

English Martyrs History Department

Year 8 Knowledge Organiser

The Making of the Modern World

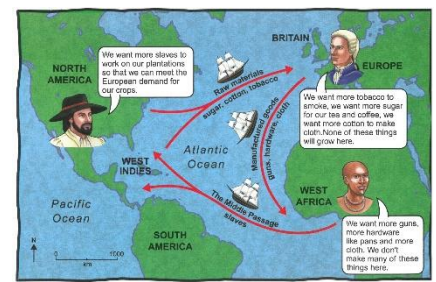
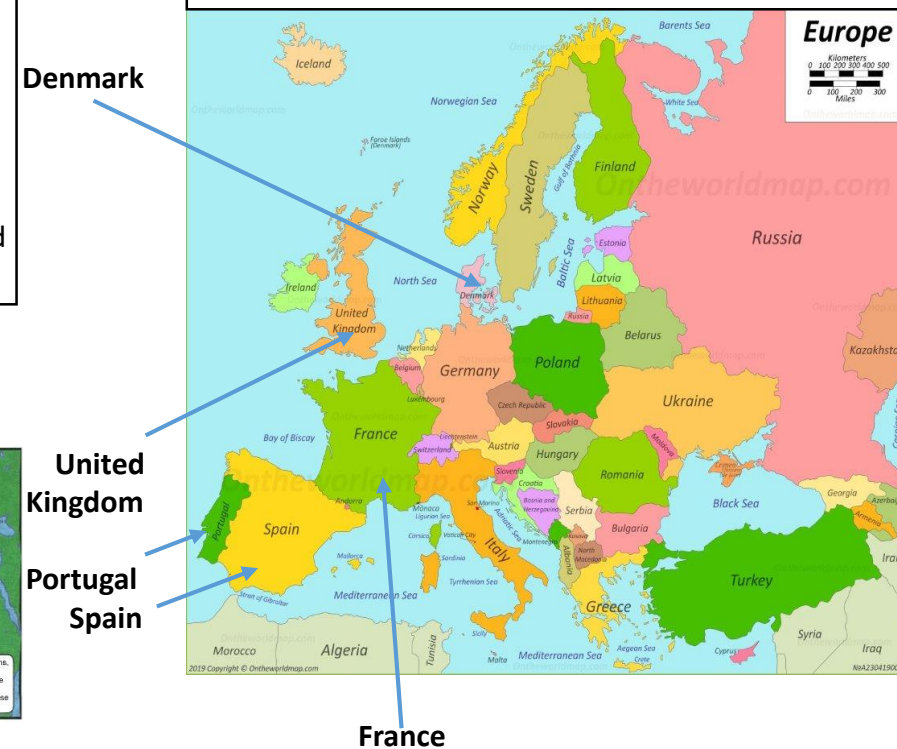


YEAR 8
KNOWLEDGE
ORGANISER
1) SLAVERY

Year 8 Knowledge Organiser - Slavery	
Slavery	A relationship where one had absolute control over another person. They control their life, freedom and wealth.
Triangle Trade	The name of the system for trading slaves across the world.
Middle Passage	The name used to describe the journey from Africa to America for slaves, it took up to 2 months.
Plantation	A large farm that slaves worked on to produce cotton, tobacco and sugar.
The underground railroad	The secret network of people who would help slaves escape to places of safety.
Abolition	Abolition is the act of putting an end to something by law, e.g. slavery.
The Slavery Abolition Act 1833	The act passed in Britain that abolished slavery.

All of these countries profited from the slave-trade. However, Britain became a dominant slave trading nation. It was calculated that 3.25 million Africans were transported across the Atlantic between the 17th and 19th centuries.

Who profited from the slave trade?



Who benefited from the slave trade?

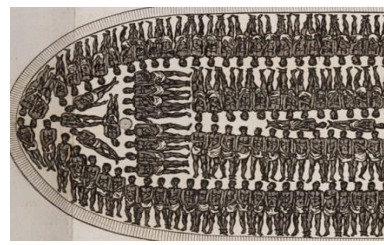
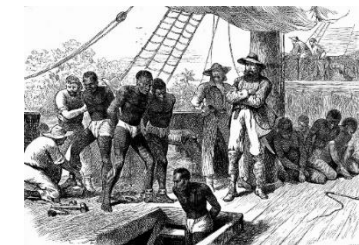
- Plantation Owners** - Plantation owners, owned large pieces of land which farmed different crops. Plantation owners grew 'cash' crops of sugar, tobacco, coffee, spices and cotton for sale back in Europe which would be worked on by the slaves. By the constant supply of 'free' labour and good trading links plantation owners lived very lavish lifestyles, with very little upset to deal with.
- African Tribal Leaders** - African Tribe Leaders captured slaves through war between rival communities over land. They would then trade their captures for weaponry and gunpowder to increase their power in their native land. They also expanded national trade to trading with European countries to increase their wealth.
- British Business Men** - The Slave Trade made areas such as, Liverpool and Bristol extremely rich. Factory owners and business men that were involved in the production of weapons and gunpowder, benefitted massively from the selling of goods to African Tribe Leaders.
- African Slaves** - Some slaves worked in the plantation owner's house as butlers, cooks or housemaids. They were able to learn new skills.

What was the Transatlantic slave trade?

The forced movement of around 12 to 15 million Africans across the Atlantic Ocean to the Americas and the West Indies, where they were used as slaves. It occurred between the 16th and 19th centuries.

The Middle Passage:

12 to 15 million Africans were shipped across the Atlantic, on a route known as the Middle Passage. We can learn from slave ship log books that 10% to 20% of slaves died on the Middle Passage, due to the horrendous conditions of the ship. In total, over two million died on the journey. Abolitionists began researching the conditions on the ships and publishing their findings.



What were 16th-century West African kingdoms like?

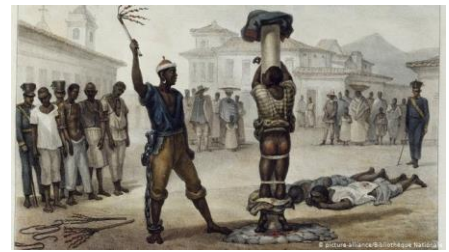
Case Study 1: The Kingdom of Benin:
The Kingdom of Benin was one of the most developed kingdoms in Africa, in what is now Nigeria. It lasted from the 15th to the 19th century. Early explorers' accounts of Benin City describe it as a very well organised city: clean, free from crime and happy residents. The kingdom became very wealthy due to trade. The area was known for its gold and bronze, and there were skilled metalworkers in Benin city.

Case Study 2 – The Songhai Empire:
The Songhai Empire was centred on its capital city, Gao, in what is today the country of Mali. The main cities of the Songhai Empire, Gao and Timbuktu, were located on the River Niger, which provided water to farm their fertile land, as well as plentiful supplies of fish. The river Niger was also a major trade route and boats would go to and from Benin City and the ocean beyond.

The impact of the transatlantic slave trade on Africa?
Slavery and slave trading existed within Africa long before Europeans began buying African slaves. However, the transatlantic slave trade transformed slave trading. When Europeans began trading with West African kingdoms, they bought slaves from African rulers and traders. These were usually slaves that had been taken as captives during war or had been kidnapped. When the ships arrived from Europe, their captains would give gifts and pay taxes to local African leaders, before exchanging their goods for the slaves. As demand for slaves in the America's grew, Africa slave traders had to become even more active and aggressive to capture enough slaves. Due to this, the scale and the violence of the slave trade increased. **Furthermore, Europeans often traded guns in exchange for the African slaves which meant there were more guns in Africa. More guns meant more war. More war meant that more slaves were captured. A vicious cycle was created.** Millions of slaves were negatively affected, as well as those left behind in Africa who were affected by famine due to fewer farmers.



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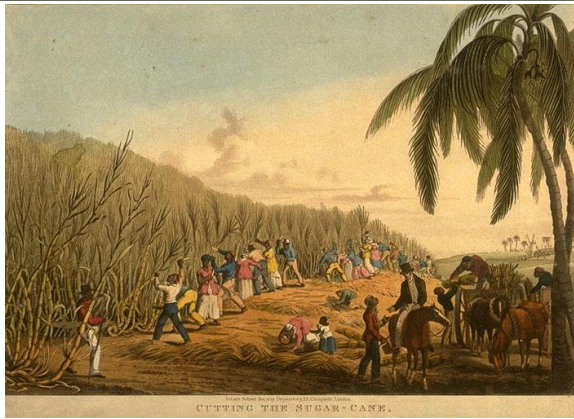


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Life as a Slave:

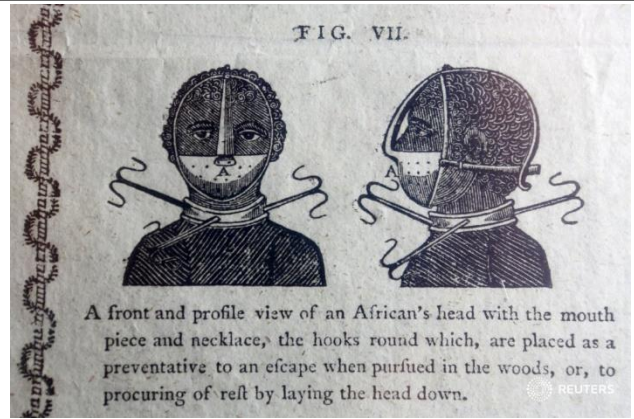
Plantations:



A mid 18th-century engraving of a sugar plantation in Haiti.



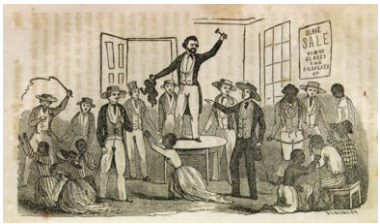
A painting called Negroes Sunday-Market at Antigua -1806.



An image from a poster of 1807 showing some of the artefacts used to punish slaves.



An engraving from 1596 showing African slaves working on a plantation.



Life as a Slave:
Upon arriving in America, slaves would be sold directly to buyers or sold at auction. If a slave had a child, then that child would become to property of the mother's owner.
After sale, slaves would be taken to their respective jobs. Slaves fell into two categories;
Field slaves who worked on plantations.
Domestic slaves who worked within the household and adopted more domesticated jobs.



After a day on a cotton plantation the slaves got in a line to have their cotton weighed and receive their daily food. The minimum amount of cotton to be picked in one day was 200 pounds.
One slave, West Turner, remembered after a long day working on the plantation, he and other slaves were required to clean a shoe full of cotton before they were allowed to go to bed. Turner wore a size 14 shoe! Each night he was still cleaning his pile of cotton long after the rest of the slaves had finished. To stop this situation getting worse, he wrapped his feet up very tightly in rags, to prevent them getting any bigger!

Being a field slave was not at all easy. A field slave worked from sunrise to sunset, but during harvest, they worked an eighteen-hour day. Women field workers worked the same hours as men. Pregnant women were expected to work until the child was born, and after the child's birth the woman worked in the field with the child on her back. At about the age of twelve a child's work became almost the same as an adult's.

Josiah Henson – "Wooden floors were an unknown luxury. In a single room were huddled, like cattle, ten or a dozen persons, men, women, and children. We had neither bedsteads, nor furniture of any description."

Slave Rebellion and Resistance:

Mutinies on ships:

10% of slave ships experienced some sort of slave revolt. Usually these mutinies would be defeated by the crew, often with great bloodshed.

AMISTAD - Africans on the ship **Amistad** were travelling to a life of **slavery** on a sugar plantation in Cuba. However, the slaves rose up against their captors, killing two crewmembers and seizing control of the **ship**. On January 13, 1840, Judge Andrew Judson ruled that the Africans were illegally enslaved, that they would not be returned to Cuba to stand trial for piracy and murder, and that they should be granted free passage back to Africa.

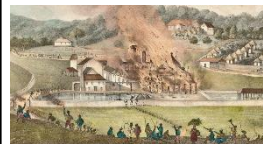
The Maroons - Communities developed of runaway slaves, such as the Maroons of Jamaica. The Maroons were a group of former slaves who had escaped enslavement. They lived in the Blue Mountains of Jamaica, where they established their own towns and ways of life. The Maroons assisted other slaves in escaping and joining their community. Eventually, the Maroons were imprisoned and then shipped to British colonies in Nova Scotia. Slaves continued to escape the plantations and go and live in the mountains.

The Haitian Revolution - During the 18th and 19th centuries, there were slave uprisings on many West Indian islands, including Grenada, Jamaica, Antigua and Barbados. The most famous revolt was in the French colony of Saint-Domingue (Haiti). It is famous because it was **successful**.

Toussaint Louverture was a former slave who had been granted his freedom by his master. He was a highly skilled military leader. Louverture was imprisoned by the French in 1802 and died in captivity a year later. Despite this, the revolution continued and in 1804, the self-liberated slaves defeated their colonial rulers and declared the country of Haiti as their own. If skilfully led, a slave rebellion could be successful.

Revolts after 1807 - The Abolition of the Slave Trade Act of 1807 was important in stopping the British trade in slaves, it was also limited in its aims. Banning the trade also meant that there were fewer slaves in the British colonies. This meant that slaves in those colonies were forced to work even harder. Similarly, slaves were also moved around more as owners tried to use their labour more efficiently.

Jamaica witnessed the largest slave revolts, with more than 200 plantations being affected during 1811-32. The slaves were led by a man called Samuel Sharpe who had been a slave in Jamaica in 1801. He encouraged a peaceful protest against slavery but this escalated into a major revolt. The rebellion lasted just 10 days.



The Underground Railroad:

The Underground Railroad grew during the 1800s. 'Free' slaves, both those who escaped and those who were set free, joined together to help other slaves escape. It was a dangerous and illegal action, but it offered hope to those who had no other way of escape. The 'railroad' was a network of people who would escort escaped slaves to places of safety. The Underground Railroad was neither underground nor a railroad, but a secret network of safe houses and antislavery activists - black, white, and Native American - who helped slaves escape to freedom. Every home that welcomed runaways and every individual who offered food, clothing, or other assistance could be considered part of the railroad. Though never formally organized, tens of thousands of slaves, aided by more than 3,200 railroad "workers," escaped to the northern states.

New York City Slave Rebellion--1712--25 slaves armed with guns and clubs burned down houses on the edge of New York City and killed nine whites.

Stono Rebellion--1739--Approximately 80 slaves armed themselves and attempted to march towards Florida from their home area of Stono, South Carolina

New York Conspiracy, 1741-- 31 slaves and 4 whites were executed as a result of rumours of a major slave rebellion in New York City

Gabriel Prosser's Rebellion--1800--Gabriel Prosser, a blacksmith, planned a major rebellion in Virginia. He recruited at least 1,000 slaves to their cause and built up a secret collection of weapons to help attack the state capital of Richmond.

Denmark Vesey's Uprising--1822--Vesey, a free black man living in South Carolina began organizing a major rebellion which would take place in 1822 in the city of Charleston. Armed slaves would position themselves outside the houses of whites at night. Then, other slaves would start a major fire in the city. When the white men exited their homes to fight the fire, the slaves would kill them.

Nat Turner's Revolt--August, 1831 - Turner, a slave preacher,, launched his rebellion by entering his owner's home and killing the entire family, except for a small infant. They moved from one farm to the next, killing all slave-owning whites they found. As they progressed, other slaves joined in the rebellion

Why was the slave trade abolished in Britain?

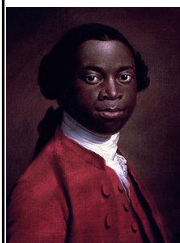
The Popular Movement:

Within a few years of the establishment of the Abolition Committee, there were numerous anti-slave trade societies across the country. Often these were formed by non-conformist groups who used religious arguments to protect against the slave trade. Women's anti-slave trade societies also became common. These societies would encourage others to join their cause. Books, plays and poetry were written in favour of abolition. People proudly wore abolition medallions and brooches.

Members of the public put pressure on MPs to pass an abolition law. The most direct method was through petitions that were sent to parliament. By 1792, parliament received over 500 different abolition petitions per year, containing thousands of names. The Abolition campaigners also put pressure on the government by using the sugar boycott.

Black Abolitionists:

The Abolition Committee was keen for the voices of slaves to be heard. In 1787, it published the autobiography of Ottobah Cugoanbo, a former slave. In 1789, another freed slave, Olaudah Equiano, also published his autobiography. The authors proved former slaves could achieve if given the chance of freedom.



The Abolition Committee:

William Wilberforce:

He was an MP who was very anti slavery. MPs were powerful as they could encourage laws to be passed abolishing the slave trade. The abolitionists' representative in parliament was William Wilberforce. He was a powerful speaker and politician and convinced other MPs to join the abolition cause. He introduced an abolition bill to parliament almost every year from 1790 to 1806.

Thomas Clarkson:

He was one of the first men on the Abolition Committee. He realised that their campaign needed the support of the public, and to get public support, he needed to educate people about the horrific realities of the slave trade. Few British people would understand what it was like on the slave ships or plantations. Clarkson interviewed 20,000 people connected with the slave trade and recorded their stories. He then used them to create a big propaganda campaign.

Granville Sharpe:

He was a lawyer. In 1787, he established an organisation to campaign against the slave trade. The Abolition Committee was initially just a group of 12 men. However, because they were influential men with powerful occupations, their campaign gained support.

Slavery after 1807:

Although the British slave trade had been banned in 1807, there was still a fight to be fought: for the total abolition of slavery and the emancipation of slaves.

From 1823, Thomas Clarkson led the abolition campaign. Slave resistance was increasing and the slave revolt of 1831-32 in Jamaica shocked people in Britain.

In 1833, the Slavery Abolition Act was passed, freeing around 800,000 slaves.

Slave owners were compensated as some MPs argued that the end of slavery would bankrupt slave owners.

The lives of emancipated slaves did not suddenly improve after abolition. Some remained working on the same plantations and were simply paid very low wages. Other slaves used their freedom to start new lives with their families.

Racism – Supporters of slavery, and those who tried to defend the system for their own gain, did so by claiming that black people were inferior to white people. These ideas spread during the 18th and 19th centuries and it became common for European people to consider themselves superior to African people.

Abolition in America:

The USA abolished slavery on the 31st January 1865. It was known as the **13th Amendment** and it declared that all people in the United States were free.

However the abolition of slavery was a huge issue in America and even triggered the American Civil War.

Economics - The abolition movement in the North was hated by most southern slave owners who feared the loss of their slave labour force. The northern states were going through an industrial revolution and needed more people to work in their factories.

Some northern factory owners believed that if freed, the slaves would leave the south and provide the workers they needed.

The North wanted taxes placed upon imported foreign goods to protect their new industries but the mainly agricultural south depended on trade and was therefore against this.

Politics - The North and South also argued over the States of Kansas and Nebraska as to whether or not they should be 'free' or 'slave' states. The key issue for the south was 'States' Rights' – the freedom of individual States to decide their own rules without control by the central government. Eleven states decided to leave the Union to form their own separate nation called the '**Confederate States of America**'. This resulted in the outbreak of a civil war

Women Abolitionists:

Hannah More was an important figure in the anti-slavery movement in the 1780s and 1790s. She was a poet and a playwright and close friend of John Newton and William Wilberforce. She wrote anti-slavery poems including the famous poem *Slavery* to coincide with the first parliamentary debate on slavery in 1788. Her other writings about slavery would have reached thousands of readers.

Lucy Townsend was inspired by Thomas Clarkson to found the first women's anti-slavery society in 1825. Women paid to join and the funds were donated to the movement. Her daughter Charlotte produced a leaflet aimed at children.

Anne Knight formed the Chelmsford Female Anti-Slavery society, organised public meetings and helped draw up and collect petitions. George Thompson wrote 'where women existed they did everything. In a word, they formed the cement of the whole anti-slavery building, without them we should never have been united.'

Women were good at canvassing – going from house to house to persuade people to support the campaign, giving out propaganda leaflets and getting people to support the campaign.

Women also played a crucial role in the sugar boycott which hit plantation owner's and raised awareness of the movement. They persuaded grocer's to stop selling sugar produced by slaves and families to stop eating it.


Women wrote and distributed information in the form of leaflets and tracts.

Women also reworked the now famous image produced by Josiah Wedgwood as 'Am I not a woman and a sister?'. He encouraged women to wear anti-slavery brooches and pins. They also wore clothes made from Indian cotton rather than cotton picked by slaves.

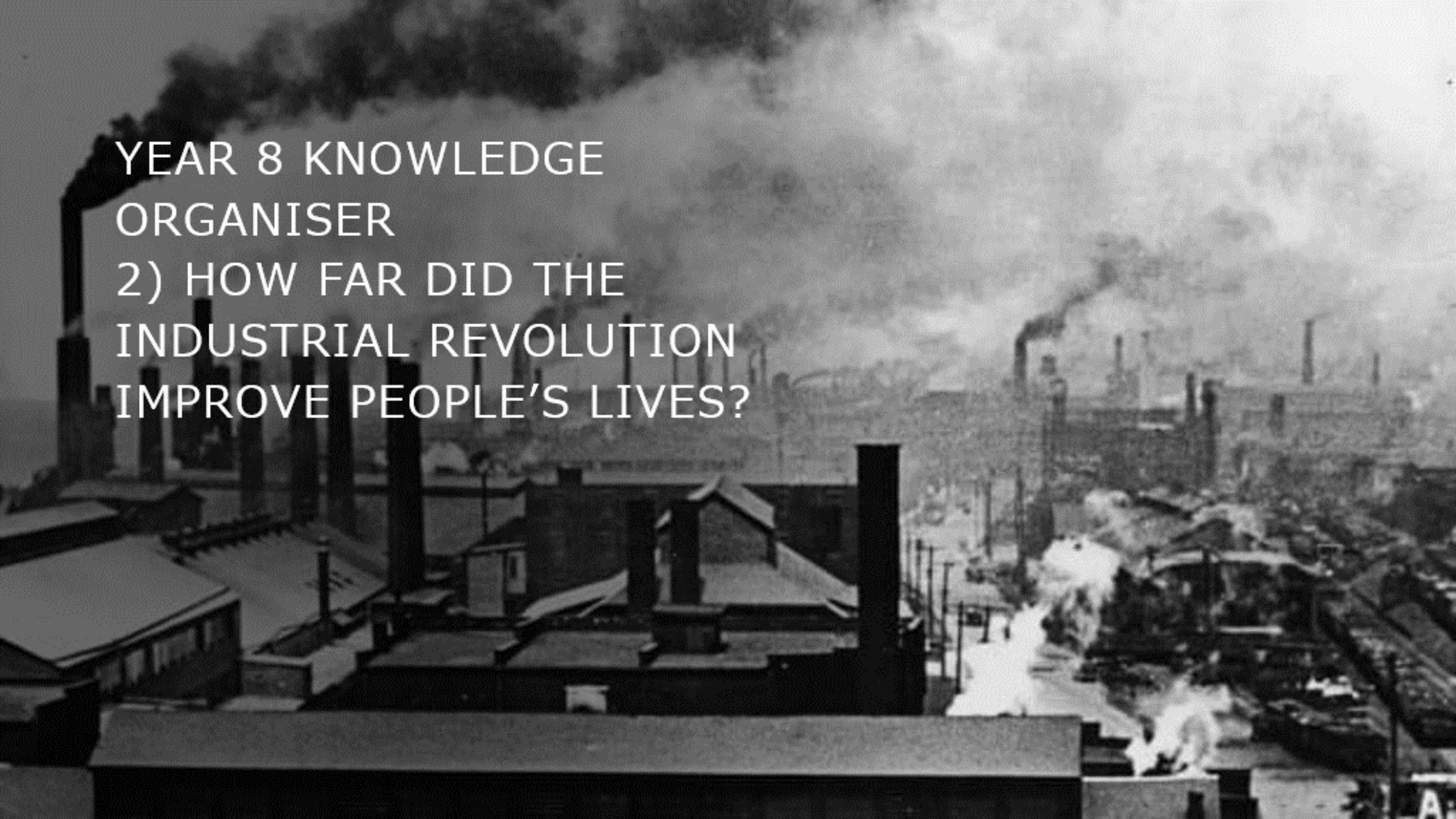


CHEAP REPOSITORY.

THE
SORROWS of YAMBA;
OR, THE
Negro Woman's Lamentation.



Sold by J. MARSHALL,
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YEAR 8 KNOWLEDGE
ORGANISER
2) HOW FAR DID THE
INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION
IMPROVE PEOPLE'S LIVES?

YEAR 8 INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION	KNOWLEDGE ORGANISER
Industrial Revolution	A time of great change in Britain between 1750-1900.
Population	The number of people living in a particular place.
Invention	Something new which is created. It can be an idea or an object.
Economy	The system of how money is used in the economy.
Agriculture	The process of producing food and fibres by planting of certain plants and farming of certain animals.
Poverty	The lack of basic human needs, such as; fresh water, nutrition, healthcare, education and shelter.
Sanitation	Sanitation is the system that disposes of human waste.
Industry	The process of making products by using machines and factories.
Mass Production	The production of many products in one go, e.g. textiles.

What was the Industrial Revolution and why did it occur?
 -The **Industrial Revolution** was a period of technological improvement and increased crop productivity that occurred during the 18th and early 19th centuries in Europe.
 -It occurred for various reasons, such as; population increase, archaic form of agriculture (leading to the agricultural revolution).

Population Increase in Britain:

1701: 5 million → **1751:** 9.5 million → **1801:** 15.5 million → **1851:** 27.5 million

Process of change in Britain due to Industrial Revolution: resulting in increasing productivity and agricultural prosperity.

Agriculture – New tools, fertilizers and harvesting techniques were introduced
Industry – factories sprung up all over the country creating more efficient ways to produce goods such as wool, coal and cotton. The increase in factories brought thousands of new jobs.
Transport and Communications – Thomas Telford built roads and canals in the 1700s and George Stephenson and Isambard Kingdom Brunel oversaw the ‘Railway Mania’ of the 1800s. There had previously been no fast way of transporting goods and people around the country.
Technology – There were also many scientific discoveries and technological inventions that changed society and industry. Changes to sanitation and medical treatment such as the work of John Snow and Edward Jenner improved people’s quality of life.

Improved Infrastructure
What is infrastructure? Infrastructure is the basic physical and organizational structures and facilities needed for the operation of society, e.g. trains, roads.

1750 – Horses and Canals were used. Sail ships were becoming more common.

1850 - Steam engine and ships was used in the Industrial Revolution.

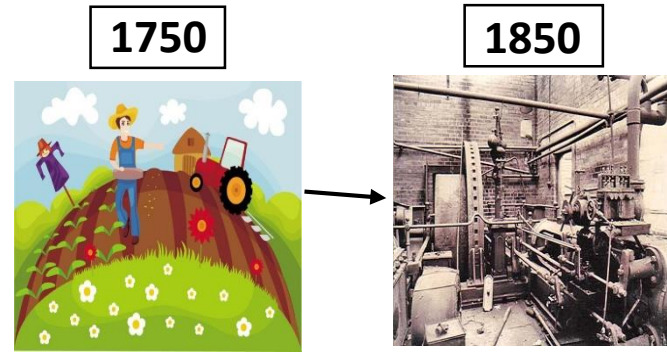
1900 - Cars were invented but were expensive. Railways were used more prominently during the 1900s.

Education and Workforce:
 1750 - School was not free which resulted in more people being illiterate than not.

1850 - People began to move away from rural parts of the country into towns and began working in factories

1900- -Going to school became compulsory.

The Agricultural Revolution:
What was it? The Agricultural Revolution was a period of increased crop productivity moving away from the archaic system of agriculture.
 Why in 1750? The population was steadily increasing in Britain. It increased from 5 million in 1701 to 27.5 million in 1851. Britain could not continue to feed the population using such an archaic form of agriculture. Therefore, as the population increased, agriculture improved.
How was agriculture improved? The use of farm machinery, the enclosing of fields and new crop rotation systems improved agriculture generally.
Why did people move to towns? The move away from the archaic system of agriculture created a decline in both the intensity of the work and the number of agricultural laborers needed. Due to the decline in need for agricultural workers, many subsequently moved to towns and worked in industrial jobs.
Negative Consequences? –Many agricultural labours lost their jobs and as a result, unemployment was very common. Those who could work were paid little, resulting in a higher crime rate. Also, there were food riots and violent protests as a result.

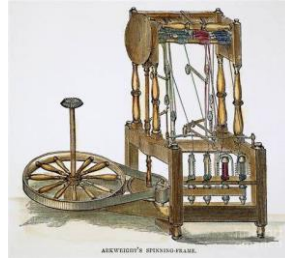


Industrial Revolution and Factories

Inventions of the Industrial Revolution:

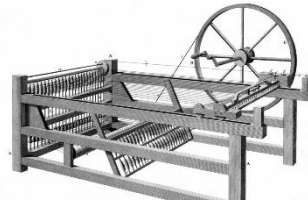
The Water Frame -1769:

Richard Arkwright invented a machine, powered by water, to spin cotton into yarn, quickly and easily. His machines did not need skilled operators so Arkwright paid unskilled women and others to work on them. This invention allowed factories and mills to be built.



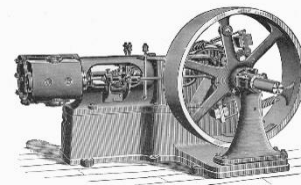
The Spinning Jenny – 1770:

James Hargreaves, a British carpenter and weaver, invents the spinning jenny. The machine spins more than one ball of yarn or thread at a time, making it easier and faster to make cloth. This allows more workers to make cloth more cheaply and increases the amount of factories built.



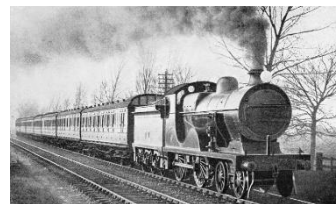
The Steam Engine – 1717:

Thomas Newcomen invents the first steam engine. It would later be improved by James Watt which meant steam engines could replace water and horse power in a wide variety of industries which in turn allowed factories to be built anywhere.



The Locomotive – 1814

Richard Trevithick was a pioneer in early steam engine technology. He developed a new high-pressure steam engine which could be used to reliably move goods and passengers. This invention made transport much easier and quicker.



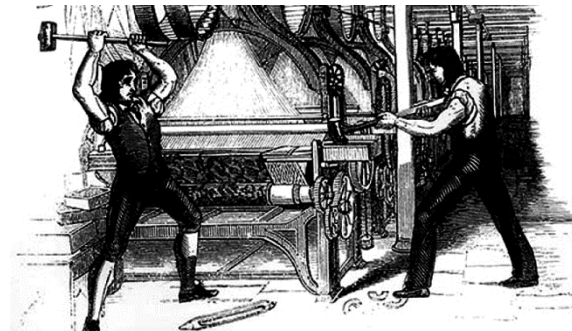
How did factories help towns to grow?

- Before 1700, no one had seen a factory. Spinning and weaving were done at home. As the population increased and the demand for cloth grew, machines were invented that could spin thread and weave cloth quickly.
- These machines could not fit in cottages so factories were built.
- More and more people began to move into towns to find work and thus, towns and cities began to grow.

Did everyone benefit from the Industrial Revolution?

- Not everyone benefited from the Industrial Revolution. Those who did not benefit and attempted to destroy machines were called **Luddites**.
- Thousands of people who worked on the canals were thrown out of work by the coming of the railways.
- Men and women who spun thread and wove cloth by hand also suffered terribly.
- Groups of discontented workers met in secret, breaking into mills and factories at night and smashing the machines they thought were taking away their livelihood.

As a consequence of this, Parliament passed a law saying that anyone found guilty of breaking machinery could be hanged.



A drawing of Luddites destroying machinery.

Important Individuals in the Industrial Revolution:

Robert Peel

Peel created and supported the Factories Act of 1844 which restricted the number of hours that children could work in factories as well as setting safety standards for machinery.

Isambard Kingdom Brunel

One of the most influential engineers of the Industrial Revolution. Brunel built railways and ships and opened Britain up to a new network of industry.

John Snow

Snow was an English physician who discovered that the water in his local area was making everyone ill. His work led to the discovery of cholera and improved fresh water for thousands.

Edward Jenner

Jenner discovered vaccination in 1796. He discovered that that if you laced a small amount of disease in a human then they were then able to fight it off in the future. This discovery saved millions of lives.

Seebohm Rowntree

Rowntree was an English sociological researcher. He researched people living in and argued that the government needed to do more to help them

Factory/Living Conditions and Law and Crime:

Factory Working Conditions:

Long Working Conditions – Norman shifts were usually 12-14 hours a day, with extra time required during busy periods.

Low Wages – A typical wage for male workers was about 15 shillings (75p) a week. Women and children were paid much less, with children three shillings (15p). For this reason, employers often preferred to employ women and children.

Cruel Discipline – There was frequent ‘strapping’ (hitting with a leather strap). Other punishments included nailing children’s ears to the table and dowsing them in water butts to keep them awake.

Accidents - Forcing children to crawl into dangerous, unguarded machinery led to many accidents and deaths.

Health – The air was full of dust, which led to chest and lung diseases and loud noise made by machines damaged workers’ hearing.

Living Conditions:

Overcrowding – Due to large numbers of people moving to the cities, there were not enough houses for all these people to live in.

Disease – Typhus, typhoid, tuberculosis and cholera all existed in the cities of England. Overcrowding, low standard housing and poor quality water supplies all helped spread disease.

Waste Disposal – Gutters were filled with litter. Human waste was discharged directly into the sewers, which flowed straight into rivers.

Poor Quality Housing – Houses were built very close together so there was little light or fresher air inside them. They did not have running water and people found it difficult to keep clean. Lack of fresh water – People could get water from a variety of places; such as streams, wells and stand pipes. This water was often polluted by human waste.

Child Labour:

-Before the Industrial Revolution, children worked in the fields and workshops with their parents. Similarly, during and after the industrial revolution, children began working in mills and factories with their parents.

-Children were small enough to crawl under machinery to clear away fluff and repair broken threads. They were paid little, explaining why employers often employed children.

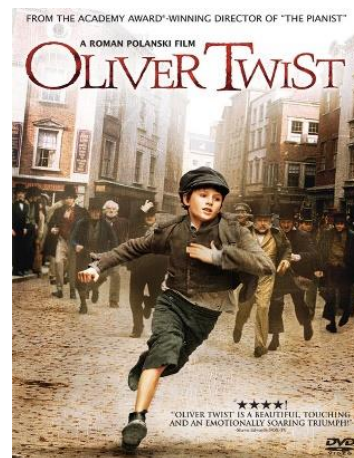
-Children also worked in mines for similarly reasons (they were small and cheap)

Orphans and Abandoned Children:

-There were many orphans and abandoned children in the large industrial cities than there had been before the Industrial Revolution.

-This is partly because industrial accidents and diseases killed hundreds of adults, leaving their children destitute.

-Oliver Twist, written by Charles Dickens, is a novel based on a child whose mother dies giving birth to him in a workhouse. Subsequently, Oliver lives in the workhouse and is treated terribly.



Law and Crime:

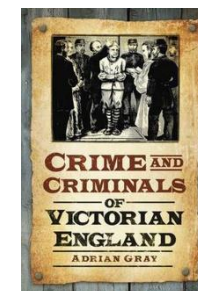
Men, women and children committed crimes, regardless of whether they lived in villages, towns or cities.

-Rookeries – These were parts of cities where housing was poorest and hardened criminals lived.

-75% of crime involved theft, mainly street robbery and burglary.

-By 1829, London’s population had grown to 1.5 million and crime was increasing. The old methods of catching criminals were not sufficient anymore.

-Metropolitan Police Act of 1829 – Parliament passed this act and 3200 police constables were recruited.



Forensic Science:

-In 1842, the Metropolitan Police established the ‘Detective Branch’ where detectives were to investigate crimes rather than keep order on the streets, (other police officers maintained this job).

Developments in science and technology meant that tracking down criminals was becoming easier:

Body Temperature – Could be linked to time of death.

Poisons – Could view arsenic in the body.

Bullet Matching – Ability to discover the gun which shot particular bullets.

Blood – Blood tests could identify the presence of blood at crime scenes.

Photography – Criminals and crime scenes began to be photographed.

Fingerprints – Fingerprint patterns could help capture suspects.

Production, Prosperity and Education:

The Great Exhibition:
 -During Queen Victoria’s reign (1837-1901, British trade and industry grew and prospered.
 -Britain was known as the ‘workshop of the world.’
 -Prince Albert, Queen Victoria’s husband, had the idea of holding a great exhibition to show how proud the Victorians were of their industrial and technological achievements.
 -The industrial revolution changed the lives of thousands of people for the better. This exhibition showed everyone just how prosperous Britain had become.



Education:
 1861 – Only 10% of children within Britain during 1861 could read, write and do simple sums.
 -1870 – School is made compulsory for children aged between 5-10 years old.
 -The industrial Revolution had created a lot of jobs that required young people to be able to read, write and do arithmetic. For e.g. to make machine tools people needed to understand numbers.

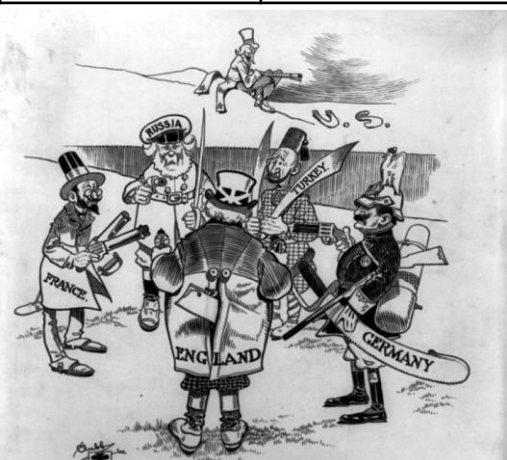
Changes in Britain	1750	1850	1900
Population	15 percent of the population lived in towns.	The population doubled from 9 – 18 million the fastest ever growth.	More people 4.5 million lived in London By 1900 85 percent of the population lived in towns.
Towns	Few people lived in towns.	People are moving into towns to get jobs in factories.	A huge number of people were moving into towns.
Transport	Horses and Canals were used. Sail ships were more common.	Steam engine and ships was used in the Industrial Revolution.	Cars were invented but were expensive. Railways.
Jobs	Weavers worked at home. Farming.	Coal industry employed 1 million men Only 25,000 weavers.	Working in the factories.
Power	Horse power.	Production of coal increased. Better coal techniques allowed deeper mines.	England was a worldwide power.
Schools	Before 1800 education was not free. Poor children went to Sunday school.	2 hours of school was compulsory for children working in factory. School set up for the poor 1844.	Secondary school were compulsory in 1902. State funded boarding schools for children in primary school.

YEAR 8 KNOWLEDGE
ORGANISER
3) THE FIRST WORLD
WAR



Year 8 History Knowledge Organiser: Why did the world go to war in 1914?

Key Terms	Definitions
Nationalism	The belief that your country is better than anyone else's.
Alliances	A group of countries who agree to support each other when needed.
Imperialism	The desire to take over and conquer other countries.
Militarism	Building up of armed forces, navy and so on.
Stalemate	Both sides aren't moving forward, staying in the same position.
Self-Determination	Countries should rule themselves rather than be ruled by a country that is trying to create/maintain an empire.
Kaiser Wilhelm II	The emperor of Germany from 1888-1918.



Causes of the war

1. **Boer War 1899-1902** Germany opposed Britain's attempt to defeat the Boers in South Africa.
2. **First Moroccan crisis 1905-1906** Kaiser Wilhelm promised to support the sultan of Morocco against France's attempts to take over the country.
3. **'Daily Telegraph' article 1908** In a newspaper interview, Kaiser Wilhelm said the English were mad and the Germans hated them. This caused great offence in Britain.
4. **Bosnia 1908** Austria annexed Bosnia in the Balkans. This annoyed Serbia, which wanted to take over the area. Russia wanted to help Serbia, but had to back down.
5. **Dreadnought crisis 1909** Scared by the growing German navy, the British people demanded that the government build eight of the new Dreadnought battleships.
6. **Agadir 1911** There was a revolution in Morocco, so France sent an army to take over. Kaiser Wilhelm sent the gunship 'Panther', but Britain and France forced him to back down.
7. **Balkan Wars 1912-1913** Serbia and other countries in the Balkans conquered most of Turkey's land in Europe. Serbia became a powerful country, and said Austria-Hungary was its next target.
8. **Assassination of Franz Ferdinand 1914** The heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary was shot by Gavrilo Princip, a young Serb terrorist, in Sarajevo in Bosnia.

Imperialism

The great powers were all trying to gain colonies. Each colony provided raw materials and markets for their manufactured goods. Colonies contributed to the wealth of the Great Powers and increased their status.

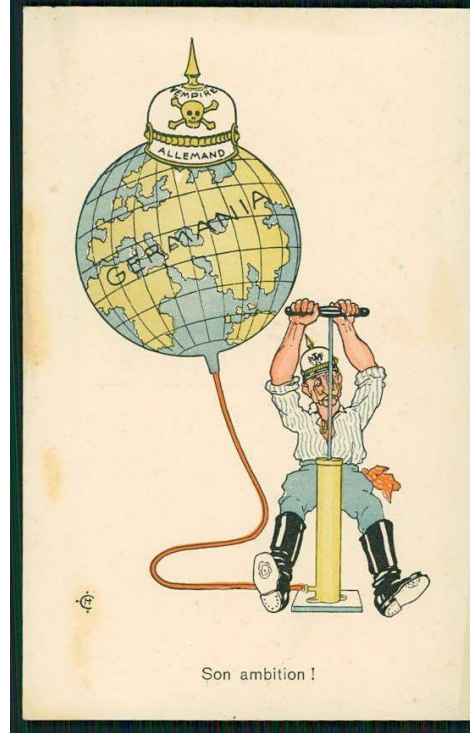
Britain had the largest overseas Empire and the largest navy, designed to keep the sea routes open and defend against enemy shipping.

France had the second largest empire and was keen to keep hold of their colonies. They had lost Alsace-Lorraine to Germany in 1871 and wanted to ensure they didn't lose any more.

Russia didn't have an overseas empire but it did want to expand into Manchuria in China and into the Balkans, so that its navy would have access to the Mediterranean Sea.

Austria-Hungary had a large empire in Europe containing many different nationalities, some of whom wanted independence. Austria-Hungary was determined to keep its Empire together.

Germany wanted to become a world power. From 1871 Germany acquired the Cameroons, South West Africa, East Africa and Togo in Africa, and Kaiser-Wilhelmsland in Papua New Guinea. By 1914 it had the third largest empire in the world. It needed a strong navy to defend them, which would have been seen as a threat by Britain.



Alliances

In 1882, Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy formed the Triple Alliance. This alarmed France, Britain and Russia. By 1907, they had all joined the Triple Entente. Europe was divided into two armed camps, to help each other if there was a war. Many believed that the alliance would keep Europe free from war, as no one would be crazy enough to set off a war between the alliances. However, the German Kaiser believed that Germany was being surrounded by hostile powers that were determined to stop Germany becoming a great power.

Nationalism

The Balkans had once been part of the Ottoman Empire, but as this power weakened Turkey began to lose control of them. They began demanding their independence. Local wars broke out. The Austro-Hungarian Emperor, Franz Josef, was afraid that the different peoples in the Austro-Hungarian Empire, particularly the Serbs, would try to demand independence too. If this happened, their Empire would collapse.

Other nations were taking an interest in the region. Russia was also taking an interest in the Balkans, aiming to protect the Serbs in Serbia and to gain access to the Mediterranean through the Dardanelles. Germany hoped to build a railway between Berlin and Baghdad through the Balkans, giving it access to the oil fields of Iraq. Italy wanted control of the coastline on the other side of the Adriatic Sea.

The Schlieffen Plan

Germany had been preparing for war long before 1914. In fact, Germany had started drawing up a plan for war - the Schlieffen Plan - in 1897. It was based on the theory that Germany would be at war with France and Russia at the same time. It did not prepare for many of the events that occurred in July and August 1914. It was based on the belief that, if the country went to war, Germany would be faced with a war on two fronts with France and Russia. The plan assumed that France was weak and could be beaten quickly, and that Russia was much stronger, but would take longer to mobilise its army.

The plan began to go wrong on 30 July 1914, when Russia mobilised its army, but France did not. Germany was forced to invent a pretext to declare war on France (3 August 1914). Things got worse when Britain declared war on Germany on 4 August 1914 because Britain had promised to defend Belgium in a Treaty of 1839.



Militarism

In 1898 Kaiser Wilhelm II announced his intention to build a powerful German navy, hoping to become a world power by challenging the power of Britain. In 1898 and 1900, Germany passed the German Navy Laws, ordering the building of 19 battleships in 1898, and 38 in 1900. The German naval chief, Admiral Tirpitz, set up the Navy League, which gave tours and lectures about the German Navy as a way to increase German patriotism and interest in the Navy. However, it alarmed the British. Their response to order the building of the most advanced battleship so far, HMS Dreadnought, in 1906. Germany built their own version in 1908, SMS Rheinland. This began a race between the countries competing to build more and more of these powerful battleships in a naval arms race. By 1914, Britain had 29 Dreadnought style ships, and Germany now had 17, doubling the size of its navy and becoming the second largest navy in the world. This caused alarm in Europe.

The Balkan Wars (1912-13)

During these wars, the Balkans fought for Turkey and then each other, leading to an increase in nationalism in the area. In 1912, Bulgaria, Greece, Montenegro and Serbia joined together to form the Balkan League. Serbia had grown in strength, size and influence as a result of the wars. There was a rise in Serbian nationalism, making it a direct threat to the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

2 October 1912



Драгутин Т. Димитријевић-Апис

The Black Hand

In 1908, Austria annexed (seized) the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, making them part of their Empire. The provinces contained thousands of Serbs.

In 1911, a group of young Serbian officers formed a secret society, called 'Unification or Death' and their aim was to unite all Serbs in the Balkans under the leadership of Serbia. They became known by their symbol – the Black Hand. Membership grew rapidly, and included army officers, and some government officials. They were led by the Serbian Intelligence Minister, Colonel Dragutin Dimitrijevic, codenamed 'Apis'.

The Black Hand blew up bridges, planted bombs, cut telephone wires and murdered officials. Austria-Hungary was afraid that the Serbs within their Empire would revolt. They also suspected that the government of Serbia was behind the Black Hand. The leader of the Black Hand in Sarajevo was Gavrilo Princep.



The Assassination of Franz Ferdinand

Sarajevo was in Bosnia, the province that - to Serbia's anger - had been **annexed** by Austria-Hungary in 1908.

Archduke Franz Ferdinand was heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary. He was in Bosnia on the 28th June 1914 to watch army displays and then go to the capital, Sarajevo, to be welcomed by city officials. He was hoping to give greater freedoms to the Serbian people living in Bosnia. It was also his wedding anniversary, so he brought his wife, Sophie with him for their first royal tour together. It also happened to be the national day of the Serbian people, which was seen as offensive to some Serbs.

Seven young Bosnian Serbs of the Black Hand gang planned to assassinate Franz Ferdinand as he drove along the main road in Sarajevo, the Appel Quay. The first conspirator, Nedeljko Cabrinovic, who tried to kill Franz Ferdinand threw a bomb at his car. He missed and was arrested.

The Archduke escaped unhurt. They carried on to the town hall as planned. Later that day Franz Ferdinand decided to visit the wounded in hospital before returning to the station to return home. However, no one had told the driver the route had changed. On the way, therefore, the driver turned into Franz Josef Street, following the published route and, when told of his error, stopped the car to turn around.

Unfortunately, the car stopped in front of Gavrilo Princip, the leader of the Black Hand, who was on his way home thinking he had failed. Princip pulled out a gun and shot at Franz Ferdinand, hitting him in the jugular vein. There was a tussle, during which Princip shot and killed Sophie. By 11.30am, Franz Ferdinand had bled to death. As news spread of the murder, anti-Serb riots spread across the Austro-Hungarian Empire, especially in Sarajevo. Serbs were killed, and over 100 of their homes, shops, offices and schools were raided or wrecked.

The Outbreak of war

5 July The Austrian government asks the German government if it will support Austria in a war against Russia, if Russia supports Serbia. The Germans say they will support whatever the Austrian government decides to do - the so called 'blank cheque'.

23 July The Austrian government sends the Serbian government an ultimatum.

25 July The Serbians accept all the conditions except one - that Austrian police should be allowed into Serbia.

28 July Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia.

30 July The Russian army is mobilised.

1 August Germany declares war on Russia, having warned them on 29th July not to mobilise their troops.

3 August Germany declares war on France and, following the Schlieffen Plan, attacks Belgium.

4 August Britain keeps the promise made in a treaty of 1839 to defend neutral Belgium, and declares war on Germany.



Trench warfare

On the Western Front, the war was fought by soldiers in trenches as soldiers were unable to openly advance on the enemy without significant casualties

Trenches were long, narrow ditches dug into the ground where soldiers lived.

They were very muddy, uncomfortable and the toilets overflowed. These conditions caused some soldiers to develop medical problems such as trench foot.

There were many lines of German trenches on one side and many lines of Allied trenches on the other. In the middle was no man's land, which soldiers crossed to attack the other side.

The Christmas Truce

During the first Christmas of the war, something unique happened in some parts of the Western front. On Christmas Eve, soldiers from both sides put down their weapons and met in no man's land. They sang carols like 'Silent Night' ('Stille Nacht' in German). Men from both sides gave gifts to each other. The Germans gave sausages to the British and the British gave the Germans chocolates. On Christmas Day, a British soldier kicked a football out of his trench and the Germans joined in. It was reported that Germany won the match 3-2. The British High Command did not agree with the truce. They even suggested the Germans were planning an attack. They were ignored and no guns were fired on Christmas Day 1914. The truce lasted until the New Year in some parts of the Western Front. But it wasn't long before soldiers on both sides returned to life in the trenches.

A typical day in the trenches

5am 'Stand-to' (short for 'Stand-to-Arms', meaning to be on high-alert for enemy attack) half an hour before daylight

5.30am Rum ration

6am Stand-down half an hour after daylight

7am Breakfast (usually bacon and tea)

After 8am Clean selves and weapons, tidy trench

Noon Dinner

After dinner Sleep and downtime

5pm Tea

6pm Stand-to half an hour before dusk

6.30pm Stand-down half an hour after dusk

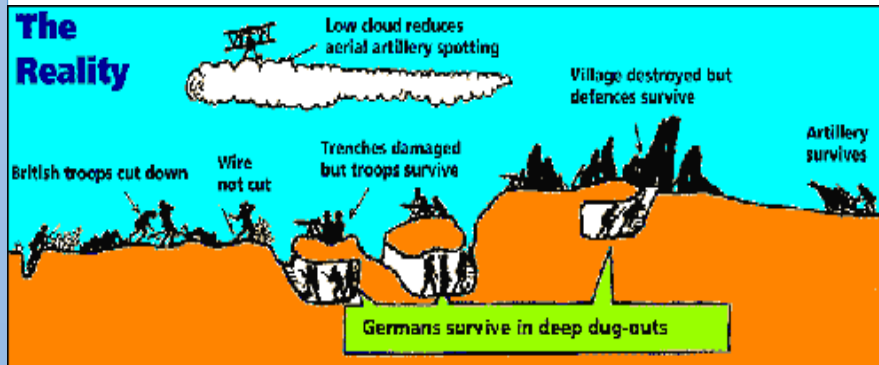
6.30pm onwards Work all night with some time for rest (patrols, digging trenches, putting up barbed wire, getting stores)

Soldiers only got to sleep in the afternoon during daylight and at night for an hour at a time. During rest time they wrote letters and played card games.



The Battle of the Somme

1st July 1916 saw another important battle happen to try and break the situation of stalemate. It was becoming increasingly clear that the Allies were not making enough progress on the Western Front, gaining little ground and remaining in the front lines of the trenches. In order to win the war an attack on Germany was needed. Sir Douglas Haig was put in charge of this attack. He was a veteran of other wars, namely the Boer War and seemed to have a good command.



What went wrong?

The week-long artillery bombardment actually warned the enemy that an attack was coming. This gave them plenty of time to prepare for it. The German dugouts were well made and heavily defended. The German soldiers were able to hide in their underground bunkers until the infantry attack started. The bombardment had churned up the ground badly making the British advance more difficult. Many British artillery shells failed to explode, so some parts of the German defences had not even been touched. When the men went over-the-top at 7:30 am on 1st July, wave after wave were simply mown down by enemy fire.

The Plan

The Battle was planned as a joint attack by the British and the French, however the French were under pressure at Verdun so they could not join in. Haig wanted to delay the fighting so that his would have more time to prepare, but the French insisted so Haig organised the attack.

The attack would begin with a week-long artillery bombardment of the German front line to destroy their defences. (Haig claimed, 'not even a rat would be alive' at the end of it.) The Infantry (foot soldiers) would then advance to take hold of the German positions, closely followed by a charge of Cavalry (soldiers on horses) who would sweep through breaking the enemy line in two.

Outcome

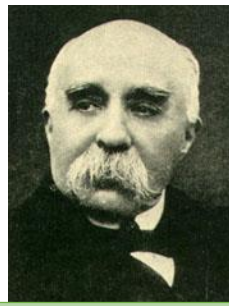
Approximately 60,000 men were killed or wounded by the end of the first day. The French, attacking where the German defences were weaker, were more successful but without back up from the British they were unable to hold on to their advance.

Haig allowed the bloodshed to continue despite the growing losses. By the time he called off the attack on 28th November 1916, more than 450,000 British, 200,000 French and 650,000 German soldiers had been slaughtered. After four months of fighting the Allies had advanced a distance of no more than five miles. Due to the fact lack of land was gained and the amount of casualties and deaths suffered in the first day and then in the battles entirety, there is still debate about whether Haig should be called 'The Butcher of the Somme'.

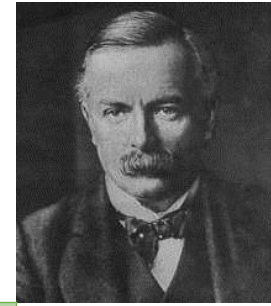
Why did Germany surrender?

Ludendorff announced in 1918 that if Germany was to win the war then the allies had to be defeated on the Western Front before the arrival of American troops. Although his offensive was initially successful the allies held ground and eventually pushed the Germans back. By 1918 there were strikes and demonstrations in Berlin and other cities protesting about the effects of the war on the population. The British naval blockade of German ports meant that thousands of people were starving. Socialists were waiting for the chance to seize Germany as they had in Russia. In October 1918 Ludendorff resigned and the German navy mutinied. The end was near. Kaiser Wilhelm II abdicated on November 9th 1918. On 11th November the leaders of both sides held a meeting in Ferdinand Foch's railway carriage headquarters at Compiègne.

The Armistice was signed at 6am and came into force five hours later. Germany had to accept the War Guilt Clause that was set out by The Treaty of Versailles; "The Allied governments affirm, and **Germany accepts**, the responsibility of Germany and her allies for **causing all the loss and damage** to which the Allied governments and their peoples have been subjected as a result of the war."



Premier George Clemenceau, France. Nicknamed 'the Tiger'.



British Prime Minister David Lloyd George, an experience politician.



President Woodrow Wilson, USA, who brought the USA into the war in 1917.

Key Terms of the Treaty of Versailles

1. The German navy was only allowed six battleships and not allowed to build any tanks, planes or submarines
2. The Austrian Empire was broken up into independent nations. Austria was forbidden to unite with Germany.
3. Germany had to pay £6.6 billion in damages.
4. Germany had to accept blame for starting the war.
5. Germany was not allowed to keep any troops on the area that bordered France (the Rhineland).
6. Germany's colonies were taken back and returned to the people to self govern or given to the allies.
7. German lost about 13% of it's territories including Alsace-Lorraine.
8. The German army was cut by 100,000 men and only volunteers could join.
9. The League of Nations was set up to allow countries to talk over their problems.



EUROPE AFTER THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES, 1919

Reactions to the Treaty

The Treaty did not keep the 'Big Three' happy as not one really believed that they had benefited fully from it.

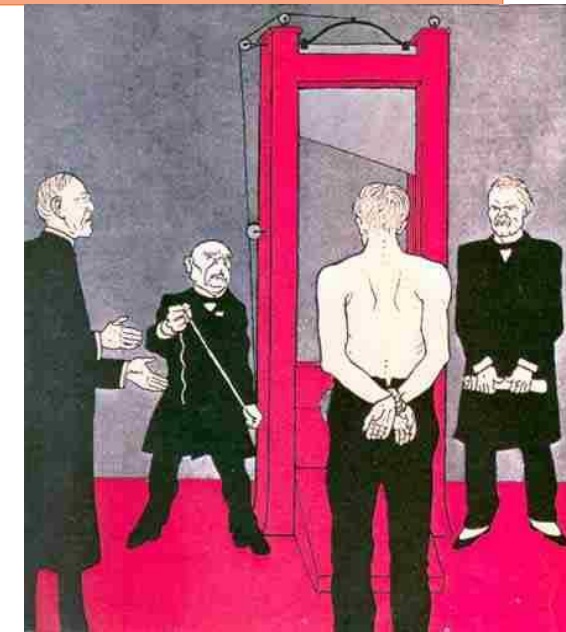
Clemenceau did not think it was harsh enough and believed that France had not benefited from it. He wanted Germany to be broken into smaller states so they had little chance of rising to power or being a threat again. Wilson was not impressed with the fact that the Treaty was focusing on punishment rather than peace and the fact that the concept of self-determination had not been dealt with. This meant that empires still existed which caused tensions.

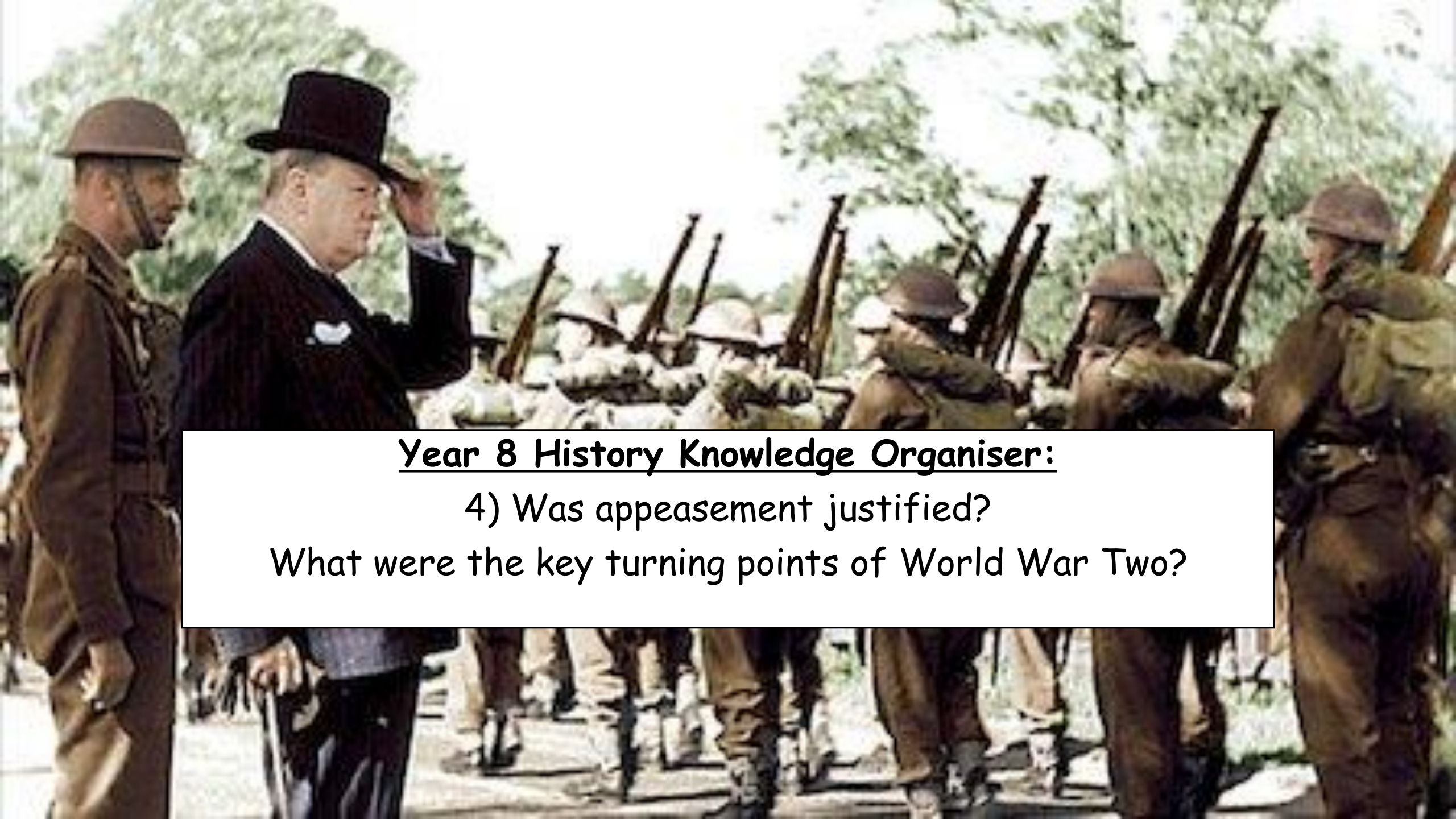
Lloyd George predicted that the treaty would lead to another war in 25 years time (from 1919) and was literally smack on with his prediction. He believed that he had a good treaty for Britain, but not for Germany and not for peace.

German Reaction

Germany was not allowed to participate in the negotiations. The draft treaty was presented to the Germans in May 1919 and they were given 15 days to decide on their reply. The Germans were outraged at the severity of the treaty. The head of the German delegation, Count von Brockdorff-Rantzau, wrote to Clemenceau:

"We were aghast when we read in documents the demands made upon us, the victorious violence of our enemies. The more deeply we penetrate into the spirit of this treaty, the more convinced we become of the impossibility of carrying it out. The exactions of this treaty are more than the German people can bear."





Year 8 History Knowledge Organiser:

4) Was appeasement justified?

What were the key turning points of World War Two?

1) The Treaty of Versailles

Aims of the Big 3:

France: Clemenceau wants a harsh peace, huge reparations, a limited German military, the Rhineland and Alsace-Lorraine.

Britain: David Lloyd George wins the election promising to “Make Germany Pay.” This includes wanting German colonies, a weak German navy and to be able to trade with Germany again.

USA: Woodrow Wilson, the US President, wants the 14 points. These include no secret treaties, freedom of the seas, a League of Nations, self-determination and independent Poland and Belgium.



Terms of the Treaty:

War Guilt Clause – Germany was blamed for the war.

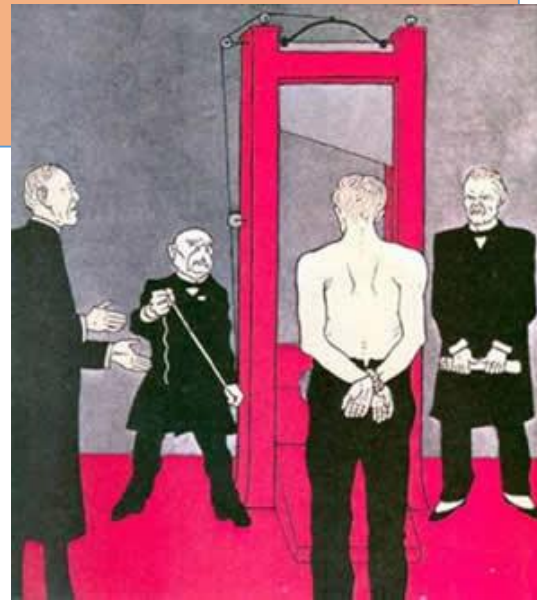
Reparations of £6,600,000,000.

German army reduced to 100,000 men, 6 battleships, no air force or submarines.

German land restricted by c.13% including the Polish Corridor to Poland, Alsace Lorraine to France, the Saarland placed under League of Nations control, Danzig made an independent city.

All German colonies handed over to the Allies.

A League of Nations to be set up. Germany was not allowed in it.



German reaction:

Diktat: The Treaty was forced upon them and they had no say in its preparation. They were forced to accept it or Germany would be invaded.

November Criminals: Term used to describe the German government who agreed to surrender.

Dolchstoß: The myth that the German army was never defeated but was instead stabbed in the back by the Weimar politicians.

Unfair: The Germans surrendered expecting to receive Wilson's 14 Points. But only Germany was blamed, only Germany had to disarm, German people did not get self-determination in the land that was taken away. All of this led Germans to think the Treaty was horribly unfair and many were determined to do away with the Treaty as soon as they could.

2) The League of Nations in the 1920s

The formation of the League

1920 – The League of Nations was formed. The main aims were to stop wars, improve living and working conditions, disarmament and to enforce the Treaty of Versailles.

Britain and France were the most powerful members of the League, and formed the Council with Japan and Italy.

The US senate would not sanction the USA's involvement because the League was seen to be European, they were isolationist and did not want to join any more wars, because the US people were against the Treaty and also due to the number of German immigrants in the USA. Russia had just turned Communist in 1917 and were wary of the rest of Europe.

Germany were not invited as part of their punishment in the Treaty.

LEAGUE POSSIBLE ACTIONS:-

- 1) CONDEMNATION
- 2) ECONOMIC SANCTIONS
- 3) MILITARY FORCE

The structure of the League:-

THE COUNCIL – consisted of 5 permanent members of the League. This included Britain, France, Italy and Japan. They met 5 times a year.

THE ASSEMBLY – The League's parliament. All countries sat in it. It met once a year and all decisions had to be unanimous.

THE SECRETARIAT – The League's civil service which enforced decisions.

PERMANENT COURT OF INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE met in the Hague to settle disputes. Solved the Aaland islands dispute.

MANDATES COMMISSION – Managed new colonies.

REFUGEES COMMISSION – Returned an estimated 400,000 refugees home after the war.

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION – empowered to improve working conditions.

HEALTH COMMITTEE – Focussed on the eradication of Malaria and Leprosy.

DID YOU KNOW that the League achieved social improvements in the 1920's?
REFUGEES – 400,000 people were returned home after the war.
WORKING CONDITIONS – Poisonous paint was banned, child labour hours reduced and a maximum 48 hour working week was set up.
HEALTH – The League helped to eradicate Malaria and Leprosy. It helped with the Plague in Siberia.
The League fought successful campaigns against drug trafficking and human slavery. It was responsible for freeing the 200,000 slaves in British owned Sierra Leone.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS



SOCIETE DES NATIONS

3) The League of Nations in the 1920s International Disputes

Successes

UPPER SILESIA – 1921

Dispute between Germany and Poland over ownership. League oversaw a plebiscite (vote) and divided the region between Germany and Poland. Both countries accepted the decision.

AALAND ISLANDS – 1921

Both Finland and Sweden claimed the islands. Both sides threatened to go to war. Eventually Sweden accepted the League's ruling that the islands should belong to Finland.

GREEK-BULGARIAN DISPUTE – 1925

In 1925 Greek soldiers were killed on the border of Bulgaria. Greek troops invaded and Bulgaria appealed to the League for help. The League demanded that both sides stand down and told Greek forces to withdraw from Bulgaria. Both Britain and France backed the League's judgement. Greece obeyed, but pointed out that there seemed to be one rule for large states such as Italy and another one for smaller states such as Greece. The outcome was seen as a major success for the League.

Failures

VILNA – 1920

Vilna was given to Lithuania although the population were Polish. Poland occupied the city. The Lithuanians appealed for help and the League did nothing. Poland kept it.

CORFU – 1923

In 1923 a group of Italian surveyors led by General Tellini were murdered on the Greek/Albanian border.

Mussolini blamed the Greeks and ordered compensation to be paid by Greece. They refused until evidence proved that the Greek people were to blame.

Mussolini bombed and occupied the Greek island of Corfu. The Greeks appealed to the League for support.

The League initially supported Greece and told Mussolini to leave Greece alone. But France was unwilling to act being more focused on it's issue in the Ruhr in Germany. Britain was willing to intervene, but would not act without the backing of France.

Mussolini claimed the League had not authority to intervene and bullied the Conference of Ambassadors and the Greeks to apologise and pay compensation directly to Italy. There was anger in the League, but the ruling was never overturned.

4) The League in the 1930s

1929 - WALL STREET CRASH leads to US and worldwide depression. Germany hit hardest as loans need to be repaid. The crash leads to the collapse of the world markets and the lack of trade between USA and the rest of the world. This leads to global unemployment and the need for change in countries. Countries created policies of protectionism (raising tariffs to limit imports and protect their own business), but as more countries did this foreign trade began to dry up. They also pursued the policy of rearmament (boosting industry and finding jobs for the unemployed in the army). Afraid of looking weak, other states followed and more countries did the same. Electors look for strong leaders who wish for change and this generally leads to the growth of the power of the dictator. Dictators become stronger with aggressive foreign policies that will put pressure on the already weak league.

The dictators are:-

Mussolini – Italy
Hitler – Germany
Stalin – USSR
Hirohito – Japan
Franco – Spain

1931- The Japanese invade Manchuria after an explosion on the jointly owned South Manchurian railway at Mukden. Chiang Kaishek, the Chinese Emperor appeals to the League for help.

The League send Lord Lytton to investigate. He takes a year to file a report blaming Japan.

In 1932 the Japanese re-name Manchuria as Manchukuo and place Pu Yi, an ex-Chinese Emperor, in charge of the region.

The League can't agree on sanctioning the sale of arms so the condemn Japan and ask them to leave the Manchuria.

In 1933 the Japanese left the league.

Britain still relied on trade with Japan and would not stand firm.

1931-1933 – The failure of the World Disarmament Conference.

In 1931 Germany asked the members of the conference to disarm to their Treaty of Versailles level.

Countries refused for the following reasons:-

France still saw Germany as a threat. Japan were at war in China and needed the army.

Britain needed an army to protect the empire.

Italy had plans to use their army in Africa.

In October 1933 Hitler withdrew from the World Disarmament Conference and began to re-arm secretly.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 1935 Britain and France signed the Stresa Pact with Italy. They agreed to protect each other from Germany.

5) The League in the 1930s

The Abyssinian Crisis – 1935

Why did Italy wish to invade?

- 1) Abyssinia had fertile lands and mineral wealth.
- 2) Mussolini wanted to restore Italy to the glory of the Roman Empire.
- 3) The Italians wanted to use the Suez Canal as a transport route through to their African Empire.

Events

In October 1935 the Italians attacked the oasis town of Wal Wal with gas, planes and tanks.

The Abyssinian Emperor, Haile Selassie, complained to the League. The League stalled as Britain and France wanted to protect their own interests. They signed the Stresa Pact with Italy. Mussolini perhaps took this as a sign that his actions in Abyssinia would be ignored.

League's response 1935-1936

The League met in 1935 and the British foreign secretary, Samuel Hoare, made a speech at the League Assembly stressing Britain's commitment to collective security. A committee was sent to investigate the Wal-Wal incident and after 8 months reported that neither side should be blamed and Italy should be given some Abyssinian territory. Mussolini rejected these proposals.

The League met in late 1935 to discuss sanctions. Britain vetoed the sanction of coal on the basis that the coal miners would lose their jobs at Christmas. The League could not sanction oil as they suspected that the USA would supply it. Eventually they sanctioned the sale of arms. Britain did not close the Suez Canal which could have stopped Italy's supplies to Abyssinia.

In 1936 the crisis spiralled out of control. Sir Samuel Hoare, the British Foreign Minister, and Pierre Laval, the French Foreign minister, discussed a plan to give Mussolini 2/3 of Abyssinia if he would allow the Abyssinians to retain 1/3.

The plan was leaked by the press and both politicians resigned from their jobs.

In 1936 the Italians took the Abyssinian capital, Addis Ababa and Selassie fled. Italy took the country.

The USA Congress was appalled by the Hoare-Laval Pact and blocked a move to support sanctions against Italy. In March 1936 the German leader Adolf Hitler marched his troops into the Rhineland, in open defiance of the Treaty of Versailles. The hope of French sanctions against Italy collapsed as France now needed Italian support against the German threat.



6) HITLER'S FOREIGN POLICY – The Road To Appeasement

1933 – Hitler becomes Chancellor with **5**

main aims:-

- 1) To reverse the Treaty of Versailles.
- 2) To create a pure German race by uniting all the German speaking peoples of Europe.
- 3) To re-arm.
- 4) To create Lebensraum (living space) where the Aryan race would rule over an inferior race of Jews and Slavs.
- 5) Communism was a disease that needed to be wiped out. At some point Germany would clash with the USSR.

Rearmament 1933-35

Hitler began to rearm Germany in 1933 in defiance of the limits placed by the Treaty of Versailles. He drafted thousands of unemployed workers into the army to reduce unemployment and begins to create a stockpile of weapons, in secret at first. By 1935 he no longer bothered to hide the rearmament programme, boosting his prestige and gaining support in Germany.

1936 – In March 1936 Hitler marches into the **Rhineland** – directly breaking the Treaty of Versailles. It is a calculated risk based on the failure of Britain and France to act over Abyssinia.

Britain and France do nothing. Many British people feel that the Treaty was harsh and that Germany might be useful against the bigger threat of the USSR. The French are in social turmoil with strikes and riots in Paris. Hitler describes the invasion as the “most nerve wracking 48 hours of my life.” Lord Lothian famously adds that Germany is only walking in their own backyard. Hitler claimed that he needed this to protect himself, as he claimed he was being encircled following France and the USSR signing the Mutual Assistance Pact in 1936.

In October 1933 Hitler walks out of the **World Disarmament Conference** and prepares to re-arm secretly. In the same year he pulls Germany out of

1936 - Spanish Civil War

Civil War broke out between the republicans and nationalists. The USSR supported the republicans with weapons and aircraft. Britain and France refused to intervene. Germany and Italy said the same, but still supplied Franco, the nationalist leader, with troops, aircraft and other equipment. Franco had a similar ideology to both Hitler and Mussolini.

Because Britain and France did not get involved, Hitler assumed that he could take the same attitude to war. The terrible impact of the modern weapons, particularly bombing, convinced the British Prime Minister, Neville Chamberlain, that war must be avoided at all costs. Therefore the Civil War encouraged Hitler in his plan to reverse the Treaty of Versailles. The USSR also became increasingly suspicious of Britain and France because of their reluctance to oppose Hitler and Mussolini.

1935 – **The Saar** Coalfield returns to Germany following a plebiscite. 98% of the Saarlanders vote to return to Germany. Hitler will use the coal to fire up his armaments factories.

Italy and Germany sign the Rome-Berlin axis 1936-7

Hitler and Mussolini had shown that their armed forces were effective and they were ready to use them. Japan was effectively also now under the control of the nationalist leader General Tojo, under the Emperor Hirohito. The leaders saw that they had much in common. In 1936 Germany and Japan signed the anti-Comintern Pact to pledge their opposition to Communism. In 1937, Italy also signed the pact. The three countries now became known as the Axis alliance.

7) Appeasing Hitler

March 1938 – Germany marches through the Brenner Pass to complete the Anschluss with Austria. Mussolini allows the event to happen after stopping it in 1934.

Hitler achieves the Anschluss by instructing the Austrian Nazis to riot in protest of Chancellor Schuschnigg's government.

Schuschnigg appealed to Britain and France to put pressure on Hitler, but they did nothing.

Schuschnigg wants a vote of the Austrian people until he is manoeuvred out of power.

Britain is happy for Hitler to intervene as he is keeping peace. France ignores the situation after political turmoil caused by changing governments.

A plebiscite was organised, in which 99.75% of the population agreed to the Anschluss. This was a significant success for Hitler.

In September 1938 Hitler instructs Nazis in the Sudetenland to cause riots and demand to join with Germany. The Sudetenland was part of Czechoslovakia, but the population was 74% German. Hitler demanded fair treatment for the German Sudetens, and threatened to invade if Czechoslovakia did not hand over the region to German control.

The Sudetenland was rich in raw materials and minerals. It contained the fortresses that protected Czechoslovakia and contained the Skoda Arms factory.

Benes, the Czech leader, was worried about the situation as Hitler threatened war. He asked Britain and France to intervene at once. This leads to APPEASEMENT.

APPEASEMENT and MUNICH – Appeasement means to resolve an argument with diplomacy rather than war.

Neville Chamberlain, the British PM, flew to Munich three times to resolve the Sudeten dispute.

The reasons he chose to appease Hitler were:-

- 1) Britain was not ready for war.
- 2) 66% of the British population were against going to war over Czechoslovakia.
- 3) The feeling was that Hitler could still be useful against the threat from Communist Russia.
- 4) Chamberlain wanted to avoid a repeat of WW1. He was a government member then and it saddened him to remember the lost lives.

The meetings at Munich, 1938

15 September: Chamberlain flew to meet Hitler. It appeared to go well. Hitler moderated his demands, saying he was only interested in parts of the Sudetenland and only if a plebiscite showed that the Sudeten Germans wanted to join Germany. Chamberlain thought that this was reasonable, and that if Hitler got what he wanted, he would be satisfied.

19 September: France and Britain put to Czechoslovakia their plans to give Hitler the parts of the Sudetenland that he wanted.

22 September: Hitler increased his demands. He said that he wanted the whole of the Sudetenland. Chamberlain told Hitler that his demands were unreasonable. War seemed imminent.

29 September: Mussolini agreed to join Hitler, Chamberlain and Daladier (the French leader) at a Four Power summit in Munich.

The other leaders agreed to give Hitler the Sudetenland. This became known as the MUNICH AGREEMENT. The Czechs were not consulted, nor was the USSR. The following morning, Chamberlain and Hitler published a joint declaration, which Chamberlain said would bring 'peace for our time'.

Many newspapers hailed the Munich Agreement as a triumph. Chamberlain was greeted by cheering crowds upon his return to Britain. However, there was still some criticism. Opinion polls in September 1938 show that a majority of the British people did not think appeasement would stop Hitler.

8) HITLER'S FOREIGN POLICY – The Road To War

March 1939 – Six months after the Munich Agreement Germany began to prepare their forces for an invasion of the rest of Czechoslovakia. Benes, the Czech President, appealed to Britain and France for help. They were not in a good military position to provide support. The Czechs were strong and prepared to fight the Germans. Hitler threatened to bomb Prague and Benes relented. The Germans marched peacefully to take the rest of Czechoslovakia. Many Czechs wept as the Germans marched in.

August 1939 – Hitler wanted to invade Poland, but feared the might of the USSR.

In August 1939 the world was stunned when Nazism and Communism, the fiercest of political rivals, joined together in the Nazi-Soviet Pact. The pact was signed one week before the planned invasion of Poland. The pact was agreed by Ribbentrop and Molotov the German and Russian foreign ministers.

In the pact the Germans agreed to attack Poland from the west with the Russians attacking from the East. The reasons the pact was signed was:-
1) Germany was afraid of the might of the Russian army.
2) After Munich Stalin felt that he could not trust Britain and France.
3) Both benefited by gaining Poland.
4) Stalin feared Hitler's Germany and thought it better to have them on side.

On September 1st 1939 the Nazis launched a shockingly brutal attack on Poland. They used the new tactics of blitzkrieg which involved air bombing and tank attacks. The British and French gave Hitler an ultimatum. He was told to withdraw from Poland by 11 am on September 3rd or face war.

On 3rd September at 11am Chamberlain announced that Britain was at war. He was followed by a speech by King Edward. The Polish resistance continued to fight, but Warsaw was destroyed in the attack.

Did Appeasement fail?

YES – It did not stop war and led to the destruction of Czechoslovakia. Appeasement drove Stalin to seek a pact with Hitler which led to the destruction of Poland,
NO – It brought Britain time to prepare for war and the British people did not want to fight over Czechoslovakia. Nobody wanted a repeat of the loss of life that WW1 brought

What were the causes of World War Two?

Treaty of Versailles caused German bitterness which fuelled revenge in the form of the Nazi party.

The Wall Street Crash caused the Great Depression which affected Germany badly due to their economic position caused by reparations and their reliance on the USA. This eventually gave President Hindenburg no choice but to offer Hitler the Chancellorship. Hitler was a dictator with an aggressive foreign policy aiming at revenge and the destruction of the Treaty of Versailles.

Britain and France and the League of Nations were slow to react to events, lacked punitive measures and allowed Hitler too much freedom over the Rhineland, Austria and the Munich Agreement. The Munich Agreement encouraged Hitler to invade further and disregard Britain and France as a threat to his plans which they ultimately were .

9) Timeline of World War Two

1933	Hitler took Germany out of League of nations showing that he does not accept the authority of France and Great Britain on international relationships in Europe.
1935	Saar Plebiscite. In the popular vote Saar is returned to Germany after 20 year under the control of League of Nations.
1935	Rearmament. Hitler breaks one of the conditions of the Treaty of Versailles and restores conscription, navy and air force and starts producing weapons.
1936	Remilitarisation of Rhineland. In March of 1936 Hitler moves German troops into the area of Rhineland, breaking one of the conditions of the treaty of Versailles.
1936-1937	Hitler makes an alliance with Italian leader Benito Mussolini to cooperate against communists in the civil War in Spain.
1935-1938	Hitler sends German troops to fight alongside nationalist dictator against communists in Civil War in Spain. The war becomes a trial ground for Germany's new war tactics and military equipment.
March 1938	Anschluss with Austria. Plebiscite in Austria takes a vote to decide if Austria is going to be independent or unite with Germany. With Nazi troops in control of the country 99.7% of the population "volunteers" for union with Germany.
September 1938	Sudeten Crisis. For several years now Hitler has been demanding an area of independent country of Czechoslovakia called Sudetenland to become part of Germany because of large German minority living in this area. Using false accusations of violence against the Germans Hitler's army entered Czechoslovakia and occupied the area. In a conference in Munich in September of 1938 France, Great Britain and Italy agree to German occupation of the Sudetenland in return for promise of peace and not further territorial demands from Hitler. In march 1939 Hitler occupies the rest of Czechoslovakian territory.
August 1939	Nazi- Soviet Pact. Hitler signs an agreement of non-aggression with Stalin, leader of Soviet Union. The secret cause agrees simultaneous attack on Poland and division of its territory between Germany and Soviet Union.

10) The Nazi Conquest of Europe

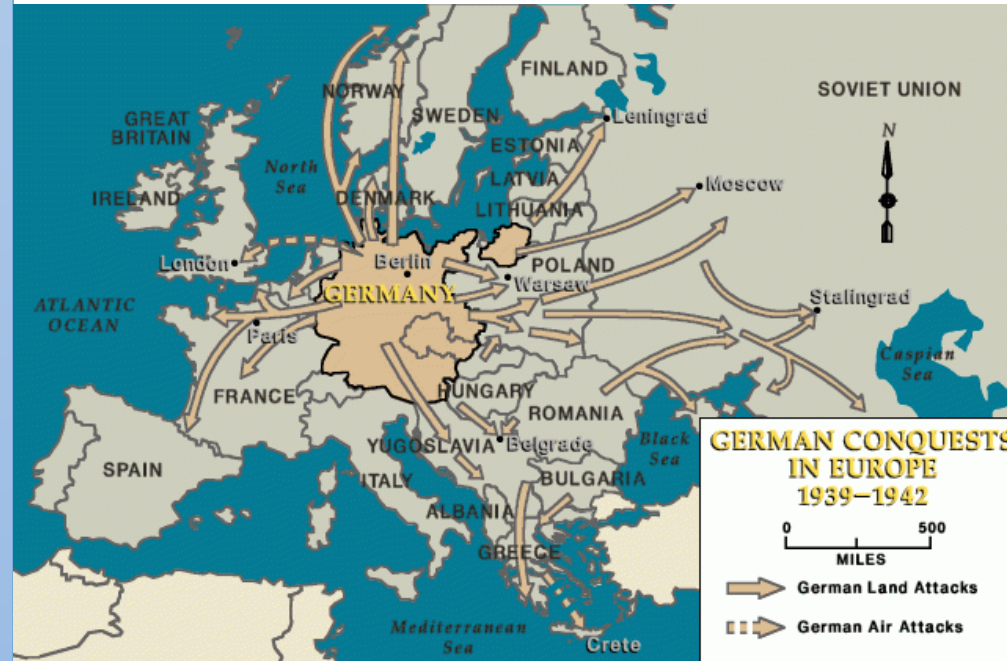
The attack on Poland and start of WWII.

After the success in Munich Hitler started making similar demands from Poland. He demanded so called Polish Corridor, an area in the north Poland to connect mainland Germany to East Prussia which became separated by decisions of Treaty of Versailles. He also was trying to convince Polish government to cooperate with Germany against Soviet Union. When Polish government refused both demands Hitler decided to attack Poland in September.

In the early hours of the morning, on 1st of September 1939 a group of German soldiers attacked the main post office building in Gdansk, a city under shared control of Germany and Poland. 30 minutes later a bombardment of Polish defence points called Westerplatte started. The unit defended itself for 30 days despite being cut off from any supply lines and counting only 300 soldiers against over 2,000 of German and heavy bombardment. After 30 days the soldiers capitulated after promise of safety. They were executed on site despite earlier promises. Three German armies entered Poland in coordinated attack from the west while Soviet Red Army attacked from the east. By 17th of September 1939

Polish army was overpowered and Poland was occupied. On 3rd of September 1939 Great Britain declared war on Germany. The period between this and the start of actual fighting is called Phoney War.

A map of progress of German troops during the Blitzkrieg.



The list of the countries attacked during Blitzkrieg:

Poland (attacked in September 1939), Denmark (April 1940), Norway (April 1940), Belgium (May 1940), the Netherlands (May 1940), Luxembourg (May 1940), France (May 1940), Yugoslavia (April 1941), and Greece (April 1941).

What was Blitzkrieg?

Blitzkrieg was a military offensive strategy using speed and surprise used by Germans during WWII. The tactics used light tanks, infantry (foot soldiers) and dive bombers in simultaneous strike. The technique was used by Germans with some success during WWI but it was improved and modernised to be used during WWII. Speed of the attack meant that the enemy armies would be cut off from their communication and supply lines and there will be no time to evacuate civilians. Retreating civilians would cause even more confusion and delays as they would block any access for possible reinforcement by occupying the roads. The Blitzkrieg attack was broken into three steps:

- A target would be chosen to cause the biggest possible impact on defence lines.
- Stuka bombers would bomb the roads, railway lines and communication centres around the target.
- Light tanks would reach the target within hours of the first attack.
- The soldiers would be transported into the area using half-tracks so that Germans can fully control the area.
- Retreating civilians were attacked to add to the panic and occupy medical services.
- The next target was chosen and the process was repeated.

11) Turning Points of World War Two

The Battle of Dunkirk

The reasons:

The fast advancing German army cut off 330,000 of Allied soldiers in the area North East from Calais, France. With the real danger of the Germans completely destroying the Allied army, the British command created an evacuation plan. The plan was called Operation Dynamo.

What happened?

Germany attacked Belgium and France at the start of May in two directions: one German army attacked from the North-East pushing through Belgium and another attacked directly through the border with France from the East.

The Germans made very quick progress with French and British forces withdrawing quickly in the direction of Calais and neighbouring towns.

By 21 of May Allied forces found themselves cut off from central France and pushed towards Norths East shores of France. The only solution to their problem was to prepare a full scale evacuation of Allied forces to Britain.

Between 27th of may 1940 to 4 June 1940 340,000 troops of British, French, Belgium and other Allied nation soldiers had been successfully evacuated.



The Battle of Britain

This was a battle for control over airspace and the seas surrounding British Isles. For Germany this was the first stage of a full scale invasion of the British Isles called operation Sea Lion. To cross the English Channel the German army had to completely destroy the British air force so it would not be able to attack German ships and barges and stopping them from ever reaching British shores. The battle was mainly consisting of small scale aerial combat between two short range fighter aircrafts called **dog fights**. The battle lasted for two months **between July and September of 1940**. The Germans failed to destroy the British air force. The Luftwaffe targeted mainly runways and military airports . The aim of the British was to destroy fighter planes sent to act as a protection for the bombers and so block their access to the mainland.

The Germans were unsuccessful and the plan of full scale invasion of Britain was called off in favour of heavy bombing of civilian and strategic targets to force British surrender. This change of tactics came in **September of 1940**. the bombing campaign is called **the Blitz**.

British planes:

Spitfire Fighter /361 mph/ 8 x
.303 machine guns
Hurricane Fighter/ 328 mph/ 8 x
.303 machine guns

German planes:

Messerschmitt 109 Fighter/ 357
mph/ 2 x 7.9 mm machine guns
1 x 20 mm cannon
Messerschmitt 110 Fighter/ 349
mph/ 2 x 20 mm cannon
4 x 7.9 mm machine guns
1 x 7.9 mm free mounted
machine gun
Junkers 88 Bombe/r 292 mph/
5,510 lbs. of bombs
Heinkel 111 Bomber/ 258 mph/
5,510 lbs. of bombs
Dornier 215 Bomber/ 311 mph/
2,215 lbs. of bombs

12) Why did Britain win the Battle of Britain?

British advantages	British weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Britain had was using RADAR as an early warning system before German attacks. At the time when the battle started there were 51 RADAR stations fully operational. • Royal Observer Corps was a special army unit tasked with the observation of the skies to warn about German • British planes did not have to travel very far before the fight so they could stay longer in the air and did not waste too much fuel before fighting. • The engineering team working on repairs in between the battles was exceptional. • The British had Spitfires. Even though the plane was not as fast as German fighters it was more maneuverable so it could turn in very tight circles making it very effective in dogfights. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only 800 fighter planes were fully operational at the start of the battle. • Majority of British planes were outdated. • Britain lacked experienced pilots but the problem was overcome by fast training and use of pilots of other Allied nations.



German advantages	German weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Germans had 2,000 modern planes at their disposal. • German raids were very well coordinated. • Germans were using Messerschmitt, very good fighter plane which had good range and was well armed for the fight but also very fast. • Germans had a good number of well trained pilots. • Germans had a number of hybrid planes. These were light weight bombers but heavily armed so if engaged they could defend themselves. • Germany had many more designs of planes to use in the battle. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • German planes had to travel all the way from the continent meaning that they were wasting much more fuel. This meant they had less fuel to sue for the dogfights themselves. • If German pilots were shot down they would be stranded in enemies territory. This had significant psychological impact. • Herman Goering was not familiar with modern methods of fighting and he made number of mistakes like for example stopped bombing RADAR stations because he did not understand how important was RADAR to the British.



13) Operation Barbarossa

Operation Barbarossa

After successfully occupying the western Europe, Hitler decided to double cross his ally the Soviet Union and attacked on 22 of June 1941. The plan of the attack was based on a massive offensive led by three separate army groups spread across all of Soviet western border. A total of 117 German army divisions aided by Romanian and Hungarian forces led the attack against 132 Russian divisions. In total the Germans and her allies used 3 million soldiers, 3580 tanks, 7184 artillery guns, 1830 planes and 750,000 horses.

The first 3 weeks of the attack were extremely successful. The German army was making fast progress and managed to capture over 300,000 of Soviet soldiers and 2,500 tanks, 1,400 artillery guns and 250 aircraft captured or destroyed.

German victory seemed inevitable but the faster the German army advanced the further they stretched the supply and communication lines, risking being stranded in Soviet

Union. In the second half of June Hitler changed the general direction of the attack from the offensive in the east to an offensive towards the north. This caused a massive delay meaning that now German forces were to fight in Russian territory during the winter.

The reasons for German success:

- **Joseph Stalin** executed a large number of army officers in 1930s during so called purges to remove any political opposition to his power. This meant that Red Army lacked experienced officers.
- **Soviet Union** was not expecting Germans to attack so they were not prepared.
- German divisions were very mobile and able to make quick progress in a good terrain.

The reasons for German failure:

- The deeper into Soviet territory Germans moved the more stretched the communication and supply lines. The risk of getting cut off was significant.
- The operation continued through the autumn and into the winter. German soldiers were not prepared for Russian winter.
- The winter of 1941 was very harsh, deep snow prevented supplies from ever reaching German army, their vehicles were getting stuck, soldiers were starving and freezing.
- Joseph Stalin adopted strategy of **scorched earth**. This meant that all towns and villages along the German path were evacuated to the east taking all the supplies with them. this left Germans in control of an empty land.
- Stalin **executed Dymitry Pavlov** who was in charge of the defence of Smolensk from the Germans for **cowardice** after he retreated and allowed the town to be occupy by Germans. This scared Soviet military leaders and soldiers to fight for their lives.
- The **Russians** were fighting to protect their homes and their homeland so were more committed to the fight.



The Battle of Stalingrad:

The Germans attacked Stalingrad in the summer of 1942. general Timoshenko was defending the city.

- Fredrick von Paulus was very successful outside of the city and managed to capture many Russian soldiers.
- After entering the city German progress was very slow because they had to fight for every street and the building. Often the area the secured on one day would be lost to Soviets the day after. German casualties rose to 28,000 in just one month.
- Von Paulus continued to fight and by November he controlled 90% of the city.
- By the middle of October German army found itself surrounded by three Soviet divisions and began to starve.
- Von Paulus was promised airlift of supplies by Goering but he failed to deliver. He only delivered one third of the supplies needed for German army to survive.
- Eventually, on 30th of January Of 1943 von Paulus was forced to surrender despite Hitler's suggestions he should commit suicide instead.
- The battle was the first significant success for the Allies against Germany.

14) Pearl Harbour

Pearl Harbour and United States joining the WWII.

On 7th of December 1941 Japan, one of Germany's allies unexpectedly attacked an American naval base in Hawaii. As a consequence the United States declared war on Japan and, bound by its alliance agreement, Germany declared war on the United States.

Reasons for the attack:

- The Japanese government wanted to expand its territory to gain access to natural resources needed for development of fast growing industry.
- The USA supported Japan's enemy, China in the conflict over Manchuria. The US chose to support the weak and underdeveloped China to protect its economic interests as the industrialised Japan would not allow for United States to trade in this area.
- The US traditionally supplied many natural resources for Japan but decided to end this partnership as a response to Japanese alliance with Nazi Germany.
- The Japanese emperor Hirohito wanted his country to become a leading power in the area of South West Asia and that stood in strong opposition to American interests.

Was the attack unexpected?

Many historians criticise the American government to the point of suggesting that the attack was allowed to happen to justify American entry to the war. There is no evidence suggesting that American government would allow needless loss of lives in this way but they should have expected the Japanese attack:

- American ambassador in Japan warned that Japanese was getting ready to launch an attack but was dismissed.
- Japanese communication preparing for the attack was intercepted by American and translated but the message was misunderstood.
- American RADAR spotted approaching Japanese planes but the duty officer assumed that it was a group of American B17 coming back from the mainland and never contacted them to check.

Was the attack a success or a failure for Japan?

Success	Failure
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Japanese inflicted significant damage using just 29 light bombers (20ships)• The attack was very well coordinated and crippled American fleet.• American suffered 2,395 casualties including 54 civilians.• Japan remained in control of the fighting until the battle of Medway 1942.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• The Japanese attack destroyed only 3 of American aircraft carriers beyond repair.• If Japanese would have attacked oil refineries on the shore they would have caused much more damage.• The attack and loss of lives strengthen American resolve to win against Japan.



15) D Day

What was D Day?

One of the largest operations launched, on 6th of June 1944 with the purpose of ending the war in Europe. 2 million American soldiers and 250,000 of Canadians arrived in Great Britain to get ready for the attack. The army brought with it purpose designed amphibious vehicles (vehicles that can swim but also travel on land), new types of tanks (including DD or duplex drive tanks) designed to target coastal defences and a large amount of aircraft to provide aerial support.



Why Normandy?

- The USA, under the leadership of general Dwight Eisenhower, always wanted to land in Western Europe as this was the most direct route to attack Germany and Berlin.
- Normandy was chosen as the most appropriate for landing but the operation relied on complete secrecy to succeed: similar operations in the past had caused huge casualties.

Operation Fortitude.

This was an operation created to mislead Germans into thinking that the attack was going to take place in Pas de Calais. The operations involved building fake bases with fake tanks and air crafts to convince Germans of gathering forces.

How had Germany defended the area around Normandy?

- The Germans were preparing for eventual attack along the western coast of Europe from late summer of 1942.
- General Rommel was put in charge and built a so called **Atlantic Wall**, a system of defences running along Atlantic coast from the Spanish-French border to the far reach of Northern Denmark.
- The wall consisted of three layers of defences: large obstacles to prevent landing of heavy vehicles and slow down progress of landing soldiers, minefields to cause casualties among landing soldiers and finally heavy guns stationed in strategic positions to target approaching ships before they're able to land.



What happened?

- To prepare for landing the Allies bombed huge number of military targets across the whole of France from March 1944 to the day the landing started.
- The French underground cut the telegraph wires destroying German communication.
- Eisenhower took a large risk and launched the attack during really bad weather. The Germans assumed that the attack was impossible in these conditions and many soldiers were on leave. D day attack was launched at 3.00 am and by 18.00 pm French coastline was secure but at the cost of 10,000 Allied casualties. By the end of D-Day, 132,715 men were ashore, which rose quickly (by 12 June 2 million men were in Normandy). The Nazis fought desperately, but by August Paris had fallen and (despite a short Nazi counter-attack called 'The Battle of the Bulge'). The Allies pushed into Germany until they met up with Russian forces advancing from the east (23 April 1945). On 7 May, 1945, the Nazis surrendered – it was VE Day (Victory in Europe)!

16) Hiroshima and Nagasaki

The A-bomb attack on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

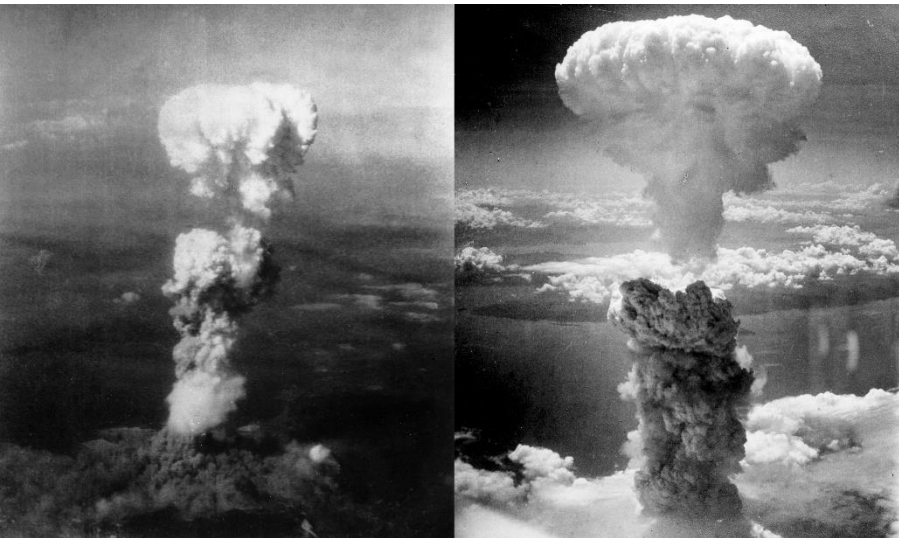
Following a long and bloody conflict in South Asia, on 6th of August of 1945 the United States launched an atomic bomb on Hiroshima, a large Japanese city. Three days later an similar attack took place in another large city called Nagasaki. The first attack took 140,000 lives, the second another 40,000 with the additional 100,000 victims who died later because of radiation poisoning. To this day it is one of the heaviest criticised decisions of The American government.

Why did the USA drop the atom bomb on Japan?

- The war in Europe had already finished in May and all Allied countries wanted the fighting to finally end.
- The United States wanted to force Japan's surrender as quickly as possible to minimise American casualties. It was believed that the invasion of Japan would cause 1 million American casualties.
- Growing competition with Soviet Union over the influence in liberated Europe convinced the American government that they needed to show their strength to scare the Soviet Union from starting an open conflict.
- The American government wanted to field test A-bomb as a new type of weapon as its inventors did not fully understand its impact.
- The brutality of the Japanese in Asia and in their attack on Pearl Harbour made many Americans want revenge against the Japanese.

Why was the use of weapon questionable?

- Historical research shows that Japan was starving and surrender would possibly have happened anyway.
- The targets chosen were civilian and the attack was meant to cause a significant loss of life to force the Japanese public to withdraw its support of Hirohito.
- The weapon caused death not only in the initial attack but also caused a lot of deaths and illnesses as a consequence of radiation poisoning.
- The show of power only encouraged the Soviet Union which had received reports of United States working on a new type of weapon. Now Joseph Stalin was convinced that he had to produce an atomic weapon to successfully compete with United States. This eventually led to the Cold War, a military conflict to last 50 years.





Year 8 History Knowledge Organiser:
How was the Holocaust possible in a modern, 'civilised', Europe?



1) Medieval anti-Judaism

Clifford's Tower, 1190

York had a small but important community of Jews. The Jewish people in England had been invited to become moneylenders as Christians were forbidden from making a profit by lending money. By the 12th Century, Jews in England were facing increasing hostility.

In March 1170, the city of York caught fire. Blaming the Jews for the fire, an angry mob started looting the houses of prominent Jews and killing some of the occupants. The remaining Jews sought refuge inside Clifford's Tower – they begged the warden to grant them sanctuary, and he let them in. The castle was surrounded by the mob, who besieged it for several days, and set on fire. Most of the men decided to kill their wives and children before killing themselves as an alternative to burning to death. The small number of survivors was told that they would not be killed if they converted to Christianity. Several Jews agreed and left the castle, but were then pitilessly murdered. It is estimated that about 150 people died in the massacre. After the massacre, the mob destroyed the financial records which showed who owed money to the Jewish moneylenders.



Reasons for medieval anti-Jewish attitudes

Christianity was the dominant religion in Medieval Europe. Jews were often treated with suspicion. They were often wrongly blamed for the crucifixion of Christ, and were rumoured to practice magic and work with the Devil. In some countries, they were blamed for the Black Death. During the Crusades, anti-Jewish feeling increased as Crusaders were promised spiritual rewards for killing 'infidels', or non-Christians. Jewish moneylenders were often resented – but often this was the only job option available to Jewish people as they were barred from other professions.

Expulsions

Many countries chose to expel Jewish people from their country. In 1290, Jews were forced to leave England, until the ban was lifted by Oliver Cromwell in 1656. From the 15th century in Spain, the Spanish Inquisition aimed to remove any anti-Catholic influences. Jews were forced to convert or leave Spain. Those who converted, 'conversos', came under intense pressure to prove their loyalty to the Catholic faith, for example in 1691 a trial in Majorca led to 37 conversos being burned to death. Those who left faced they may have faced being charged enormous amounts of money by sea captains to transport them, but after paying were sometimes thrown into the ocean. Jews were sometimes suspected of swallowing gold and jewels to hide their wealth, and so they were murdered and cut open to find their wealth.

Blood Libel

In Norwich in 1144, a 12 year old boy called William failed to return home. His body was later found tortured and mutilated. A rumour spread that he had been killed by Jews in a Jewish religious ritual which needed the blood of a child to celebrate the festival of Passover, an accusation known as the 'Blood Libel' (this is against all Jewish beliefs and there was no evidence for it). William was declared a saint by the Catholic Church and his story spread throughout Europe, where similar stories of Christian children being killed in Jewish rituals now spread. Although false, these stories survived for hundreds of years.



2) The development of Anti-Semitism in the 1800s and 1900s

Thinking point
If there is no Semitic race, is it possible to be anti-Semitic?

Pogroms in Eastern Europe and Russia

In 1881, Jews in Russia were accused of involvement in the assassination of Tsar Alexander II. As a result, a wave of pogroms (violent attacks) broke out in which local people, encouraged by government officials and newspapers, attacked Jewish citizens. The worst was the 1905 pogrom in Odessa, which led to the death of 2,500 Jews.

Integration for some

In the 19th Century in Germany, Britain and France, anti-Jewish laws which forbade Jewish people from entering certain jobs, being able to vote or own property, were overturned. As a result, some Jewish communities became more integrated and played important roles in culture, art and science, for example, Albert Einstein, Sigmund Freud, Lise Meitner and others.



Racial Anti-Semitism (Social Darwinism)

New ideas began to emerge which tried to apply Charles Darwin's theories on evolution to humanity, which led many to believe that there was a natural hierarchy of human races, with the white races at the top and other, 'inferior' races underneath. Although now known to be false, these beliefs were commonly accepted as scientific fact.

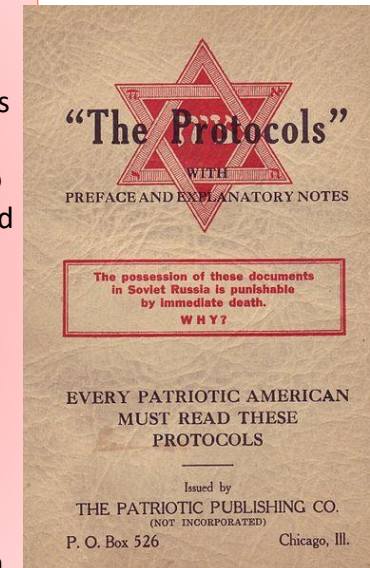
Political anti-Semitism

Some political parties in Europe began to seize upon these ideas. They believed that Jews were too powerful in certain professions, such as finance, law, politics, medicine, the arts, and the media. There was also a belief that the Jews were part of a secret conspiracy to take control of the world. For example, in the Communist Revolution in Russia, some of the leaders, including Leon Trotsky, were Jewish. For many Germans unable to accept their defeat in World War One, a Jewish conspiracy against Germany became a popular explanation for why Germany lost the war. A belief linking the ideas of a Jewish international conspiracy, Communism and German defeat began to take hold.

The protocols of the Elders of Zion

In 1905, a book known as *The Protocols of the Elders of Zion* was published in Russia. It claimed to include the minutes taken from a meeting of influential Jews, in which they discussed their plan for taking over the world. The book has since been conclusively proved to be a forgery, possibly created by Russian police against to give them an excuse to persecute Jews. However, many people at the time believed it was real.

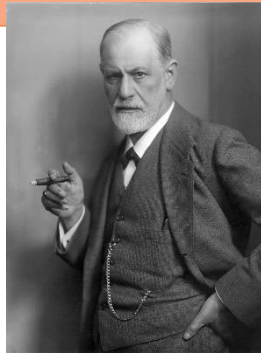
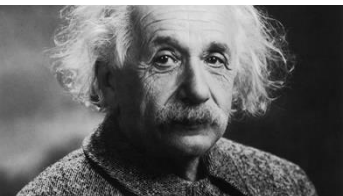
After 1917, the book was reprinted and translated into many different languages and was widely believed. Henry Ford, founder of the Ford motor car company, was so impressed with it that he wrote his own anti-Semitic book entitled *The International Jew*, which repeated the false evidence in the Protocols. Adolf Hitler referred to the Protocols in many of his anti-Semitic speeches in which he demanded action against the so-called international Jewish 'conspiracy'.



Jewish migration

Throughout the 19th century, many Jews chose to leave Europe to avoid persecution. Around 2 million Jews arrived in the USA from Eastern Europe and Russia between 1880 and 1924. Others moved to London, where 90% of Jewish migrants settled in Whitechapel.

There was hostility to the Jewish migrants. Some English newspapers described Whitechapel as a 'Jewish colony', while trade unions accused Jewish workers of 'stealing' jobs by being prepared to work for less. In 1905, Britain passed the 'Aliens Act', aiming to reduce the number of Jewish migrants to Britain.



3) Pre-war Jewish life

What was Jewish life like in Germany right before the Nazis came to power?

The majority of Jews (approximately 70%) lived in large cities with populations over 100,000. In comparison, about 50% of non-Jewish Germans lived in towns with fewer than 10,000 people. Nonetheless, some Jews did live in smaller towns and rural areas.

Many Jews rarely or never attended a synagogue. Most continued to celebrate Jewish holidays. A minority of Jews in Germany strictly observed Jewish religious practices. Some Jews were poor, while most Jews were middle class. Many worked in or owned small businesses. Jews also worked as tailors, civil servants, doctors, lawyers, journalists, bank clerks, factory workers, professors, and teachers. A few were wealthy business owners. Many Jews saw themselves as a religious group. They were Germans who practiced Judaism. Others saw themselves as an ethnic group. They were Jews who lived in Germany. Despite being integrated into German society, Jews faced discrimination in Germany. For example, not all Germans believed that Jews could be German. Some groups, including many university student clubs, banned Jews from membership. Some political parties, including the Nazi Party, were openly anti-Jewish. Negative stereotypes of Jews appeared in the press.

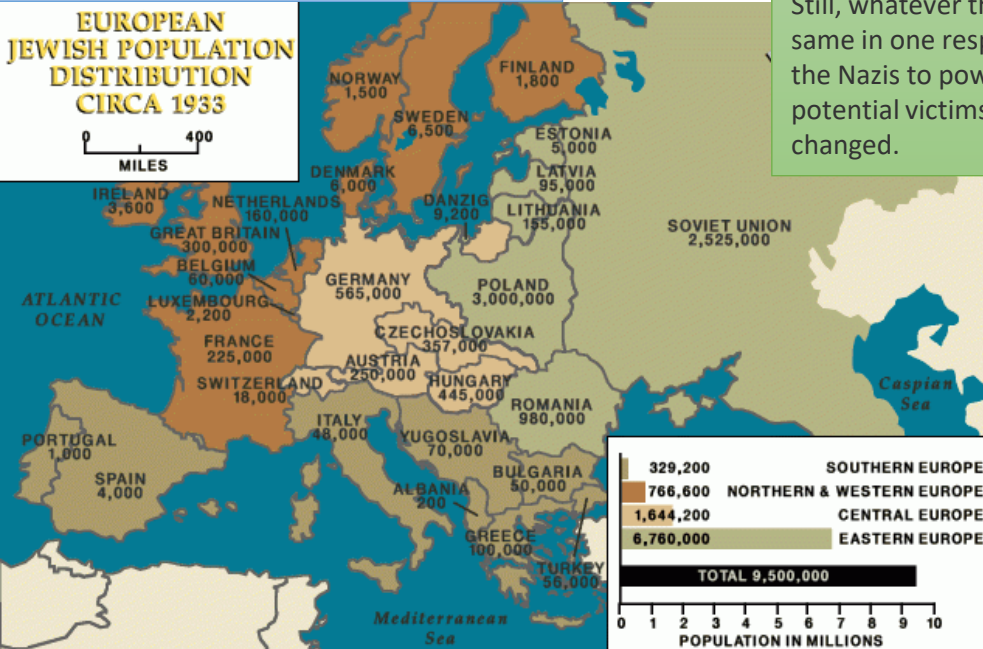
Life for Jewish people in Germany

Jews have lived in Germany since the Middle Ages. And, as in much of Europe, they faced widespread persecution there for many centuries. Jews in Germany were only given the same rights as Christian Germans in the 19th Century. By 1933, when the Nazis came to power, Germany's Jews were well integrated and even assimilated into German society. Despite their integration, Germany's Jews still maintained a discernible identity and culture.

In 1933, the Jewish population of Germany numbered about 525,000. This was less than one percent of the total German population at the time. Most Jews in Germany (about 400,000 people) held German citizenship. Many of these Jews came from families who had been in Germany for centuries. These families spoke German as their primary language. Most considered themselves German. In some cases, they had intermarried with non-Jews. In addition, there were about 100,000 Jews without German citizenship. These were Jews whose families had immigrated to Germany over recent decades. Most had come from eastern Europe. Some of these Jews were also well integrated into German society. Others lived in distinct immigrant communities with their own traditions. Jews in these communities primarily spoke Yiddish, a language used among Jews in Central and Eastern Europe. While not all Jews in Germany had the same background, German Jews still had a lot in common with each other. Certain characteristics tended to define German-Jewish life. These set the Jewish population slightly apart from the rest of German society.

The Jews in western Europe—Germany, France, Italy, the Netherlands, and Belgium—made up much less of the population and tended to adopt the culture of their non-Jewish neighbours. They dressed and talked like their countrymen, and traditional religious practices and Yiddish culture played a less important part in their lives. They tended to have had more formal education than eastern European Jews and to live in towns or cities.

Jews could be found in all walks of life, as farmers, tailors, seamstresses, factory hands, accountants, doctors, teachers, and small-business owners. Some families were wealthy; many more were poor. Many children ended their schooling early to work in a craft or trade; others looked forward to continuing their education at the university level. Still, whatever their differences, they were the same in one respect: by the 1930s, with the rise of the Nazis to power in Germany, they all became potential victims, and their lives were forever changed.



In 1933 the largest Jewish populations were concentrated in eastern Europe, including Poland, the Soviet Union, Hungary, and Romania. Many of the Jews of eastern Europe lived in predominantly Jewish towns or villages, called *shtetls*. Eastern European Jews lived a separate life as a minority within the culture of the majority. They spoke their own language, Yiddish, which combines elements of German and Hebrew. They read Yiddish books, and attended Yiddish theatre and movies. Although many younger Jews in larger towns were beginning to adopt modern ways and dress, older people often dressed traditionally, the men wearing hats or caps, and the women modestly covering their hair with wigs or kerchiefs.

4) Jewish life in Germany in the 1930s



Jewish people in Germany

Germany had a small, but thriving, Jewish population of about 500,000 people, less than one percent of the total population. Most German Jews were thoroughly integrated, seeing themselves as German, and speaking German. During the First World War, 100,000 Jews fought for Germany and many won medals for bravery.

Jews becoming the scapegoats for Germany's problems

Germany faced many crises after it lost the First World War. Money became worthless in 1923, the economy collapsed and unemployment increased after the Great Depression. Many Germans were fearful about the growing power and influence of the Communist Party. Many ordinary Germans became willing to believe the Nazi Party that the Jews were to blame for the loss of the First World War, causing the economic crisis, and being the secret force behind Communism.

Nazi racial policy

Hitler believed in a version of Social Darwinism, with the 'Aryan' race being a superior race at the top of a racial hierarchy. He believed that the strength of this Aryan race depended on keeping it racially pure. Other races were seen as inferior, or *untermenschen (subhuman)*, in particular the Jews. The Nazis claimed that the Jews were aiming to infiltrate and destroy the Aryan race by intermarrying, and by doing so 'pollute' the Aryan race. As Hitler defined the Jewish people as a race, not a religion, someone could be defined as Jewish, even if they did not practice Judaism as a religion, if they had Jewish grandparents.

Escalating Jewish persecution in the 1930s

From the end of March 1933, Hitler was becoming the dictator of a one-party state who had control of every aspect of society. On 1st April 1933, the Nazis ordered a boycott of all Jewish shops. Nazi Stormtroopers, the SA, stood outside Jewish shops to stop people from entering and painted anti-Semitic signs on their windows. This was not successful and was ended after one day. On 7 April 1933, a law was passed which restricted employment in the German Civil Service to Aryans. All Jewish workers in the government or as teachers lost their jobs. This was later extended to doctors and lawyers. In 1935, the Nazis announced the 'Nuremberg Laws', which stated that Jews were forbidden from having sexual relations with Aryans; Jews were forbidden from marrying Aryans; Jews were stripped of their rights as German citizens. In 1937-38, it was declared that all Jewish property had to be registered. It was then seized and 'Aryanised' by being sold to Aryan Germans at low prices. Jews were also required to have a 'J' stamped on their passport.

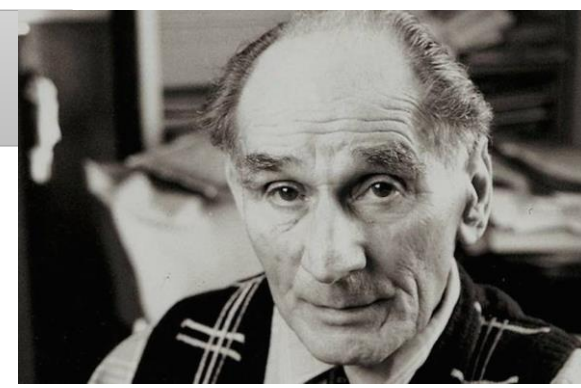
Kristallnacht (The Night of Broken Glass)

On 7th November 1938, a young Jewish teenager, Herschel Grynszpan, shot a German diplomat in Paris, in revenge for the treatment of his family in Germany. On 9-10 November, the Nazis (and Goebbels in particular) used this as an excuse to launch a wave of violence against Jews in Germany. Nazi thugs looted and smashed 7,000 Jewish businesses. Jewish cemeteries, schools and homes were ransacked. At least 250 synagogues were burned or damaged. Nearly 100 Jewish people were murdered. 30,000 Jewish men were arrested and sent to concentration camps, where many died. The Jewish community was forced to pay a fine of 1 billion Reichsmark to pay for the damage.

Jewish refugees

By 1938, 150,000 Jews had fled Germany. They were now forced to leave almost all their property behind. Some British observers, having witnessed the horrors of *Kristallnacht*, negotiated with the UK government to arrange for trainloads of Jewish children to be rescued from Nazi Germany and settled in Britain, in an operation called the '*Kindertransport*'. Between 1938 and September 1939, around 10,000 Jewish children were moved. However, when the Second World War started in September 1939, it became almost impossible for Jews to leave Nazi Germany.

5) The story of Leon Greenman



Before WW2

Leon Greenman lived in Rotterdam in the Netherlands with his wife Esther ('Else'). Leon and Else were Anglo-Dutch Jews, having been born in London but who decided to settle in Rotterdam to look after Else's grandmother. Leon divided his time between Rotterdam and London where he owned a hairdressing business.

In 1938, Leon considered taking his family out of the Netherlands. However, he was reassured by the British Embassy that, as both Leon and Else were British, they would be evacuated in the event of war. Therefore Leon chose to remain in Rotterdam.

In September 1939, Hitler invaded Poland and Britain declared war on Germany. However, there was no fighting in the Netherlands. In April 1940, Else gave birth to a son, Barnett Greenman, whom they called Barney.



The impact of war

In May 1940, the Nazis began to invade Western Europe. The Netherlands quickly surrendered. The British Embassy staff fled and there was no evacuation for Leon and his family. Leon was concerned, but remained convinced that his family would be protected as they were British citizens. He gave his British passports and all his savings to some friends for safekeeping. Leon's friends though, terrified of being accused of helping Jews, burned the documents.

The Nazis introduced their racial laws in the Netherlands which they had already introduced in Germany. In April 1942, the Nazis ordered all Jews in the Netherlands, including Leon and his family, to wear yellow stars on their clothes, to mark them out publicly as being Jewish.

Deportation and worse

In October 1942, Leon, Else, Barney and Else's grandmother were sent to Westerbork transit camp in the Netherlands. In April 1943, the Greenmans and 700 other people in the camp were told that they were going to be moved east to work in a labour camp in Poland. Leon protested that he and his family were British subjects, but without any documents he was unable to prove this. Leon and his family were packed onto a train and sent east, on a journey lasting 36 hours. During this time Barney fell ill.

On 21 January 1943, the train arrived at its destination, Auschwitz-Birkenau. The 700 people on the train exited and were formed into two lines. About 50 people, including Leon, were chosen to work as slave labour. The rest, including Else, her grandmother, and Barney, were loaded onto trucks. Leon could see them clearly as they drove away, identifying Else and Barney from the bright red capes that Else had made for them from a pair of curtains. This was the last time Leon saw his family, who were immediately taken away and murdered in the gas chambers.

Leon spent the next two years enduring horrific conditions in several camps, before finally being liberated by the US Army. After months in hospital, Leon eventually discovered that almost his entire family, as well as his Jewish friends from Rotterdam, had been murdered. Out of the 700 people with whom Leon had travelled to Auschwitz-Birkenau, only one other person survived.

6) The development of the Holocaust

1939-41 – the early stages of the war.

Between September 1939 and May 1940, the German army took control of most of Europe, therefore bring several million Jewish people under Nazi control. Many Jews in these countries were deported to German-occupied Poland and forced in ghettos – walled-off areas of cities in which Jews were forced to live in terrible conditions. The largest of these was the Warsaw ghetto, where at least 400,000 Jews were packed into an area of 1.3 square miles. Many died of disease and starvation.

Operation Reinhard 1941

Operation Reinhard was the code name for the German plan to murder the approximately two million Jews living in German-occupied Poland. Under Operation Reinhard, three killing centres, Belzec, Sobibor, and Treblinka, operated between 1942 and 1943. Nazi officials employed carbon monoxide gas generated by motor engines to kill their victims. In all, camp personnel murdered approximately 1.7 million Jews as part of Operation Reinhard. The victims of the Operation Reinhard camps also included an unknown number of Poles, Roma View This Term in the Glossary (Gypsies), and Soviet prisoners of war.

Operation Barbarossa, 1941

In June 1941 Hitler invaded the Soviet Union. In accordance with previous agreements between SS and police and Wehrmacht representatives, German mobile units of Security Police and SD officials, called *Einsatzgruppen*, followed the frontline troops into the Soviet Union. SS General Reinhard Heydrich had tasked the *Einsatzgruppen* commanders with identifying, concentrating, and killing Jews, Soviet officials and other persons deemed potentially hostile to German rule in the east. *Einsatzgruppen* squads begin to carry out mass shootings during the last week of June 1941.

The Wannsee Conference, 1942

On 20 January 1942 Reinhard Heydrich, chief of the Nazi security service, chaired a meeting in Berlin that would become known as the Wannsee Conference. It was at the Wannsee Conference that the 'Final Solution' was announced to high-ranking Nazi officials who were given the task of carrying it out. The conference was attended by 15 men from different departments across the Third Reich. One of the attendees was Adolf Eichmann, who was in charge of Jewish deportations from across Europe to extermination camps. Before the meeting Eichmann had drafted a list numbering the population of Jews in each country. The list was broken down into two categories; Jews in the European countries under Nazi control, and those in countries which were either Allied or neutral states. The total number of Jews listed was over 11 million. The Nazis planned for them all to be murdered.

The 'Final Solution of the Jewish Question' was the mass-deportation of European Jews to extermination camps in German-occupied Poland, where they would then be murdered. To disguise their intent, the Nazis referred to the removal of Jews from ghettos to extermination camps as 'resettlement in the East'. Jews were rounded up from the ghettos and made to prepare for their 'resettlement', taking with them only their most valuable possessions.



Extermination camps

Extermination camps were developed by the Nazis as a way to develop more efficient ways of mass murder. These were built throughout Poland. The largest was at Auschwitz-Birkenau, known as Auschwitz II, which was built specifically to enable the mass murder of the Jews. Previous experiments in 1941 led to the use of Zyklon B gas to kill victims in purpose built gas chambers at Auschwitz and at Majdanek. It is thought that about 2.7 million Jews were murdered in the extermination camps, and about 6 million Jews in the Holocaust as a whole. Roughly 2 out of every 3 Jewish people living in Europe before the war.



7) Jewish resistance against the Nazis

The Warsaw Ghetto uprising, 1943

In 1942 the majority of the Jews in the Warsaw ghetto were deported to extermination camps. The remaining Jews were concerned that they would be next. A group of about 100 young Jewish men formed a resistance group called the 'Jewish Fighting Organisation', who armed themselves with smuggled firearms and homemade weapons. They were led by the 23 year old Mordecai Anielewicz. On 19 April 1943 the Nazis attempted to clear the remaining Jews from the ghetto. They were met with fierce armed resistance. Jewish fighters barricaded themselves in houses and attacked German soldiers. The resistance held out for an entire month, until they were killed or forced to surrender. 7,000 Jews were killed, including Anielewicz. The remainder of the Jews were sent to extermination camps. Although this uprising failed, it was the first popular uprising against the Nazi regime and inspired other groups to fight back.

Jewish partisan groups

Some Jews managed to escape the camps and ghettos and form resistance groups called 'partisans', that attacked German forces. One group near Vilna in Lithuania derailed hundreds of trains and killed 3000 German soldiers. One of the most famous partisan groups was led by the Bielski brothers in Novogrodek (modern day Belarus)



Resistance in the camps

Resistance in the extermination camps was very difficult. The living conditions were poor, there were no resources, the Nazis were well armed and trained, and the Nazis tried to hide the reality of the killings to the prisoners. However, there was resistance.

In Auschwitz II, members of the Sonderkommando (Jewish prisoners who were forced to help the Nazis to operate the gas chambers) learnt they were going to be killed as part of the Nazi aim to hide the evidence of what they had been doing. On 7th October 1944, they staged an uprising in which they killed three guards and blew up the crematorium using dynamite. Several hundred prisoners managed to escape, although most were recaptured.

In 1943, inmates at Sobibor extermination camp killed 11 guards and set the camp on fire. Around 300 inmates managed to escape across a minefield, and although most were recaptured, 50 of them survived the war.

Fighting with the Allies

The Soviet army was eventually able to push back the German army from Operation Barbarossa and eventually occupy Germany, helping force the Nazis to surrender. About 500,000 Jews fought in the Soviet army, of whom 120,000 were killed. 160,000 Soviet Jewish soldiers received awards for their bravery, while 150 were designated 'Heroes of the Soviet Union', the greatest honour in the Soviet army. In Poland, around 100,000 Jews had fought with the Polish army against Hitler at the start of the war. About 30,000 of them were killed resisting the Nazi invasion. Many others escaped and joined the 'Free Polish' armed forces in Britain, where they continued to fight against Nazi Germany.

Around 550,000 Jewish soldiers fought in the US army, and many took place in helping to liberate Europe through D-Day. During the Battle of Britain, 34 Polish Jewish pilots joined the RAF. Around 30,000 Jews fought in the British army. Jews from Palestine fought in their own units and also helped Jewish refugees who had been displaced during the war.



8) Interpretations of the Holocaust



Karl Schleunes, author of the twisted road to Auschwitz, a functionalist

Intentionalists vs. Functionalists.

Since the 1980s, historical debate on the Holocaust has been dominated by a significant disagreement;

Intentionalists believe that Hitler and the Nazis always had the intention to carry out the Holocaust, since he was making threats to murder the Jews since the 1920s. The actual killing was the end point of several years of secret planning.

Functionalists believe there was no concrete plan to exterminate the Jews. Nazi policy to the Jews changed over time in reaction to the nature of Nazi control of Germany and the impact of the Second World War. It was also dependent on the actions and ideas of individuals like Himmler and Heydrich who carried them out using their own initiative.

More recent historians like Ian Kershaw have argued that whilst there does not appear to be a concrete plan to exterminate the Jews until 1941, Hitler's violent anti-Semitism was vital in making this happen. Hitler made his wishes known and let his subordinates put them into action. However, there are many other factors to consider, wider anti-Semitism in Europe, greed, the actions of bystanders etc.



Daniel Goldhagen, an intentionalist historian of the Holocaust.



Sir Ian Kershaw

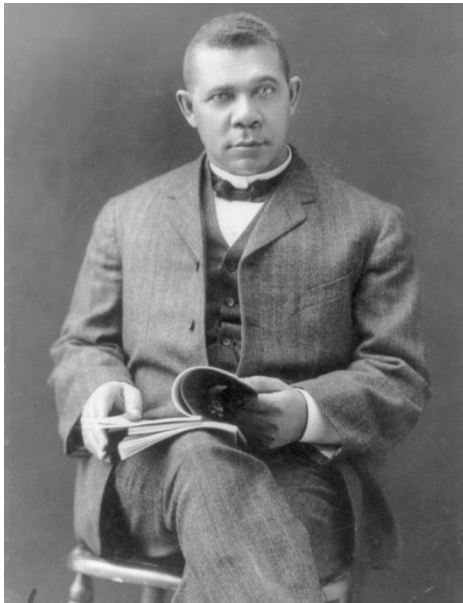
Year 8 6) The Civil Rights Movement Knowledge Organiser



Early Campaigners

Booker T Washington

Washington set up the National Negro Business League to help and support the development of black businesses. He worked to create opportunities for black people to improve, through education and developing their practical skills - by doing this they would be accepted by white Americans.

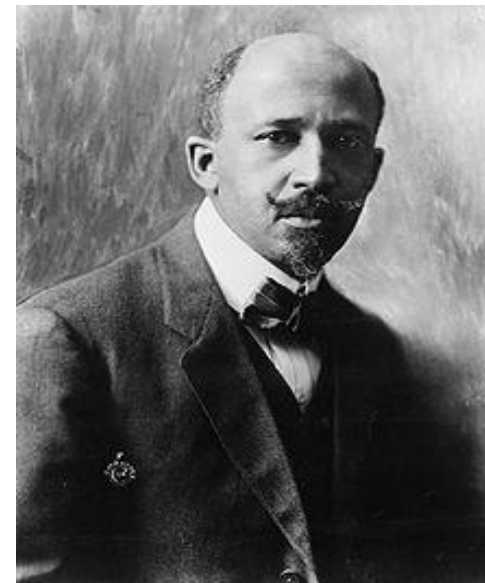


Marcus Garvey

Garvey founded the Universal Negro Improvement Association to help black people set up their own businesses. By the 1920s, there were UNIA-funded grocery stores, restaurants and laundrettes. He urged black Americans to be proud of their race, colour and cultural heritage. This had a big impact, particularly for those in northern cities, and some of his ideas and slogans, such as 'Black is Beautiful' were used by civil rights leaders in the 1960s.

W E B du Bois

Du Bois became the first African American to earn a doctorate from Harvard University., becoming a professor of History, Sociology and Economics at Atlanta. He was the leader of the Niagara Movement who wanted equal rights for black people. He protested against lynching, Jim Crow laws and discrimination in employment and education. His campaigns included people of colour everywhere.



The 1950s

The NAACP

By the 1950s the National Association for the Advancement of Coloured People (NAACP) was fighting discrimination through the law. Alongside civil rights lawyer, Thurgood Marshall, they challenged segregated schools. They brought a case against the Board of Education in Topeka to allow a black student, Linda Brown, to attend her nearest school (a whites only school) instead of travelling many miles to a school with black students. In 1954 the Supreme Court ruled in favour of Brown and the NAACP. This led to the introduction of integrated schools, although the pace this happened at was mixed, and in some cases bitterly resisted.



Little Rock, Arkansas

In 1957, the Supreme Court ordered the Governor of Arkansas to let nine black students attend what had been a white only school in Little Rock. Violence broke out when the students tried to enter the school on the first day and they had to leave for their own safety. Troops had to be sent in to make sure the students could attend school, and the soldiers had to remain in school for the whole year. The courage these children showed led to them becoming heroes to many black Americans in the South.



Montgomery Bus Boycott

In Montgomery, Alabama, there was a law that stated black people had to sit at the back of the bus, and give up their seats if white people wanted them. A civil rights activist, Rosa Parks, made a stand and refused to give up her seat. For this she was arrested.

In response, campaigners set up the Montgomery Improvement Association, led by Martin Luther King. It helped organise the extension of a boycott of the busses in Montgomery. Car pooling was organised to help black people get to work and help ensure the success of the boycott. The bus company lost 65% of its income by the time the boycott ended after 381 days.

During the boycott, the campaign leaders were placed under enormous pressure to end the protest. King was arrested twice, churches and homes were set on fire, King's own house was fire-bombed. Despite all this provocation, the MIA urged its supporters not to retaliate.

During this time, civil rights lawyers were fighting Rosa Parks' case. They were successful, and in December 1956 the Supreme Court ruled that Montgomery's bus laws (and similar laws elsewhere) were illegal.

The Early 1960s

Martin Luther King & the SCLC

After the success of the Montgomery Bus Boycott, King set up the Southern Christian Leadership Conference. He believed in direct action and was prepared to break laws he saw as unjust. However, he also favoured non-violent means of protest, such as boycotts and sit-ins. The SCLC ran conferences and trained activists in non-violent direct action.



The Student Non-violent Coordinating Committee

Black and white American students played an important role in the civil rights movement. Sit-ins were a favoured method of protest by the SNCC. First used in Greensboro in 1960, when four black students wanted to be served at a white only lunch counter. They were refused service, but refused to leave the restaurant. The next day more students joined their protest and sit-ins spread to other shops - a fall in sales led to a change. By September 1961, it was estimated that 50,000 black and white students had been involved in this type of protest.



The Congress of Racial Equality and the Freedom Rides

In 1961 CORE activists began a form of protest called 'freedom rides'. They wanted to show that any person could travel in the USA without having to use segregated facilities. When they left Washington in the North, there were no segregated facilities. However, once they arrived in the South, there were. Black travellers used the whites only facilities to challenge segregation. They were attacked by mobs, beaten, arrested and one bus was attacked and burnt. This put pressure on the government and they organised the desegregation of inter-state travel.



James Meredith and Mississippi University

Meredith, a black student, was initially prevented from registering as a student at Mississippi University. In 1962, the Supreme Court ruled the university had to accept Meredith, and the government had to send in the troops to make sure Meredith could arrive safely on campus. There were riots, in which two people were killed and 70 injured. The troops remained on campus throughout Meredith's three years, he was segregated from other students and had to eat alone. However, he refused to give in and despite all the obstacles successfully earned his degree.



The early 1960s (cont.)

Birmingham, Alabama (1963)

By April 1963, Birmingham had still not desegregated - to avoid desegregation, the city had simply closed places such as parks and playgrounds. This led to Martin Luther King and SCLC organising a series of demonstrations to force the issue. King organised for TV cameras and newspaper reporters to be in attendance, to show the contrast between his peaceful protest and the expected violent response from the local police. The reporters and cameras recorded the police using electric cattle prods, dogs and fire hoses on the protestors - many of whom were children. King and over 1000 protestors were arrested. This led to the government ordering the release of the prisoners and the desegregation of Birmingham.

The March on Washington (1963)

Over 250,000 people marched on Washington to put pressure on the government to introduce a civil rights bill. The day ended with King's famous 'I have a dream speech'. The march had a major impact on American public opinion and increased support for the civil rights movement.



Changes to the law

In 1963 President Kennedy introduced a Civil Rights Bill, however he was assassinated before it became law. Kennedy's successor Lyndon B Johnson (a Southerner) pushed the Bill through and in July of 1964 he signed the Civil Rights Act:

- Segregation in public places was banned.
- The law could be sued to speed up desegregation in schools.
- Racial discrimination was banned in employment.

In 1965 Johnson introduced a Voting Rights Act that ended literacy tests and made illegal the barriers and intimidation black people faced when trying to register to vote. It also allowed government officials to inspect during elections.



The later 1960s

Background

By 1965 the protests had achieved a great deal, segregation was now illegal, a Civil rights Act had been passed and many black people were now registering to vote. However, many black Americans remained frustrated. Many who lived in cramped conditions in the cities saw little benefit and improvement in their living standards. They were angry at high unemployment rates, continuing discrimination and poverty.

The riots of 1965-68

From 1965 to 1968 riots took place in most of the USA's major cities. One of the most serious riots was in 1965 in the Watts area of Los Angeles. Large numbers were involved and nearly \$40m worth of damage was done. An investigation into the riots showed that black people felt unprotected by the police and were frustrated with their poor living conditions.

The Nation of Islam

Some campaigners believed Martin Luther King's methods were the wrong approach and that change was too slow. One group was the Nation of Islam, who believed in separatism (keeping the races apart). They rejected their 'slave surnames' and called themselves 'X'. They attracted followers such as Malcolm X and Muhammed Ali.



Malcolm X

In his childhood, his family had to move several times due to threats from the Ku Klux Klan, they also burnt down his house in Michigan. After being convicted for drug pushing and burglary, he learnt about the Nation of Islam whilst in prison serving his sentence. Upon release he became leader of a Mosque in Harlem, New York. He as a powerful spokesperson, encouraging black people to take pride in their own heritage and colour. He argued for improvements in housing and education. He also disagreed with King's methods, arguing violence should be met with violence. and that black people should defend themselves in the face of white violence.

Towards the end of his life, he left the Nation of Islam and became less extreme in his views. He began to argue against black separatism. He set up the Organisation of Afro-American Unity to promote closer ties between Africans and African-Americans. He was assassinated by a member of the Nation of Islam in 1965. However, his ideas influenced many protestors of the late 1960s, in particular the Black Power movement.

The later 1960s (cont.)

Stokely Carmichael and Black Power

Carmichael was elected leader of the SNCC in 1966. He was critical of King's methods and argued that the USA was 'racist from top to bottom' and that love and non-violence would not change the country.

Instead he argued for Black Power. He wanted black Americans to take responsibility for their own lives and reject white help.

The Black Power Movement gave black Americans a greater confidence and pride in their race, heritage and culture.



The Black Panthers

The Black Panthers were more radical than Stokely Carmichael. They were formed in California by Huey Newton and Bobby Seale, and by the end of 1968 had around 5000 members. They wanted decent jobs, housing and education for black people.

They would patrol the ghettos, armed and in uniform, to keep an eye on the police. In 1967, Newton was shot whilst being arrested and two policemen were killed. In 1969, 27 members of the Black Panthers were killed in confrontations with the police.



The Assassination of Martin Luther King

The Black Power movement had an influence on King and in his speeches he emphasised that black Americans had plenty to be proud of. He also began to place a greater importance on tackling social and economic conditions, as well as speaking out against the Vietnam War.

On 4th April 1968, Martin Luther King was shot and killed whilst in Memphis. He had travelled there to support black dustmen who were on strike campaigning for equal treatment with white dustmen.

Legacy

- By the early 1970s the proportion of black people in segregated schools had fallen to just under 10%.
- The number of black registered voters in the south had trebled since 1965.
- More black people were becoming involved in politics, including in Congress. There were black mayors in some of America's largest cities.
- However, unemployment for black people remained high.
- The average black families wage was only 61% of the average white family.