he was released after only 9 months The Nazi party was also banned but the ban was lifted in 1925 After the Putsch, Hitler realised he needed a new strategy – violence would not work, the Nazis must get to power democratically. The Nazis must now win public support to get voted into power

The lean years of the Nazi Party 1924-1929

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Munich Putsch was a political disaster for the Nazi Party - 16 Nazis were killed, the putsch was not supported, Hitler was imprisoned, and the Nazi party was banned. However, Hitler used his time to collect his thoughts in Mein Kampf and plan the reorganisation of the Nazi Party. The years after he was released from prison are known as the lean years –Nazi Party membership was growing but they weren't getting votes in the elections On 27th Feb 1925, Hitler re-launched the Nazi party at Munich Beer Hall where the Munich Putsch failed. 4000 people came to hear him speak. Once the Nazi Party was re-launched, Hitler began to take control once more and began to make changes to the Nazi party and its structure
Re-organisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nazi Party organisation was improved after 1923. Hitler got more money for the party, employed more SA and started the SS. The Nazi party was growing. By 1929, the Nazi party had over 100,000 members.
The Bamberg Conference	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> At the 1926 Bamberg Conference, Hitler strengthened his position. He beat Josef Goebbels and others who challenged him for leadership of the party. Ernst Rohm was removed as leader of the SA as he was seen as a threat Hitler also set up the SS (Schutzstaffel or protection squad). These were selected members who worked as Hitler's personal bodyguards.
Growing support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Goebbels was put in charge of propaganda. He and Hitler believed that the best way to get the support of the masses was by appealing to peoples their feelings. The Nazis targeted wealthy businessmen, farmers, women, soldiers and anyone who hated the Weimar Republic, the Treaty of Versailles and Jews. Promises were made to all groups They waged a propaganda campaign using posters, leaflets, radio and film, and organised rallies.
Lack of success	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Nazis remained weak in the Reichstag however. By 1928 they had only 12 seats. In 1928, the Nazis only got 3% of the votes, they were the 7th biggest party in the Reichstag. This was because Stresseman had made things much better. Also, Hindenburg, a popular ex-army leader was elected president in 1925.

How did Hitler become Chancellor in 1933?

<p>1. The Great Depression</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In October 1929, Wall Street in America crashed. US banks lost billions of dollars, businesses and banks shut down causing a world-wide depression which spread to Germany. The US stopped lending money to Germany and demanded all the loans be repaid. This caused serious problems within Germany. 6 million people became unemployed by 1932. People lost their homes and were desperate. The government could not cope. They tried raising taxes and banning protests. Both failed. This boosted support for extremist parties: by September 1930, the Nazis had 107 Reichstag seats. The depression caused more hatred towards the Weimar Republic
<p>2. The weaknesses of the Weimar Republic</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Many people hated the Weimar Republic, and they never forgave them for the loss of WW1, the 'stab in the back', the Treaty of Versailles and the Depression which they failed to fix. Between 1919-1933, there were 20 different coalition government who constantly fell out, this meant nothing got done so President Hindenburg had to keep using Article 48 to pass every law. This made the Weimar Republic look weak and useless. This helped increase votes for the Nazis as Hitler who promised a strong government like they previous had in the Weimar Republic.
<p>3. The organisation of the Nazis and the role of Hitler</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Nazis were very organised, they set up Nazi offices all over Germany to recruit more voters and got financial support from wealthy businessmen. They set up groups like the Hitler Youth to reach the young of Germany. The SA made the Nazis seem organised, disciplined and reliable. In a time of the depression, they looked strong. The role of Hitler – Hitler was shown as the strong, decisive leader that Germany needed. He was a veteran, worker and appealed to all Germans. German propaganda called Hitler 'our last hope' <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hitler was an excellent orator (speaker) who drew large crowds, he would fly around 6 cities a day, delivering simple but powerful speeches. In the 1932 Presidential election, Hitler received 11 million votes (30%) which highlighted how the people saw Hitler as a future leader of Germany. Propaganda – Josef Goebbels used modern technology such as radios, films, and loudspeakers alongside posters and leaflets. They owned 140 newspapers! They had simple messages like 'One





	<p>People, One Nation, One Leader' Propaganda targeted specific groups: workers, farmers and businessmen. Goebbels was able to make sure the Nazi message was heard everywhere, locally and nationally. The message was 'unity', bringing Germany together again</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promises – The Nazis promised something to everyone. Hitler promised to make Germany great again by restoring law and order, destroying communism, abolishing the Treaty of Versailles and fixing the depression. He also attacked the Weimar government and blamed Jews for the problems. Specific groups were targeted with propaganda – the working class was promised 'work and bread'
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Hitler becomes Chancellor in 1933

- **May 1932:** Chancellor Brüning resigns after losing support, so Hindenburg makes Franz von Papen chancellor
- **July 1932:** The Nazis get their most votes, 240 seats (38%). However, Hindenburg refuses to make Hitler Chancellor as he despises him, calling him a 'jumped up corporal'
- **November 1932:** Von Papen loses support and quits as Chancellor. The Nazis drop to 196 votes in the election, but are still the largest party.
- **December 1932:** Another politician, Von Schleicher is persuaded to become Chancellor, but he has no power or support in the Reichstag. Von Papen persuades Hindenburg to sack Schleicher. They foolishly think they can make Hitler Chancellor whilst controlling him .
- **January 1933:** On 30th January 1933, Hitler is appointed Chancellor of Germany. The Nazis have got into power legally and democratically

TOPIC 3: THE NAZI DICTATORSHIP 1933-39








How did Hitler become Dictator in 1934?

<p>1. The Reichstag Fire, 27th Feb 1933</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> On February 27th 1933, the Reichstag (German parliament) was burnt down and a communist Van Der Lubbe was arrested at the scene (There are rumours the Nazis did it.) As Hitler had been warning of a communist plot to overthrow the government, the fire was the 'proof' he needed to show that communists want to destroy Germany. Hitler made President Hindenburg think the Communists were going to take over and declared a state of Emergency. Hitler also persuaded Hindenburg to sign 'The Reichstag Decree'. The laws allowed the Nazi controlled police to arrest anyone suspected of opposing the government, ban meetings, close newspapers and hold people without trial. Hitler banned the Communists from the Reichstag by using Article 48. Hitler now had very little opposition.
<p>2. The Enabling Act, 1933</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Act said Hitler could make any laws he wanted without the approval of the Reichstag. He got this extra power for 4 years. In the end it lasted until 1945. He immediately begins to use these powers to gain more control over Germany. May 1933, Trade Unions banned --The banning of Trade Unions removed workers' rights and brings them under his control. July 1933, Political parties banned – Hitler bans all political parties except the Nazis, the leaders of the other parties are imprisoned. This gives Hitler total control. Democracy is over April 1933, People's Courts – Hitler sets up the 'People's Courts' to give him control over the justice system and laws. Judges are made to swear an oath of loyalty to Hitler. 
<p>3. The Night of the Long Knives</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hitler started to fear threats in his own party from the SA (Brownshirts) The SA were force of 3 million men led by Ernst Rohm. Rohm disagreed with some of Hitler's policies. The size of the SA made Röhm really powerful and made Hitler feel scared. The SA were totally loyal to Röhm which posed a possible threat to Hitler's control of the Nazi party. In 1934, after encouragement from the Army and SS, Hitler orders the arrest of SA 'traitors' On the night of 30th June 1934 (the Night of the Long Knives), the SS arrest 400 SA leaders, some are imprisoned, and others are executed including Ernst Rohm. Hitler also used the opportunity to get rid of other threats, such as ex-chancellor Von Papen. Hitler had now removed all threats within his party.
<p>4. The death of Hindenburg</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> On 2nd August 1934, President Hindenburg die. Within hours, Hitler combines the role of President with Chancellor to create a new title 'Fuhrer of the Third Reich'. He also forced the army to swear an unconditional oath of loyalty and obedience to him. This brings them under Hitler's control. Hitler is now the complete ruler/dictator of Germany.


The Nazi Police State

The Nazis used a number of ways to control the German population, one of these was the Police State. This meant the Nazis used the police (secret and regular) to control what the people did and said, it was control using fear and terror.

<p>The Gestapo (Hitler's secret police)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Gestapo, set up in 1933 were the Nazi secret police, they were the most feared Nazi organization. They looked for enemies of the Nazi Regime and would use any methods necessary, including torture and raids on houses. They didn't wear uniforms, meaning anyone could be a member of the Gestapo. They could imprison you without trial -- By 1939, the Gestapo had arrested 150,000 people for political opposition.
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<p>The SS</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hitler set up the SS in 1925. He did this as his 'protection squad'. They wore black shirts. They were the 'elite' fighting force. • From 1929, Himmler ran it and expanded it to 50,000 men. One unit of the SS, called the 'Death's Head Units', ran the concentration camps.
<p>Concentration camps</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concentration Camps were another part of the Nazi police state. The camps were originally set up to punish political opponents. • They developed into being places that 'undesirable' people were sent, such as Jews, homosexuals and gypsies. • The first camp was Dachau, set up in 1933 and by 1939 there were about 6 camps with about 20,000 prisoners.
<p>The legal system</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Nazis also controlled the legal system – the Enabling Act meant that the Nazis could pass any law they wanted without any opposition. • The 'People's Court' used Nazi judges who swore on oath of loyalty to Hitler. There were no juries, judges decided the fate of the accused often in secret trials. Over 44 crimes became punishable by death and between 1933-39, 534 were executed.
<p>Nazi propaganda, censorship and the Fuhrer Cult</p>	
<p>Propaganda</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Propaganda was used to persuade people to support the Nazis and their ideas. It was spread in many clever ways. Josef Goebbels was head of Nazi Propaganda. • Rallies/speeches – The yearly Nuremberg rallies were huge spectacles to show Nazi power and national unity At the 1934 rally, 200,000 attended to see thousands of banners, 20,000 Nazi flags, a 100 foot Nazi gold eagle and to hear Hitler's speech • Film – With audiences of over 250 million in 1933, film was a key propaganda tool. All films included a 45 minute newsreel of Nazi 'news' whilst Goebbels oversaw every film produced, 1300 films in total. • Newspapers – The Nazis controlled all newspapers, journalists were told what to write and the government gave out the information to include in the papers • Radio – The Reich Radio company controlled all stations and cheap Nazi radios were made so that over 70% of homes had one. Foreign radio was also banned Hitler's speeches and history were common radio shows. Loudspeakers were put up in streets so all could listen • Events – The 1936 Olympics were used to showcase Aryan superiority (33 gold medals) and power with the stadium being the largest in the world.
<p>Censorship</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Nazis censored everything – all anti-Nazi ideas were banned • Millions of books were burnt, in 1933 20,000 Jewish and communist books were burnt in the centre of Berlin. • Writers, film makers and artists could only produce pro-Nazi arts Jazz music was banned as it came from black culture, so it was inferior. • Telling an Anti-Nazi joke was a crime, leading to a fine or imprisonment 
<p>The Fuhrer Cult</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Nazis developed the 'Führer cult', which showed Hitler as both superman and man of the people. Hitler was presented as a brave WW1 veteran, a generous worker and fond of children. • 'One people, one Reich, one Fuhrer' • The aim was for Germans to idolise and follow their leader – like a god. Pictures of Hitler were everywhere - 'Heil Hitler' even became the national greeting

<p>The Nazis and the Church</p>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hitler believed that religion was a threat to the Nazis' control over people's minds as they would worship God over him, but he knew that attacking the Church could cause serious opposition from a very religious German people who were 2/3 Protestant and 1/3 Catholic. • Nazi views were essentially opposite to those of Christianity 	

<p>The Catholic Church</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Concordat of 1933 was an agreement between Hitler and the Pope. It said Hitler would allow Catholics to worship and the Catholic Church would not interfere in politics. Hitler hoped it would reduce opposition to Nazi rule. He was worried about how strong the Catholic Church was. • This was a Nazi attempt to keep the 33 million German Catholics on side • The Concordat failed because Hitler wanted more control of the Catholic Church – he broke the agreement. He made Catholic schools teach the Nazi curriculum; he banned Catholic youth groups and he arrested priests. • Further persecution -- In 1937, the Pope criticised the Nazis. As a result, 400 priests were sent to the concentration camps. All Catholic schools were shut down in 1939.
<p>The Protestant Church</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In 1934 the Nazis set up their own religion, the German Faith Movement. It replaced Christian teachings with pagan ones. • The Reich Church, 1936 – The Nazis set up the Reich Church, bringing all protestant churches under Nazi control. The bible was replaced by Mein Kampf, the Swastika replaced the cross and all Jewish teachings from the Old Testament were removed.
<p>Did the Nazis succeed in controlling the church?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Nazis did not manage to fully control the Church despite their efforts, the majority of Germans chose to keep quiet and still practiced their religion. Hitler did manage to weaken the churches resistance to his policies and Protestant churches did become ‘Nazified’ • However, there was still open opposition by Protestants like Martin Niemoller who set up the PEL (Protestant Emergency League) to campaign against the Nazis. The PEL was banned and Niemoller sent to a concentration camp until 1945.

Opposition to the Nazis

- Living under fear/terror and propaganda/censorship effectively ended open opposition to Hitler and the Nazis, but between 1933-39 1.3 million Germans were sent to camps and opposition did exist from some groups especially from the young and from church leaders.



Youth opposition



- Despite Nazi youth groups being compulsory, resistance amongst the youth centered on Nazi control and the lack of freedom. As a result, small anti-Nazi groups grew
- **The Edelweiss Pirates** – The Edelweiss Pirates were working class youths who used the symbol of the edelweiss flower for resistance. They hated the military style Hitler Youth and the lack of freedom for young people. They often grew their hair long and wore American style clothing and makeup. They went on hikes and camping to avoid Nazi restrictions and would often attack Hitler Youth members.
- **The Swing Youth** – The swing youth were mainly teenagers from wealthy families who admired American culture over Nazi culture. They listened to jazz and swing records illegally, danced the jitterbug, smoked and drunk alcohol in groups and parties of upto 6,000. Himmler hated the Swing Youth
- By 1939, opposition from these groups was limited. They did little to oppose the Nazis despite some anti-Nazi graffiti and telling anti-Nazi jokes and there were too few of them, around 2,000 Edelweiss Pirates compared to 8 million Hitler Youth. The fact there were youth groups shows there was some small opposition, but it was mainly cultural.

Church opposition



- **Church Opposition** –In 1934, the Confessors Church set up, it was a protestant church opposed to the Reich Church. About 6,000 priests joined in opposition to the Nazis, however over 800 were sent to the camps. Some Catholics spoke out against Nazi ideas but 400 Catholics were arrested and were imprisoned in the Priests Block in Dachau Concentration Camp
- **Martin Niemoller** – Niemoller helped set up the Pastors Emergency League, membership rose to 7000 He said people must obey God, not a man Niemoller was arrested after being spied on by the Gestapo, he spent the war in Dachau Concentration Camp until 1945.

TOPIC 4: LIFE IN NAZI GERMANY

Young people in Nazi Germany

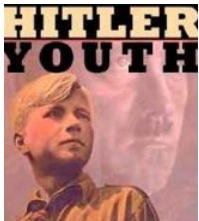
- Hitler saw the youth of Germany as the future of the German Third Reich, they had to become indoctrinated (brainwashed) in Nazi ideals to become loyal followers of Hitler. Education and Youth Groups was central to this.

Nazi Education



- **Nazi education** was designed to make Germany strong. Hitler wanted children to grow fit and healthy; girls to be good wives and mothers; boys to be workers and soldiers.
- **Nazi schools** All children went to school until they were 14. All schools had the same curriculum: **PE took up 15% of school time**. Lessons taught Nazi views; for example, race studies taught Aryan superiority. Girls studied cooking and needlework. Boys were taught military skills.
- The number of PE lessons doubled, RE was stopped. Race and Nazi beliefs were introduced
- All textbooks were rewritten to fit the Nazi view of history and Mein Kampf became a core textbook.
- Every lesson also began with a 'Heil Hitler' salute Nazi ideology was included in all lessons – History books emphasized Germany's military success and blamed Jews for the loss of WW1.
- All teachers had to join The Nazi Teachers' Alliance (97% joined) and had to teach the Nazi curriculum or risk being fired.

Nazi Youth Groups



- **Nazi youth movements** were also planned to make Germany strong. The Hitler Youth was a club for boys aged 14-18. This trained them for the army. The League of German Maidens was for girls. It taught motherhood.
- The Hitler Youth – For boys ages 14-18. Received physical training for the military and brainwashing in Nazi ideology. Military style training = marching, camping, hiking, map reading and rifle shooting. They had uniforms and ranks like the army. All members had to swear an oath of loyalty and they also learnt Nazi ideology and race theory with lessons called 'German Heroes' and 'The evil of the Jews'. By 1932 the membership was 108,000. In 1936 the Hitler Youth Act was passed and membership was compulsory.
- The League of German maidens – Girls were trained to cook, iron, sew and prepare for life as a housewife. They were also taught the importance of 'racial hygiene', the need to only marry a pure Aryan man and have Aryan children.

Were the youth groups successful?

Yes

- Millions joined the Nazi Youth Groups and many went on to join the army and have Aryan children - it was popular and many of the young became fanatical Nazis
- Many young enjoyed the comradeship/friendship of the Hitler Youth and feeling of importance to Germany's future

No

- Secret youth groups like the Edelweiss Pirates which was anti-Nazi began to start
- Despite high membership, thousands avoided attending meetings and felt it was too much like military life.

Women in Nazi Germany



- The Weimar Republic had a very progressive attitude towards women's rights. Women could vote from 20, they could attend university and many had professional careers like teachers, doctors, lawyers, judges
- The Nazis wanted to stop women working and to encourage them to have more Aryan children
- The Nazis believed the life of women should revolve around the 3K's – Kinder, Küche, Kirche (Children, Church, Kitchen).

Women and work

- Women were bribed by 'marriage credits' and child bonuses to not work.
- 1933 – Women were banned from professional posts, e.g doctors, solicitors, civil servants and overall 15% of women were sacked such as 4000 teachers.
- Girls were discouraged from going to university
- However, from 1937 there was a shortage of workers so they introduced a compulsory 'duty year' where women had to work on farms or in homes. As a result, women working increased to 14 million in 1939

Womens lives


- Organisations such the Women's Front and Reich Mothers Service were set up to brainwash women
- Women were supposed to wear traditional women's fashion like farmers
- They should not smoke and they should focus on keeping fit.

<p>Increasing birth</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Mothers Cross was a prize given out to reward women who had more children. 4 children = a bronze medal. 6 children = a silver medal. 8 or more children = gold medal. • Married couples were given a 'Marriage loan' of 1,000 marks. They could keep 250 marks for each child they had, so if they had 4 children they would pay nothing back • Abortion and contraception was banned. The Sterilisation Law of 1933, sterilised non-Aryan women so they could not have children. • The Lebensborn programme aimed to produce 'racially pure' Germans. It found 'racially pure' women for SS men to get pregnant. In just one <i>Lebensborn</i> home from 1938-41 540 single women gave birth to babies fathered by SS men 
<p>Results of Nazi policies towards women</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In 1936 there were over 30% more births than there had been in 1933 • Women liked being important in Germany, support for the Nazis was high • Marriages increased 21% between 1933-39.

The Nazi economy	
<p>The economy in 1933</p>	<p>There were two major economic problems facing Germany:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mass unemployment, about 25% of works which was 6 million in 1932. 2. The economic depression had ruined trade, business and production <p>Hitler wanted to solve these problems – he wanted to solve unemployment and prepare Germany for war.</p>
<p>The Four Year Plan</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Göring's plan to change the economy to make Germany ready for war in four years. • As a result, arms spending went from 3.5 billion to 26 billion marks, and the army grew from 100,000 to 900,000 between 1933 and 1939.
<p>Ways the Nazis reduced unemployment</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <u>The National Labour Service (RAD)</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All young men between 18-25 years had to join the RAD for six months, it was paid work to help Germany. • They were given jobs in public works such as building schools, hospitals, planting trees and repairing roads. • Conditions were not great for workers they had to wear uniforms, live in camps and had to parade. Many complained of low pay and poor food 2. <u>Rearmament and conscription</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Nazis began rearmament (building up the army) and conscription (getting men to join the army), breaking the Treaty of Versailles. • In 1935 conscription was introduced for 18–25-year-olds. The army grew from to 1.4 million by 1939. • Spending on arms and equipment rose from 3.5 billion to 26 billion marks, this caused a big need for workers. By 1935, over 72,000 workers were involved in aircraft construction. 3. <u>Public works</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The 'autobahn' (motorway) project was a key method to reduce unemployment. The Nazis planned to build 7000 miles of motorways to improve transports By 1935, 125,000 men were building new autobahns. • The Nazis spent over 38 billion marks a year by 1938 on public works, like schools, hospitals and bridges to benefit Germany. 4. <u>Invisible unemployment</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Nazis also cheated unemployment statistics to show that unemployment had dropped, they made it 'invisible'. • Women and Jews were forced out of their jobs and these were given to men. They were also not included in unemployment figures. Those in prisons and concentration camps were taken off unemployment statistics. • Part time workers were also classed as full time workers, whilst soldiers were also 'workers' even in peace time
<p>Results of Nazi economic policies</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Nazis claimed they had solved unemployment and proudly announced unemployment had dropped from 4.8million to 300,000 by 1939. The Nazis had succeeded in their promise of bringing 'work' to the German people. • However, historians have argued that the Nazis manipulated the system by sacking workers, lying about statistics and using forced labour to rearm Germany.

Workers in Nazi Germany


Hitler knew that he had to keep German workers happy as they were the base of his support, therefore he set up three organisations to 'improve' the lives of workers.

<p>The German Labour Front (DAF)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The German Labour Front (DAF) was the state-run Nazi replacement for trades unions. It set working hours and wages. Under the DAF working hours went up by an average of 6 hours a week but people's wages did not increase very much. • The DAF effectively took away the freedom of workers and their rights, it was a method of control. • Workers could not leave a job without permission • Workers couldn't ask for higher wages. 	
<p>Strength Through Joy (KdF)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The KDF (Strength through Joy) ran sports centres and social activities, such as theatre trips and holidays for workers. It aimed to keep workers happy so they did not complain. Examples of activities included: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Workers could go on luxury holidays for cheap. The KdF even own their own cruise ship. A ski trip cost one weeks wages. • A savings scheme (5 marks a week) to help workers buy a Volkswagen (Peoples Car) However, no cars were ever made as the factories focussed on rearmament. • Free evening classes were offered in cookery. 	
<p>Beauty of Labour</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Beauty of Labour campaigned to improve better facilities for workers, for example, better toilets, changing rooms, showers and canteens • Beauty of Labour gave companies financial help to improve their buildings and safety for example, reducing noise levels and improving lighting in factories 	
<p>Did German workers benefit under the Nazis?</p>	<p>Yes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There were more people working which meant people had more money to spend, which would increase the standard of living • Between 1936-39, wages increased by 20% which meant workers, like those in armaments factories had more to spend. • The KdF offered workers opportunities for holiday and leisure that they could never afford, whilst Beauty of Labour improved working conditions for workers • The German workers got their 'bread and work' as promised by Hitler before he was elected 	<p>No</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Despite higher wages, the price of goods like food rose by 20% between 1933-39 so the increase wages were cancelled out. • Lower earners, like those in the RAD struggled to buy goods with the increased priced • Working hours increase on average, from 43 hours per week to 49 hours in 1939. • The DAF completely took away German workers rights (to strike, for higher pay and to leave jobs) • Women and Jews were sacked from their jobs • Workers were forced to work in poor jobs in the RAD

Nazi persecution of minorities

- Once in power, the Nazis began to slowly but increasingly persecute and discriminate against the minorities of Germany – Jews, the disabled, gypsies, homosexuals, and social outcasts

<p>Nazi racial beliefs</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Central to Nazi ideology was racial purity, the idea that the German race was the 'Master Race' and all others like Jews were 'sub humans'. • The Nazis' believed Germans were a pure race of Aryans (blond hair, blue eyes, athletic) • Hitler believed that Germanys future was dependent on the creation of a pure Ayrans state. This would be achieved in two ways by breeding more Aryans and destroying Jews and other sub humans 	
<p>Persecution of the disables</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In 1933, the Nazis passed a 'Sterilisation Law' which forcibly sterilised the mentally ill, alcoholic, deaf, blind, or deformed. 400,000 people were sterilised by 1939. In 1939, the Nazis started the T4 programme (Euthanasia) where young people with mental/physical disabilities were killed by lethal injection. Over 5000 children are killed. 	
<p>Persecution of homosexuals</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Nazis' believed homosexuals were immoral and lowered racial purity. In 1935 the Nazis passed laws against Homosexuality, 4000 were arrested in 1936. Over 5000 homosexuals were sent to concentration camps. 	
<p>Persecution of gypsies</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They were non-Aryan and a threat to racial purity that needed to be cleansed. They were also seen as 'work shy' and did not fit ideal Nazi life. From 1935, Germans and Gypsies could not marry and between 1936-39 Germanys 35,000 gypsies were rounded up and put into camps to be eventually deported. 	

<p>Persecution of Jews</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In 1933 there were 437,000 Jews living in Germany, less than 1% of the population but Hitler had made it clear actions against the Jews was a priority, from then on anti-Semitic actions developed. • By 1939, the Nazi plan was to deport all Jews from Germany. • Key events: • 1933 1st April - Boycott of Jewish businesses. For one day, the SA stood outside Jewish businesses to prevent customers from entering. 'Jude' and Star of David's' are painted on windows. • 1935, September - The Nuremberg Laws The Reich Law of Citizenship stated that Jews were no longer German citizens, this meant they could not vote any more. The Law for the Protection of German Blood and Honour. Made marriage and sexual relations between Jews and Aryan Germans illegal • Kristallnacht (the Night of Broken Glass) Over the night of 9 November 1938 the Nazis took revenge for the shooting of a Nazi official in Paris by a young Jew. Nazi official figures say 814 shops, 171 homes and 191 synagogues were destroyed and about 100 Jews killed. • Jews imprisoned After Kristallnacht; 20,000 Jews were sent to concentration camps. In 1939, all Jews had to move into ghettos: walled off areas of cities that kept them apart from other people. Housing and food supplies to the ghettos were bad. 
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