

Meden School Curriculum Planning							
Subject	History	Year Group	Y12/13	Sequence No.		Topic	Stuarts

Retrieval	Core Knowledge	Student Thinking
What do teachers need retrieve from students before they start teaching new content ?	What specific ambitious knowledge do teachers need teach students in this sequence of learning?	What real life examples can be applied to this sequence of learning to development of our students thinking, encouraging them to see the inequalities around them and 'do something about them!'
When did WW1 end?	<p>Impact of war, the political crises of October to November 1918, and the establishment of the Weimar Constitution</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The abdication of the Kaiser The establishment of the Weimar Constitution in 1919 <p>1918 29 September Ludendorff called for armistice negotiations 30 September Kaiser promised political reform 1 October Prince Max of Baden formed new government 3 October Prince Max's letter to President Wilson asking for an armistice 24 October Wilson replied to Prince Max's request 26 October Ludendorff resigned and fled to Sweden 28 October Kaiser introduced further reforms making the Chancellor accountable to the Reichstag 30 October Naval mutiny at Wilhelmshaven 3 November Naval mutiny spread to Kiel 8 November Revolt in Bavaria led to declaration of Bavarian Socialist Republic 9 November Declaration of a German Republic in Berlin and abdication of the Kaiser 10 November Ebert–Groener Pact 11 November Armistice signed with Allies</p>	What problems can be caused by overthrowing a dictator?
What happened in Russia in 1917?	Pressure from the left wing	

What are communists' beliefs?

What is socialism?

Why would the KPD be worried about the Eber Groener pact?

Who did the SPD mainly appeal to?

A CLOSER LOOK

Socialist groups and parties in 1918

Spartacist League (later KPD)	USPD	The Social Democratic Party (SPD)
Founded: 1916, by a more revolutionary minority group from the SPD. The name was changed to German Communist Party (KPD) in January 1919.	Founded: 1917, by a breakaway minority group from the left of the SPD.	Founded: 1875, as a Marxist socialist party committed to revolution.
Leaders: Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg.	Leaders: Hugo Hasse.	Leaders: Friedrich Ebert and Philipp Scheidemann.
Aims: Wanted republican government controlled by workers' and soldiers' councils, welfare benefits, nationalisation, workers' control of major industries, disbanding of the army and creation of local workers' militias. Opposed to First World War.	Aims: Wanted a republic with national Reichstag working with workers' and soldiers' councils, welfare improvements, nationalisation of industry, breaking up of large estates, reform of the army and creation of a national militia. Opposed to First World War.	Aims: Wanted moderate socialist republic with democratic elections and basic personal freedoms, welfare improvements and gradual nationalisation of industry. Wanted continuity and order. Supported Germany's entry into First World War.
Support: a throng of workers would often join them on their rallies and demonstrations in the streets.	Support: grew in strength during 1918 as war-weariness grew.	Support: Appealed largely to working-class voters and, in 1912, became the largest party in the Reichstag.
Membership: c. 5,000	Membership: c. 300,000	Membership: c. 1 million

Pressure from the army and the Ebert–Groener Pact

The Ebert–Groener pact, sometimes called the Ebert-Groener deal, was an agreement between the Social Democrat Friedrich Ebert, at the time the Chancellor of Germany, and Wilhelm Groener, Quartermaster General of the German Army, on November 10, 1918. Groener assured Ebert of the loyalty of the armed forces if he didn't get involved in army matters.

The establishment of the Weimar constitution in 1919

Ebert was elected by the Assembly as the first President of the Republic and a new government, led by Philipp Scheidemann, was formed by the SPD in coalition with the Centre and German Democratic parties

Are there any successful communists' countries in the world today?

Why do capitalist countries fear communist countries?

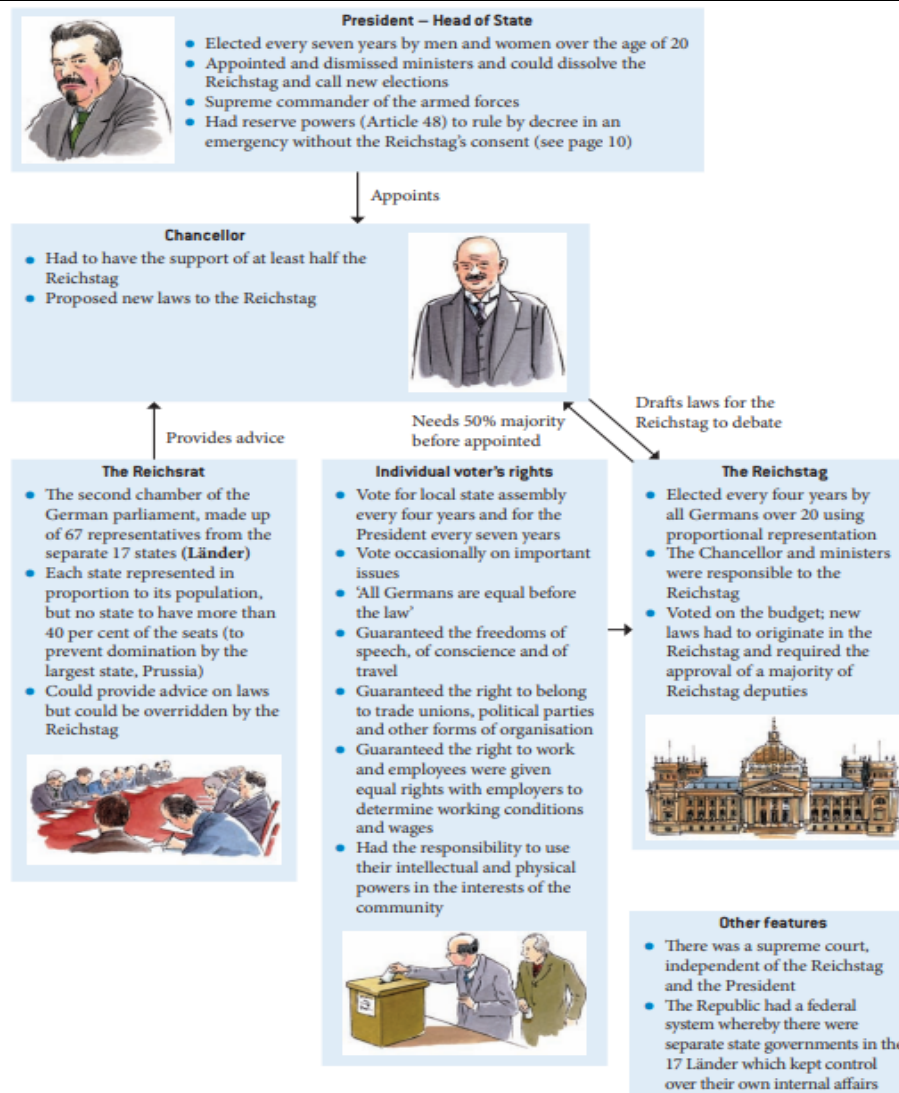
Where else can you give examples of an army propping up a regime?

<p>What were the main political parties from left to right in the New Weimar?</p>	<p>A CLOSER LOOK</p> <p>The main non-socialist political parties in the new republic:</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="562 268 1274 695"> <tr> <td data-bbox="562 268 913 496"> <p>Centre Party</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formed in 1870 to protect Catholic interests in the mainly protestant German Reich • Had strong support in the main Catholic areas of Bavaria and the Rhineland • Supported a democratic constitution </td> <td data-bbox="913 268 1274 496"> <p>German Democratic Party (DDP)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A left-leaning liberal party, based on the old Progressive Party • Most support came from intellectuals and middle class • Supported a democratic constitution </td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="562 496 913 695"> <p>German National People's Party (DNVP)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A nationalist party, based on the old Conservative Party • Most support came from landowners and some small business owners • Rejected the democratic constitution </td> <td data-bbox="913 496 1274 695"> <p>German People's Party (DVP)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A right-leaning liberal party, based on the old National Liberal Party • Most support came from upper-middle class and business interests • Opposed to new republic but willing to participate in its governments </td> </tr> </table> <p>The Weimar constitution, 1919 strengths of the constitution</p> <p>The system of proportional representation enabled even the smaller parties to win seats in the Reichstag and influence government decisions. The country was divided into 35 electoral districts, each with about one million voters.</p> <p>There was full democracy in local government as well as central government. Unlike in the Second Empire, the largest state, Prussia, was not in a position to dominate the rest of Germany</p> <p>Weaknesses of the constitution</p> <p>Proportional representation - Proportional representation was designed to ensure that all shades of political opinion were represented in the Reichstag, since parties were allocated seats in proportion to the percentage of votes that they received in an election. This was a very fair system but it had two clear consequences:</p> <p>The proliferation of small parties: Smaller parties could gain representation in the Reichstag – something that does not usually happen in a system of elections based on the first-past-the-post</p>	<p>Centre Party</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formed in 1870 to protect Catholic interests in the mainly protestant German Reich • Had strong support in the main Catholic areas of Bavaria and the Rhineland • Supported a democratic constitution 	<p>German Democratic Party (DDP)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A left-leaning liberal party, based on the old Progressive Party • Most support came from intellectuals and middle class • Supported a democratic constitution 	<p>German National People's Party (DNVP)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A nationalist party, based on the old Conservative Party • Most support came from landowners and some small business owners • Rejected the democratic constitution 	<p>German People's Party (DVP)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A right-leaning liberal party, based on the old National Liberal Party • Most support came from upper-middle class and business interests • Opposed to new republic but willing to participate in its governments 	<p>Which is more effective PP or First past the post?</p>
	<p>Centre Party</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formed in 1870 to protect Catholic interests in the mainly protestant German Reich • Had strong support in the main Catholic areas of Bavaria and the Rhineland • Supported a democratic constitution 	<p>German Democratic Party (DDP)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A left-leaning liberal party, based on the old Progressive Party • Most support came from intellectuals and middle class • Supported a democratic constitution 				
<p>German National People's Party (DNVP)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A nationalist party, based on the old Conservative Party • Most support came from landowners and some small business owners • Rejected the democratic constitution 	<p>German People's Party (DVP)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A right-leaning liberal party, based on the old National Liberal Party • Most support came from upper-middle class and business interests • Opposed to new republic but willing to participate in its governments 					

	<p>principle (Britain uses this election process). This enabled smaller parties – many of which were anti-republican – to exploit the parliamentary system to gain publicity.</p> <p>Coalition governments: Because of the proliferation of small parties, none of the larger parties could gain an overall majority in the Reichstag. Since governments had to command majority support in the Reichstag, all governments in the Weimar Republic were coalitions, many of which were very short-lived.</p>	<p>Is it a weakness of our democracy that we have so little options in terms of parties to vote for?</p>
--	---	--

Who was the President and Chancellor of the Weimar?

How long could the President stay in power for?



Why do we not have a President in the UK?

Instead of states what does Britain have?

What is the rule of law? What are our British values?

<p>What pact shows the army being largely free from democratic control?</p>	<p>Rule by presidential decree</p> <p>Article 48 of the constitution gave the President the power to rule by decree in exceptional circumstances. The granting of such powers was not remarkable in itself – indeed, all democratic constitutions allow for an executive authority to use exceptional powers in a time of national emergency. It was not anticipated by those who wrote the constitution, however, that these powers might be used on a regular basis. Ebert, the first President, used Article 48 powers on 136 occasions.</p> <p>The survival of undemocratic institutions</p> <p>The army: It had been largely free from political control in the Second Empire and its leaders were determined to preserve as much independence as they could in the Weimar Republic.</p> <p>The civil service: Under the Weimar Constitution, civil servants were given a guarantee of their ‘well-earned rights’ and of their freedom of political opinion and expression as long as this did not conflict with their duty of loyalty to the state.</p> <p>The judiciary: Article 54 of the constitution guaranteed the independence of the judges. This would be a basic requirement in any democratic constitution but in Weimar Germany the judges who had served the Second Empire remained in their posts. These men were staunchly monarchist and anti-democratic and showed their bias in their legal judgements.</p>	<p>What are the dangers if the judiciary answers to the government?</p>
<p>What were the strengths and weaknesses of the Weimar republic?</p>	<p><u>Chapter 2 The Impact of the Versailles Settlement on Germany</u></p> <p>1918 11 November Armistice agreement to end the fighting on the Western Front 1919 18 January Peace Conference convened at Palace of Versailles 7 May German delegates given document containing first draft terms of the treaty 16 June Germans given seven days to sign the treaty 20 June Coalition cabinet collapsed because of divisions over signing treaty</p>	

<p>What can you recall from year 11 around the terms of the TOV?</p>	<p>22 June Reichstag voted to accept the treaty 28 June German delegates signed the Treaty of Versailles</p> <p><u>Terms</u></p> <p>Territorial losses: The treaty removed over 70,000 km² (13 per cent) of German territory and all Germany's overseas colonies: Germany lost 75 per cent of its iron ore, 68 per cent of its zinc ore, 26 per cent of its coal and 15 per cent of its arable land. All of Germany's overseas colonies in Africa and the Far East were placed under League of Nation's control (in practice, divided between the Allies).</p> <p>Disarmament of Germany: Conscription to the German armed forces was forbidden and the German army was limited to a maximum of 100,000 men. The German army was forbidden to use tanks or gas. The German navy was limited to 15,000 men. The navy was allowed a maximum of six battleships but no submarines and a small number of coastal defence vessels. Germany was forbidden from having an air force.</p> <p>War guilt: Under Article 231 of the treaty, Germany had to accept responsibility for starting the war. This 'war guilt clause' made Germany liable to pay reparations to the Allies to cover the costs of damage suffered in the war. The final amount of reparations was fixed by a commission in 1921 at £6.6 billion; Germany also had to hand over to the Allies most of its merchant shipping fleet, railway locomotives and rolling stock, patents and overseas investments</p> <p>The Rhineland: The left bank of the Rhine (western side) and a 50 km strip on the right bank (eastern side) was permanently demilitarised. An Allied army of occupation was based in the Rhineland to ensure Germany fulfilled its treaty obligations.</p> <p>The Saarland: This area of south-western Germany, which contained rich reserves of coal, was separated from Germany and placed under League of Nation's control for 15 years, so Germany would supply France, Belgium and Italy with free coal as part of the reparations agreement. France was allowed to exploit coal mines in the area.</p> <p>Other terms of the treaty: Austria was forbidden from uniting with Germany; Germany was not allowed to join the new League of Nations; The Kaiser and other Germans were to be put on trial for war crimes.</p>	<p>What should happen to countries that start war in society today?</p>
--	---	---

<p>What were Wilson's 14 points?</p> <p>What article was the war guilt clause?</p> <p>What myth was created by the army?</p> <p>Why was this important?</p>	<p>German reactions to the treaty</p> <p>German objections to the treaty focused, in particular, on a number of its provisions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whilst Wilson's Fourteen Points stressed the importance of the right of national self-determination as a basis for a just peace, this right was denied to the Germans themselves. Millions of people who spoke German and considered themselves to be German were now living in non-German states such as Czechoslovakia and Poland. The separation of East Prussia from the rest of Germany by the so-called Polish Corridor was a major source of resentment. • The 'war guilt clause' was seen as an unjust national humiliation since Germans believed they had been forced into a just war against the Allies, who had attempted to encircle Germany. • Reparations were a major cause of anger, partly because Germans felt that the level was too high and would cripple the German economy, and they did not accept the 'war guilt clause', which justified the reparations. • Allied occupation of parts of western Germany, and French control of the Saarland coal mines, led to continuing friction. German nationalists were outraged by the outlawing of nationalist groups and banning of German patriotic songs and festivals in areas under French control. • The disarming of Germany and its exclusion from the League of Nations were seen as unjust discrimination against a proud and once-powerful nation. <p>Scheidemann and some of his ministers wanted to reject the treaty, whereas the majority of the cabinet and of the SPD members of the Reichstag believed that Germany had no other choice but to sign the treaty. Scheidemann resigned and a new coalition cabinet, led by Gustav Bauer, was formed.</p> <p>The reaction of pro-republican parties</p> <p>The SPD and its allies in government in 1919 were well aware that signing it would rebound upon them. Indeed, they were so concerned that they asked their main opponents in the DNVP, DVP and DDP to state that those who had voted for the treaty were not being unpatriotic. They also took the view that the most sensible course of action in the coming years was to outwardly comply with the terms of the treaty whilst negotiating modifications to it. This became known as the policy of fulfilment</p>	<p>Should a country's people be punished for their rulers' decisions?</p>
---	--	---

<p>Who resigned because of the TOV?</p>	<p>activity. In many ways, the German economy coped with the transition from war to peace much more successfully than other European economies.</p> <p>However, allowing inflation to continue unchecked was a policy fraught with danger. Prices, which had doubled between 1918 and 1919, had quadrupled again between 1919 and 1920, reaching a point 14 times higher than in 1913. The reason why governments allowed this to happen was partly political.</p> <p>The 1920 coalition, led by Konstantin Fehrenbach, was dominated by the Centre Party which was supported by many powerful German industrialists. They were benefiting from inflation by taking short-term loans from Germany's central bank to expand their businesses. By the time the loans were due for repayment, their real value had been significantly reduced by inflation. Furthermore, inflation had the effect of lessening the government's burden of debt (although the reparations themselves were not affected because these were paid in gold marks or goods) and it is often suggested that German politicians had a vested interest in allowing it to continue unchecked.</p> <p>In some ways, therefore, inflation was beneficial. By 1921, unemployment in Germany was only 1.8 per cent compared with nearly 17 per cent in Great Britain. This in turn encouraged investment, especially from the USA. However, left unchecked, inflation eventually became uncontrollable and, by 1923, Germany's high inflation became hyperinflation.</p> <p><u>The cabinet of Fehrenbach resigned in protest at what it considered to be excessively harsh terms and was replaced by another led by Chancellor Joseph Wirth.</u> This was the start of the German policy of fulfilment of the Treaty of Versailles under which successive German governments calculated that cooperation would win sympathy from the Allies and a revision in the terms once it became clear that full payment of the reparations was beyond Germany's capacity</p> <p>By January 1922 Germany was in such economic difficulties that the Reparations Commission granted a postponement of the January and February instalments. In July, the German government asked for a further suspension of the payments due that year. In November 1922, it asked for a loan of 500 million gold marks and to be released from its obligations for three to four years in order to stabilise its currency.</p>	<p>What problems does unemployment cause a country? How can you solve the issue of unemployment?</p>
---	--	--

<p>What can you remember about the Hyperinflation crisis of 1923?</p>	<p>The economic impact of reparations. The burden of reparations undoubtedly made a bad situation much worse. Reparations payments made repayment of the huge government debt resulting from the war even more difficult.</p> <p>However, the Allies hampered Germany's export trade by confiscating its entire merchant fleet and, later, by imposing high tariffs on imports of German goods. The Allies were forcing Germany to pay reparations, but making it difficult for Germany to find the money to do so. The response of the German government was to print more money, thereby making inflation even worse and making the value of the mark fall even further.</p> <p>The hyperinflation crisis of 1923</p> <p>By the end of 1922 Germany had fallen seriously behind in its payment of reparations to France in the form of coal. This prompted the French, together with the Belgians, to send a military force of 60,000 men to occupy the Ruhr industrial area in January 1923 in order to force the Germans to comply with the Treaty of Versailles. Their aim was to seize the area's coal, steel and manufactured goods as reparations.</p>	<p>Where else has there been hyperinflation in the 21st century?</p>
<p>Name three other previous chancellors of Germany?</p>	<p>The government of Chancellor Wilhelm Cuno knew the Germans could not fight back. The Versailles Treaty had reduced the size of the German army and the Rhineland, of which the Ruhr was a part, was demilitarised.</p> <p>Instead, he responded by stopping all reparations payments and ordering a policy of 'passive resistance' where by no one living in the area, from businessmen and postal workers to railwaymen and miners, would cooperate with the French authorities.</p> <p>German workers were promised by their government that their wages would continue if they went on strike while paramilitary troops working with the German army secretly organised acts of sabotage against the French</p>	
<p>Why did the French invade the Ruhr?</p>	<p>The scale of the French operation grew in response. The French set up military courts and punished mine owners, miners and civil servants who would not comply with their authority. Around 150,000 Germans were expelled from the area. Worse still, some miners were shot after clashes with police. Altogether, 132 Germans were shot in the eight months of the occupation, including a seven-year-old boy. The French also brought in their own workers to operate the railways and get coal out of the</p>	<p>Are strikes the most effective method to reject an idea/policy?</p>

	<p>Ruhr, but this did not prove particularly effective. In May 1923, deliveries were only a third of the average monthly deliveries in 1922 and output in the Ruhr had fallen to around a fifth of its pre-occupation output</p> <p>The economic effects of the occupation</p> <p>The economic results of the occupation, and the policy of passive resistance, were catastrophic for the German economy for a number of reasons:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Paying the wages or providing goods for striking workers was a further drain on government finances • Tax revenue was lost from those whose businesses were closed and workers who became unemployed • Germany had to import coal and pay for it from the limited foreign currency reserves within the country • Shortage of goods pushed prices up further. The combined cost of all of this amounted to twice the annual reparations payments. Since the government still refused to increase taxes, its only option was to print more money. This was the trigger for the hyperinflation that gripped Germany during the course of 1923. <p>Social welfare</p> <p>1919 A law was passed limiting the working day to a maximum of eight hours</p> <p>1919 The state health insurance system, introduced by Bismarck but limited to workers in employment, was extended to include wives, daughters and the disabled</p> <p>1919 Aid for war veteran's incapable of working because of injury became the responsibility of national government; aid for war widows and orphans was also increased</p> <p>1922 National Youth Welfare Act required all local authorities to set up youth offices with responsibility for child protection and decreed that all children had the right to an education</p>	<p>Is social welfare too expensive or is it needed for society to thrive?</p> <p>What other social welfare policies could be included to help improve Britain?</p>
--	--	--

<p>What can you remember about the impact of Hyperinflation from GCSE?</p>	<p>The social impact of hyperinflation Hyperinflation was not a disaster for everyone – there were winners as well as losers within the increasingly divided German Society.</p> <p>Winners The winners included people who had the means and the guile to speculate and manipulate the situation to their advantage.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There were black-marketeers who bought up food stocks and sold them at vastly inflated prices. • Those who had debts, mortgages and loans did well since they could pay off the money they owed in worthless currency. • Hyperinflation also helped enterprising business people who took out new loans and repaid them once the currency had devalued further. • Those leasing property on long-term fixed rents gained because the real value of the rents they were paying decreased. • Owners of foreign exchange and foreigners living in Germany could also benefit. • In the countryside, most farmers coped well since food was in demand and money was less important in rural communities. <p>losers</p> <p>Those relying on savings, investments, fixed income or welfare support lost out. Among these were students, the retired and the sick.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pensioners were particularly badly hit, including war widows living on state pensions. • Those who had patriotically lent money to the government in wartime by purchasing fixed interest rate ‘war bonds’ also lost out because the interest payments decreased in value. • Landlords reliant on fixed rents were hit badly. • Of the workers, the unskilled and those who did not belong to trade unions fared the worst. <p>Although workers were given wage increases, these did not keep up with rising prices, so standards of living declined. By 1923, there was also an increase in unemployment and short-time working; at the end of the year, only 29.3 per cent of the workforce was fully employed.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Artisans and small business owners – the Mittelstand – were badly hit. Their costs rose and the prices they charged could not keep pace with inflation. They also paid a disproportionate share of taxes. • The sick were very badly hit. The costs of medical care increased whilst the rapid rise in food prices led to widespread malnutrition. Death rates in large cities increased. The suicide rate also went up. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Amongst children suffering from malnutrition, the incidence of diseases such as tuberculosis and rickets – both of which are associated with dietary deficiency – increased. 	<p>How should we support people that have lost their job to events such as the Coronavirus?</p> <p>Should more be to help child malnutrition? How can we solve this issue?</p>
--	---	--

What extremist parties can you remember from GCSE?

Chapter 4
Political instability and extremism, 1919–24

The problems of coalition government

The story of the first four years of the Weimar Republic was one of unstable governments and shifting coalitions. It is also a story of the changing fortunes of the SPD. Whereas in 1918–19 it was the SPD that had taken the lead in establishing the Republic and trying to form stable governments, after June 1920 the SPD ceased to take a leading role in any coalition government due to internal divisions and sometimes did not participate in the ruling coalition at all.

What are the negatives of a coalition government?

Appointment	Chancellor	Party	Members of governing coalition	Fall
February 1919	Philipp Scheidemann	SPD	SPD, Centre, DDP (moderate socialist–centre)	Treaty of Versailles
June 1919	Gustav Bauer	SPD	SPD, Centre, DDP (from October) (moderate socialist–centre)	Kapp Putsch
March 1920	Hermann Müller	SPD	SPD, Centre, DDP (moderate socialist–centre)	Election result
June 1920	Konstantin Fehrenbach	Centre	DDP, Centre, DVP (centre–right)	Reparations ultimatum
May 1921	Joseph Wirth	Centre	SPD, Centre, DDP (moderate socialist–centre)	Cabinet resigned over partition of Upper Silesia
October 1921	Joseph Wirth	Centre	SPD, Centre, DDP (moderate socialist–centre)	
November 1922	Wilhelm Cuno	None	DDP, Centre, DVP, BVP (centre–right)	Economic crisis
August 1923	Gustav Stresemann	DVP	SPD, Centre, DDP, DVP (centre–right with socialists – the ‘Great Coalition’)	
October 1923	Gustav Stresemann	DVP	SPD, Centre, DDP, DVP (‘Great Coalition’)	SPD left the coalition
November 1923	Wilhelm Marx	Centre	(centre–right)	

<p>What was the Spartacist uprising?</p>	<div data-bbox="568 197 954 1054" style="background-color: #e0e0e0; padding: 5px;"> <p>KEY CHRONOLOGY</p> <p>Political extremism 1919–23</p> <p>1919 January Spartacist rising in Berlin</p> <p>March Second Spartacist rising in Berlin</p> <p>April Strikes in Halle and the Ruhr</p> <p>October Assassination of Hugo Haase</p> <p>1920 February Kapp Putsch</p> <p>April Workers' revolts in Saxony and Thuringia</p> <p>1921 March Communist-led revolt in Saxony, spread to Hamburg and the Ruhr</p> <p>August Assassination of Erzberger</p> <p>1922 June Assassination of Rathenau</p> <p>1923 October Communist-led revolt in Saxony</p> <p>November Beer Hall Putsch in Munich</p> </div> <p>On 5 January 1919, the Spartacus League, known as the Spartacists, led by Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg, staged an armed uprising in Berlin to overthrow Ebert's government and set up a revolutionary communist regime.</p> <p>He therefore had to use the irregular forces of the new Freikorps. By 13 January, the Spartacist rising had been crushed after brutal street fighting in which many prisoners, including Liebknecht and Luxemburg, were executed.</p>	<p>What extremism issues does the world face in the 21st century?</p> <p>How are uprisings dealt differently with around the world today?</p>
--	--	--

<p>Why could the civil service be disloyal?</p>	<p>and Ludendorff remained non-committal. They sympathised but were aware of the dangers of voicing open support.</p> <p>Ebert's government was forced to withdraw to Dresden, and when Ebert and his chancellor, Gustav Bauer, called on the regular army to crush the rising, Seeckt famously told Ebert: 'Troops do not fire on troops; when Reichswehr fires on Reichswehr, all comradeship within the officer corps has vanished'. The situation appeared dangerous, but there was actually considerable tension between the military and civilian elements of the putsch and it failed to gain widespread support, even from the right wing. Civil servants and bankers remained at best lukewarm and often hostile, whilst trade unions, encouraged by the socialist members of Ebert's government, called a general strike. Berlin was brought to a standstill and, within four days, the putsch collapsed. Kapp and Lüttwitz were forced to flee. Ebert's government returned, but not quite with the air of triumph that might have been expected. The putsch had taught a number of lessons. The army was not to be trusted, civil servants could be disloyal, the workers as a group could show their power (a realisation that gave renewed vigour to the communist movement) and, without the army's support, the Weimar government was weak. The leniency shown by right-wing judges towards those brought to trial in the aftermath of the putsch contrasted strongly with the harsh treatment suffered by the left wing, and their behaviour sent a message that the government was not really in control.</p>	
<p>When did Hugo Haase found the USPD?</p>	<p>Political assassinations</p> <p>The violence continued as right-wing nationalists organised themselves into leagues, committed to the elimination of prominent politicians and those associated with the 'betrayal' of Germany. These Vaterländische Verbände (Patriotic Leagues), often formed out of the old Freikorps units, acted as fiercely anti-republican paramilitaries. They were potentially very powerful and some were actively supported by members of the regular German army. One early victim of the assassins' bullets was Hugo Haase, a USPD member who had been a member of the Council of People's Commissars. He was shot in front of the Reichstag in October 1919 and died of his wounds a month later</p>	
<p>What were some of the people who signed the TOV labelled as?</p>	<p>The assassination of Erzberger In August 1921, the former finance minister, Matthias Erzberger, was assassinated in the Black Forest by two members of the terrorist league Organisation Consul. He had already been shot in January and left wounded, but the assassins were determined to complete the job. Erzberger had led the German delegation for the signing of the armistice and had signed the Treaty of Versailles. He was also Germany's representative on the reparations committee. Even after he was buried, his widow continued to receive abusive letters, including threats to defile his grave.</p>	

<p>Why do you think the Judiciary were less harsh on right wing groups?</p> <p>Why were the communists often unsuccessful in Germany?</p> <p>When was the Nazi party founded?</p>	<p>The assassination of Rathenau On 24 June 1922, it was the turn of the foreign minister, Walther Rathenau. He was driving to work in an open-top car when four assassins from Organisation Consul shot at him and hurled a hand grenade for good measure. Rathenau's 'crimes' were to be a Jew and a leading minister in the republican government. He had participated in the signing of the armistice and had negotiated with the Allies to try to improve the Treaty of Versailles. Nevertheless, Rathenau had been a popular figure and the following day over 700,000 protestors lined the streets of Berlin. The assassination had an impact abroad too; the value of the mark fell as other countries feared the repercussions.</p> <p>Altogether, between 1919 and 1923, there were 376 political assassinations, 22 carried out by the left, 354 by the right.</p> <p>Whilst 326 right-wing murderers went unpunished and only one was convicted and sentenced to severe punishment until 1923, 10 left-wing murderers were sentenced to death.</p> <p>Political impact of the Ruhr invasion</p> <p>Germans of all classes and political allegiances had been outraged by the French occupation of the Ruhr. The trauma of hyperinflation had profound psychological effects. Germany was swept by a wave of anti-French feeling and the country was more united than at any time since the end of the war</p> <p>Many blamed the government for what happened and middle-class support for the Republic was severely damaged. Organisations representing the Mittelstand accused the government of failing in its responsibility to protect independent small traders and artisans. On the left, the communists tried to use the crisis to stage uprisings in some areas. Moreover, after the ending of passive resistance, the nationalist right accused the government of betrayal. The occupation of the Ruhr, and the subsequent hyperinflation crisis, were the backdrop to the last attempt to overthrow the Republic by force in 1923 by a small Bavarian-based party known as the National Socialist German Workers Party (NSDAP or Nazi Party).</p> <p>The establishment of the Nazi Party and the Beer hall Putsch</p> <p>The Nazi party was almost alone in arguing that German patriots should first remove the 'November Criminals' from government before dealing with the French. When the government of Gustav Stresemann called off the passive resistance in September without winning any concessions from the</p>	
---	---	--

<p>How similar is the Beer Hall Putsch to the other risings between 1919-23? Why did they all fail?</p> <p>What are the order of the Chancellors from 1919-23?</p>	<p>French, there was an outcry from the Right. This was seen as yet another act of betrayal. In Bavaria, the right-wing government declared a state of emergency and appointed Gustav von Kahr as state commissioner. Amongst right-wing nationalists in the Bavarian capital, Munich, there was growing agitation for a 'march on Berlin' to overthrow the government and establish a national dictatorship. At the forefront of the agitation for a 'march on Berlin' was the leader of the NSDAP, then little known, Adolf Hitler.</p> <p>Beer Hall Putsch in Munich In November 1923, Hitler made a bid to seize power. He knew that a putsch could only succeed if he had the support of powerful figures so, having secured the support of Ludendorff, he set out to win over Ritter von Kahr and Otto von Lossow, the local army commander. On 8 November, he burst into a Munich Beer Hall, where the two were addressing a meeting of 2000, surrounding it with his Stormtroopers (SA) and announcing that the revolution had begun. At gunpoint, in a side room, Kahr and von Lossow were persuaded to agree to his plan to march on Berlin and to install Ludendorff as the new Commander-in-Chief. However, their support evaporated overnight and so too did Hitler's chances of persuading others to support him. Crucially, the Stormtroopers were unable to gain control of the Munich army barracks and by the next day, 9 November, it was clear that Hitler's original plan had failed. Nevertheless, he went ahead with a march through Munich. The ensuing gun battle with the police later became part of the folklore of the 'courageous' Nazis who marched fearlessly through the streets into the arms of a police cordon. Hitler fell and dislocated his shoulder, possibly in response to the shooting of his companion with whom he had linked arms. He fled, only to be captured the next day, whilst Ludendorff walked straight up to the police and allowed himself to be arrested. The incident showed again the importance of the army to the political survival of the regime. General Seeckt sent in troops to deal with the aftermath of the abortive putsch, and central control over Bavaria was soon re-imposed. The Nazis were banned and Hitler imprisoned (although he served just nine months of his five-year sentence). Once again, the Republic survived.</p> <p>5 Economic developments</p> <p>The stabilisation of the currency</p> <p>In August 1923, at the height of the hyperinflation crisis, the government of Cuno collapsed and was replaced by a new coalition led by Gustav Stresemann. Stresemann's coalition – the so-called 'great coalition' – was the first in the short history of the Weimar Republic to include parties from both the left and the right. Stresemann's own party, the DVP, shared power with the Centre Party, the Socialists and the DDP. Stresemann, who was Chancellor for a mere 103 days, took office at a time</p>	<p>What happened in Washington the night Biden won the election?</p>
--	--	--

<p>Why did the end of passive resistance upset the Nazis?</p>	<p>when the Weimar Republic was in serious political and economic difficulty. By the time he left office in November, the currency had been stabilised, inflation had been brought under control and attempts to overthrow the republic from both the left and the right had ended in failure. Stresemann's priority was to bring inflation under control. This involved three key steps.</p> <p>The end of passive resistance Passive resistance against the occupation of the Ruhr was called off in September. This was a highly unpopular and risky move, which led to serious unrest and the attempted Beer Hall Putsch in Munich. Stresemann calculated, however, that he had no alternative. Germany's economy was beginning to grind to a halt and inflation was completely out of control. Ending passive resistance, which meant that the government stopped paying workers who refused to work for the French, was an essential first step towards reducing government expenditure.</p> <p>The issuing of a new currency In November, a new currency called the Rentenmark was introduced to replace the old and worthless Reichsmark. The new currency was exchanged for the old on the basis of one Rentenmark for one trillion old marks. Since Germany did not have sufficient gold reserves to back the new currency, it was supported by a mortgage on all industrial and agricultural land. Once the new currency was successfully launched, the government kept tight control over the amount of money in circulation in order to prevent inflation reappearing. The old inflated marks were gradually cashed in and, in August 1924, the Rentenmark became the Reichsmark, backed by the German gold reserve, which had to be maintained at 30 per cent of the value of the Reichsmarks in circulation. Inflation ceased to be a problem and the value of the new currency was established at home and abroad. All this happened under the direction of Hjalmar Schacht.</p> <p>Balancing the budget Stresemann's government cut expenditure and raised taxes. The salaries of government employees were cut, some 300,000 civil servants lost their jobs and taxes were raised for both individuals and companies. As government debt began to fall, confidence was restored. These changes made a considerable difference to the way that the German economy operated. Well-managed companies that were run prudently and were careful not to build up excessive debt continued to prosper. Weaker companies that were heavily reliant on credit crumbled. The number of companies that went bankrupt in Germany rose from 233 in 1923 to over 6000 in 1924. Moreover, those who had lost their savings in the collapse of the old currency did not gain anything from the introduction of a new currency.</p>	<p>How else can people show resistance if they disagree with political decisions?</p> <p>How can Britain balance the budget after the Coronavirus epidemic?</p>
---	--	---

<p>What can you remember from GCSE about the Dawes plan? How would it help stabilise Germany?</p> <p>Why would some people be against the Dawes plan?</p>	<p>The reparations issue and the Dawes Plan</p> <p>The stabilisation of Germany's economy was as much dependent on settling the reparations dispute as it was on domestic issues. In November 1923, Stresemann asked the Allies' Reparations Committee to set up a committee of financial experts to address Germany's repayment concerns. The USA had a vested interest in getting Germany back to a position where reparations could be made to France, because much of this money was then passed on to the USA to repay loans. Therefore, the American banker Charles Dawes acted as the new committee's chairman. By the time the Dawes Plan was finalised in April 1924, Stresemann's government had fallen, but he remained as foreign secretary and took credit for much of what was achieved. Although the Dawes Plan confirmed the original figure of a total reparation's payment of £6.6 billion (132,000 million gold marks), it made the payments more manageable. It recommended that:</p> <p>The amount paid each year by Germany should be reduced until 1929, when the situation would be reappraised. It proposed that Germany should re-start reparations by paying 1000 million marks (a fraction of what had been expected before) and that this sum should be raised by annual increments over five years by 2500 million marks per year. After this, the sum paid should be related to German industrial performance.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Germany should receive a large loan of 800 million marks from the USA to help get the plan started and to allow for heavy investment in German infrastructure. <p>There was a heated debate in the Reichstag over the Dawes Plan. Stresemann himself did not actually believe in the plan, privately referring to it as 'no more than an economic armistice', but he agreed to it as a way of securing foreign loans. The so-called 'national opposition' (mainly the DNVP, but also smaller right-wing groups like the Nazi movement) bitterly attacked this policy of compromise, since they believed Germany should defy the unjust Versailles Treaty and refuse to pay reparations altogether. However, the Dawes Plan was eventually agreed and accepted by both Germany and the Allies in July 1924. It brought several benefits to Germany:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Allies accepted that Germany's problems with the payment of reparations were real. • Loans were granted, with which new machinery, factories, houses and jobs could be provided and the German economy rebuilt. The French gradually left the Ruhr during 1924–25, once it became 	<p>Should countries rely on loans from other countries/IMF to bail them out of trouble?</p>
---	---	---

<p>Why would the Dawes plan limit extremism?</p>	<p>clear that Germany was going to restart paying reparations and the occupation could no longer be justified. Such measures contributed to German optimism that their country was once again its own master.</p> <p>The extent of economic recovery</p> <p>By 1925, Germany appeared more stable and prosperous. The combination of the new currency, the Dawes Plan and Schacht's work at the Reichsbank (where interest rates were kept high to attract foreign investment), helped improve Germany's situation enormously. American loans helped stimulate the economy. Industrial output grew after 1924 but did not reach 1913 levels until 1929. The extent of this boom should not be exaggerated. Growth rates were unsteady. The years 1924–25 and 1927 were good years, but the economy shrank in 1928 and 1929. Investment in new machinery and factories was falling by 1929.</p> <p>Advances were made in the chemical industry, such as the large-scale production of artificial fertilisers. The car and aeroplane industries also developed, although cars were still too expensive for the average German. The inflation rate was close to zero and living standards rose as wages began to increase from 1924. Loans helped to finance the building of housing, schools, municipal buildings, road and public works. Massive population growth had created an acute housing shortage in Germany by the early twentieth century, and the overcrowding and insanitary conditions of working-class city accommodation had been linked to political instability. Consequently, state initiatives to provide affordable homes were of great importance for future stability. In 1925, 178,930 dwellings were built – over 70,000 more than in the previous year – and, in 1926, there were to be 205,793 more new homes. Money was spent on welfare payments and health improvements and, in 1924, new schemes of relief were launched.</p> <p>The number of strikes in German industry declined in these years, partly because a new system of compulsory arbitration for settling industrial disputes was issued. However, employers felt that this system was biased in favour of the unions and resented the state's interference in their affairs. The Weimar Republic had already set a maximum of eight hours for a working day and had given trade unions the right to be part of work councils in factories and mines. In 1928, a dispute over wages in the iron and steel industry in the Ruhr resulted in the arbitrator granting a small wage increase to the workers.</p>	<p>How can Britain solve the issue of housing? Is building more the only answer? What if they are too expensive?</p> <p>Should workers be allowed to strike if they are unhappy with pay and conditions?</p>
--	--	--

<p>Why were farmers impacted by Hyperinflation?</p>	<p>Compulsory arbitration: industrial disputes are often settled by arbitration, in which both sides agree to allow an independent figure, known as the arbitrator, decide on a solution; in Weimar Germany, arbitration was made compulsory by law</p> <p>The employers then refused to pay the increase and locked out the workers for four weeks. In this dispute the workers were backed by the government and paid by the state. There were undoubtedly improvements in living standards for ordinary German workers, especially those who were backed by powerful trade unions. They benefited from increases in the real value of wages in each year after 1924. In 1927, real wages increased by 9 per cent and, in 1928, they rose by a further 12 per cent.</p> <p>Limits to the economic recovery</p> <p>Unemployment was a continuing problem in these years. By the end of 1925, unemployment had reached one million; by March 1926, it was over three million, although it did fall after that. This was due partly to there being more people seeking work, partly to public spending cuts, but also to companies reducing their workforces in order to make efficiency savings. The mining companies reduced their workforces by 136,000 between 1922 and 1925, and reduced them by another 56,000 between 1925 and 1929.</p> <p>Agriculture</p> <p>Farmers gained very little benefit from the economic recovery of these years. A worldwide agricultural depression kept food prices low and few farmers were able to make a profit on their land. During the inflation of the early 1920s, large landowners and farmers borrowed money to buy new machinery and improve their farms. Smaller peasant farmers, however, tended to hoard money and their savings were wiped out by inflation. After 1923, the government made it easier for farmers to borrow money, but this made matters worse. Farmers became saddled with debt at a time when prices were falling and they could not, therefore, keep up the repayments. The increased taxes introduced to pay for the welfare benefits of the unemployed and sick were regarded as an unfair burden on farmers and landowners. The governments of these years tried to relieve the farmers' plight by introducing high import tariffs on food products, import controls and subsidies to farmers, but these measures did not go far enough. The plight of German farmers worsened due to a global grain surplus and price slump in 1925 and 1926. By the late 1920s, there was an increase in</p>	<p>How has Brexit impacted Farmers?</p>
---	--	---

<p>What can you remember about the young plan from GCSE?</p>	<p>bankruptcies amongst farmers and many of them lost their land as the banks demanded repayment of loans. In 1928, farmers initiated a series of smallscale riots – known as the ‘farmers’ revenge’ – in protest against foreclosures and low market prices. By 1929, German agricultural production was at less than three-quarters of its pre-war levels.</p> <p>The reparations issue and the young Plan</p> <p>The Dawes Plan of 1924 was only ever intended to be a temporary settlement of the reparations issue. Although the French and Belgians left the Ruhr by 1925, Allied forces remained in occupation of the Rhineland and the French would not agree to withdraw these forces unless and until a final settlement of the reparations issue had been agreed. Therefore Stresemann, who had continued to serve as Foreign Minister after his own coalition government collapsed, agreed that the issue should be considered by an international committee headed by the American businessman Owen Young. This committee met in Paris in 1929, with Schacht as one of Germany’s representatives, and produced a report on the final settlement of the reparations issue. The Young Plan obliged Germany to continue paying reparations until 1988. The total reparations bill was considerably reduced, with Germany being required to pay £1.8 billion instead of the original sum of £6.5 billion, but the annual payment Germany was required to make increased. All foreign control over reparations was ended and the responsibility for paying reparations was placed solely on the German government. In return, Britain and France agreed to withdraw all their troops from the Rhineland by June 1930.</p> <p>Despite containing a number of concessions to Germany, the Young Plan nevertheless inflamed nationalist opinion in Germany. The new leader of the right-wing DNVP, Alfred Hugenberg, launched a nationwide campaign against the plan, which involved other conservative groups, including Adolf Hitler and the Nazis. This campaign group drew up the draft of a law – the so-called ‘freedom law’– which they demanded should be submitted to a national referendum. This law required the government to repudiate the war-guilt clause of the Treaty of Versailles, to demand immediate evacuation of the occupied areas and declared that any minister who signed a treaty that involved acceptance of war guilt would be tried for treason.</p> <p>Hugenberg’s group launched a petition in support of their ‘freedom law’ and attracted 4,135,000 signatures. This was enough to ensure that it would have to be debated by the Reichstag and put to a referendum. In the Reichstag debate, the ‘freedom law’ was decisively defeated and it was also rejected in the referendum. On the other hand, the fact that 5,825,000, or 13.8 per cent of the</p>	<p>Should referendums happen more often on important decisions or do people not know enough about politics to make important decisions?</p>
--	---	---

<p>What do you remember about the “Golden age of Germany”?</p>	<p>electorate, voted for the ‘freedom Law’ was an indication of the depth of support for right-wing nationalism. Moreover, Adolf Hitler’s leading role in the campaign, which was financed by Hugenberg, enabled him to make a decisive breakthrough as a national political figure.</p> <p>Chapter 6</p> <p>Social and cultural developments in Germany, 1924–28</p> <p>Social welfare reform Social welfare reforms between 1924–27 included: 1924 The Public Assistance system, which provided help to the poor and destitute, was modernised 1925 The state accident insurance system, introduced by Bismarck to help those injured at work, was extended to cover those suffering from occupational diseases</p> <p>1927 A national unemployment insurance system was introduced to provide benefits for the unemployed, financed by contributions from workers and employers</p> <p>For many Germans, the welfare system promised more than it delivered. It was also very expensive. In 1926, the state was supporting about 800,000 disabled war veterans, 360,000 war widows and over 900,000 war orphans. This was in addition to old age pensions and, after 1927, the cost of unemployment benefits. The welfare system also needed a large and expensive bureaucracy to administer it. Taxes were increased after 1924, but there was a limit to how much the better-off were prepared to shoulder the burden of welfare expenditure</p> <p>Living standards and lifestyles</p> <p>Living standards and lifestyles The living standards of millions of Germans undoubtedly improved during the years 1924–28. Those in work, particularly those represented by powerful trade unions, were able to maintain their living standards by negotiating wage increases. Those dependent on welfare benefits were less well off, and undoubtedly suffered some hardships, but they were prevented from falling into abject poverty by the welfare system. Business owners and their salaried employees benefited from the improved trading position for German companies at this time.</p>	<p>Should people receive unemployment benefit?</p> <p>Should your wage go up alongside inflation?</p>
--	--	---

<p>How did the Dawes plan create a “golden age” for women?</p> <p>What was life like for women under the Kaiser?</p>	<p>There were, however, many exceptions to this rule. Those who had lost their savings during the hyperinflation of 1923 were unable to regain the comfortable lifestyles they had once enjoyed. Farmers suffered from poor trading conditions and low prices, and their incomes were falling. The air of confidence that was exuded in cities such as Berlin was not apparent across the whole country.</p> <p>Position of women The Weimar Constitution had given women equality with men in voting rights and in access to education. It had also given women equal opportunities in civil service appointments and the right to equal pay. This coincided with a major change in the gender balance of the population as a result of the war. Over two million Germans, mostly young males, had been killed in the war, so there were fewer opportunities for young women to follow the conventional path of marriage and child-rearing to economic security. The war had also brought many more women into paid employment to replace the men who had fought.</p> <p>The extent of change, however, should not be exaggerated. Moreover, not all German citizens approved of the changes – not even all women. Although the constitution gave women new legal and civil rights, the much more traditional Civil Code of 1896 remained in force. Among other things, this code laid down that, in a marriage, the husband had the right to decide on all matters concerning family life, including whether his wife should undertake paid employment. The most popular women’s group in the 1920s was the League of German Women (BDF), which had 900,000 members. Far from supporting the ‘new woman’, the BDF promoted traditional family values.</p>	<p>How can women’s rights continue to improve in Britain as well as the rest of the world?</p>
--	---	--

Why would some people be against Liberalisation of women?

Table 1 *The myth of the 'new woman', versus reality*

	The myth of the 'new woman'	The reality
Employment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The constitution gave women greater equality in employment rights By 1925, 36 per cent of the German workforce were women By 1933, there were 100,000 women teachers and 3000 women doctors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The 'demobilisation' laws after the war required women to leave their jobs so that ex-soldiers could find employment In many occupations, women were required to give up their employment when they married Women were paid much less than men doing equivalent work Married women who continued to have paid jobs were attacked as 'double-earners' and blamed for male unemployment. There were campaigns in the press and by conservative parties for the dismissal of married women workers.
Sexual freedom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Birth control became more widely available and the birth rate declined Divorce rates increased There was a rise in the number of abortions; by 1930, there was an estimated 1 million abortions a year. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Abortion was a criminal offence and would often be performed by unqualified people. In 1930, there were an estimated 10–12,000 deaths each year from abortions The decline in the birth rate was attacked by the conservative press and politicians as a 'birth strike' that threatened the health of the nation and the continued existence of the race Catholic and Protestant churches were vigorously opposed to birth control, divorce and abortion. Many German women were committed members of church congregations.
Politics and public life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Women gained equal voting rights and the right to be Reichstag deputies in the Weimar Constitution In 1919, 41 women were elected to the Reichstag; the number of women deputies fell in subsequent elections (see Table 2 below) but the German Reichstag had a higher proportion of female deputies than the British House of Commons Women were also very active in local government at state and city level. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There were no female representatives in the Reichsrat No woman became a cabinet member during the Weimar Republic No political party had a female leader in the Weimar years Only the communists (KPD) made gender equality a key element in its programme but it was the least appealing party to the new female electorate The party that gained the most from female suffrage was the Catholic Centre Party. In Protestant areas, the conservative DNVP and the DVP appealed most to women voters. None of these parties gave any support to feminist issues.

Should abortion be limited or should all women have the right to abortion?

Four women politicians in Weimar Germany

Clara Zetkin (1857–1933) was a KPD member of the Reichstag from 1920 to 1933. She had been active in the SPD before 1914 and was a leading campaigner for women's rights, having organised the first International Women's Day in 1911. She was also a close friend of Rosa Luxemburg. Clara blamed capitalism for reducing women to the status of breeders and homebuilders, and believed women would only be truly liberated by a socialist revolution.



Fig. 2 Clara Zetkin

Marie Juchacz (1879–1956) was a long-standing member of the SPD and elected to the National Assembly in 1919. She was the first woman to make a speech in any legislative body in Germany. She served as a Reichstag deputy for the SPD until 1933. Marie came from a poor, rural background and left school at 14 to earn money for her family. She had been introduced to politics by her older brother, Otto Gohlke, and joined the SPD in 1908, when she became one of the first female party members.

Marianne Weber (1870–1954) was an intellectual and academic, and the wife of Max Weber, a leading sociologist. She wrote several books on feminist issues and was active in the German women's suffrage movement before 1914. In 1919, she joined the DDP and was the first woman elected to state legislature in Baden. She wrote that 'It is our responsibility to infuse all life with our special mix of feminine and humane influence.'

Paula Müller-Otfried (1865–1946) was a devout Protestant and co-founder of the German Protestant Women's League. She was very active in her church and in social work, and was opposed to women's suffrage, warning that voting rights would not improve women's lives. Nevertheless, as a member of the DNVP, she became a Reichstag deputy in 1920 and continued in this role until 1932.

Young people

How were young people impacted by Hyperinflation?

Weimar Germany were breaking free of the constraints of family, school and religion, and turning increasingly to a life of crime and anti-social behaviour. Those children, mostly from working-class families, who did not attend the highly selective Gymnasium schools, were supposed to leave school at the age of 14 and begin an apprenticeship or employment. In the Weimar years, however, there were fewer apprenticeships and more youth unemployment. Young people suffered disproportionately from the rise in unemployment after 1924. In 1925–26, 17 per cent of the unemployed were in the 14–21 age group. This was partly because there had been a baby boom between 1900 and 1910, so many more young people were seeking employment at a time when

How can we get more women into politics?

Why is it important to have more women in politics?

Are young people still negatively affected in society today?

	<p>employers were reducing their workforces. The benefits system provided some help for young people and day centres were established to help youths acquire the skills needed to find work, but neither could compensate for the lack of employment opportunity. The result was that many young, working-class Germans living in big cities joined gangs to find the comradeship, mutual support and sense of adventure that was otherwise lacking in their lives.</p> <p>youth groups In Germany, the establishment of organisations catering for young people began in the 1890s and continued through the Weimar period. There were three main types of youth groups:</p> <p>Wandervogel</p> <p>The first Wandervogel group, or ‘wandering birds’, was set up in 1896 by a Berlin schoolteacher. The movement quickly spread and groups consisted of mainly middle-class boys. Although the Wandervogel were non-political, they were nevertheless highly nationalistic, with a very romanticised view of Germany’s past. They hated industrialisation and big cities, and much of their time was spent hiking in the forests, swimming in lakes and rivers, and sleeping under canvas. In many ways, therefore, they rejected middle-class social conventions and sought the freedom of wild spaces. Some adopted a more unconventional lifestyle by practising nudism and vegetarianism.</p> <p>Church youth groups</p> <p>Both the Catholic and Protestant churches had youth groups. The Catholics had many different groups aimed at different sections of young people, e.g. New Germany, which was founded in 1919, and aimed at middle-class youths. The Protestants did not give youth work as high a priority and their groups had far fewer members. In both religions, the tasks of the youth groups were to promote religious observance and instil respect for the church, family and school</p> <p>Political youth groups</p> <p>All of the main political parties had their youth sections, e.g. • The Social Democratic Youth movement (SPD) was founded in 1925. It had the most members of any political youth groups in the</p>	<p>What are the challenges facing young people?</p> <p>Are youth groups still needed in society? Do they stop anti-social behaviour?</p>
--	--	--

<p>Were all groups of people including Jews thriving in the 1920's?</p>	<p>Weimar period. • The Young Communist League was founded in 1925 for the children of KPD members. • The Bismarck Youth, linked to the DNVP, was founded in 1922 and reached a membership of 42,000 by 1928. Its strongest appeal was among middle and upper class youths in Protestant areas, but it also had a strong working-class following in Berlin. • The Hitler Youth was linked to the Nazi Party. Its growth was slow in the 1920s, reaching a membership of only about 13,000 in 1929.</p> <p>The Jews</p> <p>There were more than half a million Jews living in Germany under the Weimar Republic. Eighty per cent of Jews in Germany (400,000) lived in cities and were well educated. Many of them felt much more German than Jewish and were intensely patriotic. Many believed in assimilation – keeping their ethnic and cultural identity but becoming fully integrated and accepted in mainstream German society. The achievements of German Jews under the Weimar Republic were remarkable. Jews represented only one per cent of the total population, but they achieved a degree of influence out of all proportion to their numbers. German Jews achieved prominence in politics and the press, in business and banking, in the universities and in almost all aspects of Weimar culture. Jews had huge influence in the publishing of books and newspapers. Jewish musicians were at the forefront of musical life. Jewish producers and directors dominated theatre and the new medium of cinema.</p> <p>Politics and the press</p> <p>German Jews were already well established in the world of politics before 1914. Jewish publishing firms had a powerful influence in the media, with two Jewish-run newspapers in particular, the Berliner Tageblatt and the Frankfurter Zeitung, promoting liberal political views. Theodor Wolff, editor of Berliner Tageblatt, was the driving force behind the moderate Liberal DDP and Walter Rathenau, who became Foreign Minister in 1922, was also a leading member of the DDP. Jews were</p>	<p>Does Anti-Semitism still exist in society today? How can we eradicate it?</p>
---	---	--

<p>Were Jewish people effected by Hyperinflation?</p>	<p>also prominent in the SPD and the KPD. Rosa Luxemburg, Hugo Haase and Kurt Eisner, the leader of the revolution in Bavaria in November 1918, all came from Jewish backgrounds.</p> <p>Industry, commerce, and professions</p> <p>German Jews achieved considerable wealth and influence in industry and commerce, although the extent of this influence was massively exaggerated by anti-Jewish propaganda, both at the time and afterwards. For example, the Rathenau family controlled the huge electrical engineering firm AEG until 1927. Jewish firms dominated coal-mining, steelworks and the chemical industry in Silesia, but had very little importance in the western industrial areas of the Rhineland or the Ruhr. Jewish banking families, such as the Rothschilds, Mendelssohns and Bleichröders, owned about 50 per cent of private banks. Jewish directors also managed several major public banks. To make such a list of Jewish banking interests can be misleading, however; in the 1920s, the role of Jews in banking was actually declining. Banks owned by Jews made up about 18 per cent of the banking sector in Germany, a considerably smaller proportion than in the years before 1914. Jews were particularly active and successful in retailing. They owned almost half of the firms involved in the cloth trade. Jews were immensely successful in the professions, especially law and medicine, making up 16 per cent of the lawyers and 11 per cent of doctors in Germany. There were especially high numbers in Berlin; more than half of the doctors there in 1930 were Jewish and of 3400 lawyers, 1835 were Jews. Jews also had a significant impact on the academic life of Germany. Of the 38 Nobel Prizes awarded to people working in Germany up to 1938, nine (24 per cent) were awarded to Jews. Germany was a world leader in the physical sciences, not least because of Albert Einstein, who revolutionised theoretical physics with his work on the theory of relativity and quantum mechanics.</p>	<p>What is a common stereotype that Jewish people face? How can we solve these issues?</p>
<p>How would the Nazis respond to Jewish assimilation?</p>	<p>The extent of assimilation and anti-Semitism</p> <p>The vast majority of German Jews wished to assimilate. In language, dress and lifestyle, thousands of Jews looked and acted like other Germans. Many had married non-Jewish spouses, given up religious observance or converted to Christianity. By the late 1920s, the process of assimilation was far</p>	

<p>What was art and culture like under the Kaiser from what you can remember at GCSE?</p>	<p>advanced. The chief factor limiting the degree of Jewish integration into German society, however, was the reluctance of many Germans to stop identifying Jews as somehow alien. There was still a significant gap between wanting to be completely assimilated and feeling the security of being completely accepted.</p> <p>Barmat scandal of 1925</p> <p>Some scandals in the later 1920s provided ammunition for anti-Semitic attacks. The most sensational was the Barmat scandal of 1925. The Barmat brothers, Julius, Salomon and Henri, were Jewish businessmen who had emigrated from Galicia in Poland just after the war. After a high-profile court case, they were convicted of having bribed public officials to obtain loans from the Prussian State Bank and the National Post Office. Julius and Salomon were eventually sentenced to 11 months in jail.</p> <p>The development of arts and culture in the Weimar Republic</p> <p>Berlin's nightclubs</p> <p>The greater cultural and personal freedom that was a feature of the Weimar Republic was epitomised in the vibrant nightlife of Berlin in the 1920s, especially in the more prosperous years after 1924. Berlin nightclubs became renowned for their cabarets in which nudity featured strongly. One such club, the Eldorado, was described by a German composer, Friedrich Hollaender, as a 'supermarket of eroticism'. Gay men, lesbians and transvestites, who before 1918 were forced to conceal their sexuality, now felt free to display it openly.</p> <p>American jazz music, much of it played by black American musicians, became popular. Many of the comedians performing in the clubs attacked politicians and authoritarian attitudes. Many older, more traditionally minded Germans regarded the Berlin nightclub scene with horror and contempt. They hated the influence of the USA on German cultural life and attacked the Weimar Republic for relaxing censorship. They felt that order and discipline had been destroyed by the revolution of 1918 and that German society was becoming morally degenerate.</p>	<p>Can everyone display their sexuality freely in Britain today? What are the laws around sexuality?</p>
---	--	--

<p>Why would conservatives and the Church be against liberalisation of the arts?</p>	<p>Art Expressionist painters believed that their works should express meaning or emotion rather than physical reality, hence their paintings were abstract in style and vivid in colour.</p> <p>Music Expressionism also influenced German classical composers in this period.</p> <p>literature was revolt against parental authority.</p> <p>Its students were encouraged to break down the barriers between art and technology by incorporating new materials such as steel, concrete and glass into their designs. Students were taught to make the function of an object or building into the key element of their designs, stripping away superfluous ornamentation.</p> <p>Theatre Many German dramatists incorporated expressionist ideas into their productions. Sets were stark and plays relied on abstraction and symbolism to convey their message. Much of experimental theatre in Weimar Germany was explicitly political, attacking capitalism, nationalism and war.</p> <p>Film Berlin became an important centre for world cinema, developing modern techniques that would later be exploited by Nazi propaganda. Important figures of Jewish descent in the German film industry included Fritz Lang, Billy Wilder (later famous in post-war Hollywood) and Josef von Sternberg. It was Sternberg who directed the best-known film of the Weimar era, The Blue Angel, starring Marlene Dietrich as Lola, the sexy singer in a sleazy nightclub cabaret who seduces an innocent old professor played by Emil Jannings.</p>	<p>Are the arts still important in society today or are they now redundant?</p>
--	---	---

	<p>7- Political developments and the working of democracy, 1924–28</p> <p>Reichstag elections and coalition governments</p> <p>There were two elections in 1924. These elections indicated a return of greater support for the parties that supported the Weimar Republic – the SPD, DDP, DVP and Centre: • Over 61 per cent voted for pro-republican parties in May 1924, and 67 per cent in December.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The May 1924 election was the first contested by the Nazis, when they won 6.5 per cent of the vote. By December the Nazis’ vote share was down to 3 per cent. • On the left, the Communist Party also saw its fortunes fall after May 1924. • Whilst the nationalist political parties of the right began to accept the republic and work within it, rather than against it, they found their electoral position weakening from December 1924. The conservative right-wing DNVP joined a Reich coalition government for the first time in January 1925. Even so, the political developments of 1924 showed that the democratic parties were struggling to provide stable governments that commanded widespread support. <p>In the 1928 election, support for extremist and anti-republican parties declined even further. The Nazis (NSDAP) made little impression on the national political scene in 1928. Their share of the vote went down even lower than in 1924. With 2.6 per cent of the vote and winning only 12 seats, the NSDAP trailed behind obscure minor parties such as the Bavarian People’s Party and the Reich Party of the German Middle Class. The previously unheard-of Christian National Peasants’ and Farmers’ Party did almost as well as the Nazis, winning nine seats. The communist KPD, however, saw a revival of its electoral support in 1928.</p>	<p>How do elections work in Great Britain? Are all elections fair around the world?</p>
--	---	---

Table 1 Number of deputies elected in Reichstag elections, 1919–28

Year	Left wing			Centre		Right wing		
	Communist (KPD)	Independent Social Democratic Party (USPD)	Social Democrat Party (SPD)	Democratic Party (DDP)	Centre (Catholic Zentrum)	Conservative (DVP)	Nationalist (DNVP)	Nazi (NSDAP)
1919	0	22	165	75	91	19	44	0
1920	4	84	102	39	85	65	71	0
May 1924	62	—	100	28	81	45	95	32
December 1924	45	—	131	32	88	51	103	14
1928	54	—	153	25	78	45	73	12

There were seven coalition cabinets between November 1923 and March 1930 (see Table 2).

Name the different chancellors throughout the Weimar period?

What were the main political parties from left to right?

Table 2 *Coalition governments, 1923–28*

Appointment	Chancellor	Party	Members of governing coalition
August 1923	Philipp Scheidemann	SPD	SPD, Z, DDP (moderate socialist-centre)
October 1923	Gustav Bauer	SPD	SPD, Z, DDP
November 1923	Hermann Müller	SPD	(moderate socialist-centre)
June 1924	Wilhelm Marx	Centre	DDP
January 1925	Hans Luther	No party	DDP, Centre, BVP, DVP, DNVP (centre-right)
January 1926	Hans Luther	No party	DDP, Centre, DVP, DNVP, BVP (centre-right)
May 1926	Wilhelm Marx	Centre	Centre, DDP, DVP, BVP (centre-right)
January 1927	Wilhelm Marx	Centre	Centre, DVP, DNVP, BVP (centre-right)
June 1928	Hermann Müller	SPD	SPD, Centre, DDP, DVP, BVP (Grand Coalition)

The problems of establishing and sustaining a stable coalition government arose because the number of workable combinations of parties was limited. The SPD and the DNVP would not serve in the same cabinet and the more moderate parties did not have enough seats to command a Reichstag majority. The formation of the broadly-based Grand Coalition in 1928, led by Hermann Müller of the SPD, appeared to offer the potential for a more stable government. It was, indeed, one of the longest-lived coalitions of the Weimar era, remaining in office until March 1930. Even this coalition, however, was fraught with divisions. Although the government was established in June 1928, it was not until the spring of 1929 that the parties involved finally agreed on the government's policies. There were ongoing disputes over the budget and over foreign policy, and the government only survived because of the strong working relationship between Müller and Stresemann, the Foreign Minister.

What was the problem with proportional representation?

The election of Hindenburg as President in 1925

<p>How long was Presidency limit?</p>	<p>Ebert, the first President of the Weimar Republic, died on 28 February 1925. He had been indirectly elected by the National Assembly, but his successor had to be elected according to the terms of the Weimar Constitution, which meant that a full national election would have to be held. Under the terms of the constitution, unless a candidate received more than 50 per cent of the vote in the first round of voting, there had to be a second ballot and it was possible to nominate alternative candidates in this second ballot. In the first round, there were seven candidates including Karl Jarres for the right (DVP and DNVP), Otto Braun for the SPD, Wilhelm Marx for the Centre, Ernst Thälmann for the Communist Party and Erich Ludendorff, who stood as a Nazi Party candidate. Jarres won the most votes, with the SPD in second place, but there was no outright winner. In the second round, Jarres withdrew in favour of Paul von Hindenburg, who allegedly consulted the exiled ex-Kaiser before he reluctantly agreed to stand. The SPD calculated that Marx had a better chance of winning against Hindenburg than Braun, so withdrew its candidate and advised SPD supporters to vote for Marx. The number of candidates was reduced to just three – Hindenburg, Marx and Thälmann. However, because of Thälmann’s candidacy, the left vote was split and, in the election on 26 April, Hindenburg won with 48.3 per cent to Marx’s 45.3 per cent. Thälmann trailed with 6.4 per cent. Hindenburg was a symbol of the past. With his military uniform, his war medals and his authoritarian views, he was revered by the right, who regarded his election as the beginning of the restoration of the old order. For many, Hindenburg was the Ersatzkaiser (substitute emperor), and his election was seen as a major step away from parliamentary democracy. In the short term, this proved not to be true. When he took his presidential oath, Hindenburg appealed to the parties in the Reichstag to work with him in restoring national unity. He stuck closely to the letter of the Weimar constitution and did not abuse his powers. Moreover, his election was important in reconciling, at least temporarily, some anti-democratic political parties, such as the DNVP, to the existence of the Republic and to playing a more constructive role in making parliamentary democracy work.</p> <p>Attitudes to the republic from the elites and other social groups</p>	<p>Why does Britain not have a President?</p>
<p>What was created by the generals to discredit the Weimar?</p>	<p>The Weimar Republic could only be truly stable if it succeeded in winning the support and loyalty of the majority of its citizens. We saw in Chapter 1 how the circumstances in which the Republic was born predisposed large and important sections of German society to oppose it. The old elites, who were firmly entrenched in the army, the civil service and the judiciary, were hostile to parliamentary democracy and held firm to the view that the Republic was born out of betrayal of the Fatherland. This hostility was strengthened by the signing of the humiliating Versailles Treaty and by the political and economic crises of the early years of the Republic. The election of Hindenburg went some way towards reconciling the elites to the existence of the Republic, but only because they believed that</p>	

<p>What do you remember about the Dawes plan from GCSE?</p>	<p>Hindenburg would steer Germany back towards a more authoritarian form of government. At the other end of the social spectrum, there were many industrial workers who felt that the Republic had not delivered on its promises of greater equality and social justice and that the crushing of revolts by the army and the police, at the behest of democratically elected politicians, was clear evidence that parliamentary democracy was failing.</p> <p>Middle-class support for moderate political parties was therefore vital if the Weimar Republic was to succeed in establishing solid foundations. It is difficult to generalise about the middle class in Germany since it was very diverse, with many variations in wealth, in religion and in political affiliations. There were many among the middle class who continued to prosper and were broadly supportive of the Republic. There were many more, however, especially among the lower-middle class Mittelstand, who had suffered a catastrophic decline in their incomes as a result of hyperinflation and who had no organised way to defend their interests. People in this group welcomed the return of economic stability under Stresemann and political stability under Hindenburg, but their resentment of the Republic continued to fester</p> <p>Section 8 - Germany's international position, 1924–28</p> <p>Key events in foreign policy, 1924–30</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1924 Dawes Plan 1925 Locarno Pact 1926 Germany admitted to the League of Nations Treaty of Berlin with the USSR Allied forces withdraw from Zone 1 of the Rhineland 1929 Young Plan Allied withdrawal from Zone 2 of the Rhineland 1930 Allied withdrawal from Zone 3 of the Rhineland <p>Gustav Stresemann and the policy of fulfilment</p> <p>Germans of all classes and political allegiances agreed on one thing after 1919 – that the Treaty of Versailles was an unjust and dictated peace treaty, which denied Germany its rightful place among the great powers of Europe. It also placed millions of Germans outside the territory of the Republic. Whichever government was in power during the years 1919–33, the foreign policy of the Weimar</p>	<p>Are the middle class taxed too much in society today?</p>
---	---	--

<p>What do you remember about the Locarno pact from GCSE?</p>	<p>Republic was always based on one clear and simple aim – to revise the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. There were, however, deep divisions between the parties on how this should best be achieved. The nationalist right consistently argued that Germany should reject the treaty and rebuild its military strength in preparation for a time when the country could regain lost territory and become a fully independent great power once again. A more pragmatic approach, which came to be associated with Gustav Stresemann, was the policy of fulfilment. This involved Germany cooperating with France, Great Britain, the USA and Italy on issues such as reparations payments and removing allied occupation forces from German territory. Such cooperation, it was believed, would lead to more revision of the treaty than a confrontational approach.</p> <p>The Locarno Pact, 1925</p> <p>In October 1925, the western European powers met, at Germany’s suggestion, at a conference in the Swiss city of Locarno. Stresemann was anxious to restore Germany’s position internationally and avoid any hostile alliance between Britain and France, particularly as the latter began to feel threatened by Germany’s industrial recovery. France was suspicious of the move, but eventually agreed to attend, along with the USA, Britain and Italy, but not Russia. The discussions led to the Rhineland Pact and Arbitration Treaties, usually known collectively as the Locarno Pact, although they were finally signed in London on 1 December 1925. Under the Rhineland Pact:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Germany, France and Belgium promised to respect the western frontier, as drawn up at Versailles in 1919. This frontier was to be regarded as fixed and internationally guaranteed. • Germany agreed to keep its troops out of the Rhineland, as demanded at Versailles. • Britain and Italy promised to aid Germany, France or Belgium if any of these countries were attacked by its neighbours. Under the Arbitration Treaties: • Germany agreed with France, Belgium, Poland and Czechoslovakia that any dispute between them should be settled by a conciliation committee to mediate discussions. • France signed treaties of ‘mutual guarantee’ with Poland and Czechoslovakia. These said that France would make sure Germany did not break the agreement above. It was also agreed that any conflicts regarding the western borders should be referred to the League of Nations. In addition, France would not be permitted to cross into Germany should there be any dispute between Germany and Poland or Czechoslovakia. The Locarno Pact was hailed as a major triumph in many quarters. It was the first time that Germany had recognised the western border imposed at Versailles and accepted the loss of Alsace-Lorraine to France and Eupen-Malmédy to Belgium. For the French, there was a guarantee of 	<p>Is Britain’s foreign policy effective in society today or is it hypocritical?</p> <p>Do we need a new sort of Locarno pact to solve the issues our world is facing? Ukraine Crisis?</p>
---	--	--

	<p>support from the British should there ever be another German attack, while for the Germans, it meant the 1923 occupation of the Ruhr could never be repeated. The French agreed to withdraw the forces occupying the Rhineland and, although this was initially postponed in January 1925 because of Germany's refusal to comply with the disarmament obligations imposed at Versailles, it was achieved over the next five years and without Stresemann giving any assurances that Germany would disarm. The city of Cologne, for example, was evacuated by the French in 1926. However, although the Arbitration Treaties with Poland and Czechoslovakia offered some guarantees, the eastern borders were not recognised in the same way. For Germany, this left open the possibility of further revision of the eastern borders at some stage in the future. Stresemann regarded Locarno as his greatest achievement – and he was rewarded by Germany's acceptance into the League of Nations as a permanent member of the council and the Nobel Peace Prize in 1926.</p> <p>Relations with the USSR After the revolutions of 1917 in Russia and 1918 in Germany, the two former enemies took very different political paths. Russia, later (1922) the USSR, became the world's first communist state, in which the rights of the individual were subordinated to those of the state. Germany adopted a democratic system of government, which guaranteed individual freedom. Although there was a large Communist Party, which campaigned for close links with the USSR, most Germans were opposed to the communist political system. There were, however, some similarities in the post-war situation of each country:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both countries had been defeated in the war and had suffered from punitive peace treaties. • Both countries felt that the existence of an independent Poland, supported by French guarantees, was a threat to their security. Poland also contained large German and Russian minorities. • Both Germany and Russia/USSR were treated as 'outcast' nations by the victorious powers and were not allowed to join the League of Nations. These similarities led some in Germany to see advantages in a closer working relationship with Russia/USSR. Among these was Walther Rathenau who, in April 1922, had negotiated the Treaty of Rapallo with Russia under the following terms: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Germany and Russia resumed trade and economic cooperation • diplomatic relations between the two countries were restored all outstanding claims for compensation for war damage were dropped 	<p>What should our relationship be like with Russia?</p>
--	--	--

<p>What else happened in 1926?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Germany was allowed to develop new weapons and train pilots in Russia, away from the scrutiny of the Allied powers. Although the treaty did not specify cooperation between Germany and Russia against Poland, this was clearly implied in the existence of the treaty. <p>For Germany, therefore, the Treaty of Rapallo was an important but symbolic step away from its post-war isolation. However, the Allies, particularly France, were angered by this treaty, which showed Germany's intention to get around the disarmament terms of the Treaty of Versailles and its refusal to accept its eastern frontier with Poland.</p> <p>The Treaty of Berlin</p> <p>In April 1926, Germany and the USSR renewed their earlier treaty in the Treaty of Berlin. This added very little to the original treaty, except for the agreement that Germany would remain neutral if the USSR were to be involved in a war, as long as the USSR was not the aggressor. This treaty was signed a year after the Locarno Pact and showed that, despite his agreement to guarantee Germany's western frontiers, Stresemann had not abandoned his desire to secure a revision of Germany's eastern frontiers. In order to achieve this, a close relationship with the USSR was vital because the USSR would resist any border changes it did not agree with.</p> <p>Inter-Allied Control Commission (IMCC)</p> <p>The IMCC was a commission established under the Treaty of Versailles to ensure that Germany complied with the disarmament clauses. It was staffed largely by French and British army officers. Its task was primarily to check that existing weapons were destroyed and that no new weapons outside the terms of the treaty were being produced.</p> <p>The extent of disarmament Under the disarmament clauses of the Treaty of Versailles, Germany's army was limited to 100,000 men, it was not allowed to have an air force and its navy was prevented from having submarines and large battleships. In addition, the Rhineland area was to be demilitarised, meaning that German fortifications had to be dismantled and no German troops were allowed to be based in the area. In order to ensure compliance with the treaty, allied forces occupied the Rhineland and an Inter-Allied Control Commission (IMCC) was established in Germany to monitor Germany's disarmament. These disarmament clauses were a cause of burning resentment in</p>	<p>Should all countries disarm their nuclear weapons?</p>
------------------------------------	--	---

<p>What happened to Rathenau?</p>	<p>Germany, especially as the Allies were free to maintain their own formidable armed forces. As the Treaty of Rapallo with Russia showed, Germany sought and found ways to get around the disarmament clauses. Similar arrangements with other countries allowed Germany to build submarines in Spain and tanks and artillery in Sweden.</p> <p>Under the Chief of the Army General von Seeckt's command, the Reichswehr found other ways of getting round the limit on the size of the army. Most recruits to the army were enlisted for short periods, during which they would receive intensive military training. This ensured that there was a reserve of highly trained men who could be recalled to the army at short notice. The army sponsored a number of paramilitary groups, which also formed a potential military reserve force. Even when the Freikorps was disbanded after the failed Kapp Putsch, there were many unofficial paramilitary groups that had a close relationship with the army. General von Seeckt aimed to restore Germany's military might and he worked towards a military alliance with Russia/USSR, which aimed to destroy the newly independent Poland. Many of the details of his agreements with the Red Army were kept secret from the politicians to whom he was supposed to be accountable. However, politicians such as Rathenau and Stresemann were involved in negotiating the Treaties of Rapallo (1922) and Berlin (1926), which formalised the relationship with Russia/USSR, and chose to turn a blind eye to the extent of military cooperation. Secret rearmament was a policy driven by army commanders such as von Seeckt, but was tacitly approved by the politicians.</p>	<p>Is money well spent on the military or could the money be better spent elsewhere?</p>
<p>What do you remember from the Kellogg-Briand pact at GCSE?</p>	<p>Kellogg-Briand Pact</p> <p>In 1928, Germany also signed the Kellogg-Briand Pact with France and the USA. Frank Kellogg, the American Secretary of State, and Aristide Briand, the Foreign Minister of France, drew up an international agreement under which states would agree voluntarily to renounce the use of offensive wars to resolve disputes. Germany was one of the first states to sign, and was followed by many other countries. The Pact had symbolic importance as an international agreement to avoid war, but its lack of any enforcement mechanism limited its effectiveness.</p> <p>The end of allied occupation</p> <p>The removal of foreign forces from German soil was an aim shared by Germans of all parties. Stresemann's policy of fulfilment secured this objective by 1930. The French, concerned for their own security and suspicious of Germany's willingness to comply with the Treaty of Versailles, were the</p>	<p>Should any country ever occupy another country?</p>

<p>What do you remember about the Depression from the GCSE?</p>	<p>most reluctant of all the allied powers to withdraw occupying forces. The withdrawal of forces was, therefore, a step-by-step process, which involved compromise and concession on the removal of foreign forces from German soil was an aim shared by Germans of all parties. Stresemann's policy of fulfilment secured this objective by 1930. The French, concerned for their own security and suspicious of Germany's willingness to comply with the Treaty of Versailles, were the most reluctant of all the allied powers to withdraw occupying forces. The withdrawal of forces was, therefore, a step-by-step process, which involved compromise and concession on</p> <p>Section 9 The impact of the Depression of 1929</p> <p>The Depression affected other countries as well, but Germany suffered a greater fall in industrial production than other European countries. In Britain, for example, the decline in industrial production between 1929 and 1932 was 11 per cent. As Germany's foreign trade collapsed and prices fell, many companies had no alternative but to declare themselves bankrupt and make their workers redundant.</p> <p>Unemployment increased. By 1932, about one third of all German workers was registered as unemployed. These official figures did not, however, reflect the true scale of unemployment since they only recorded those who registered as unemployed</p> <p>The impact of the Depression fell very heavily on the main industrial areas, such as the Ruhr, Silesia and the main port cities such as Hamburg. White-collar workers were also badly hit. In the civil service, there were severe cuts in the workforce and reductions in the salaries of those who remained.</p> <p>Farming was also very badly hit by the Depression. Farmers had struggled even during the so-called 'golden age' between 1924 and 1928, but the Depression pushed many of them into serious difficulty</p> <p>The unemployed were only entitled to state benefits for a fixed period, after which they had to apply to local authorities for relief, and local benefits were less generous and strictly means-tested. Women</p>	<p>How has the Coronavirus impacted British society?</p> <p>Should you receive benefits if you lose your job?</p>
---	---	---

<p>How did Hyperinflation impact young people? How might they have caused similar problems?</p>	<p>received less benefit than men and young people less than adults. Some areas were hit harder than others by the Depression</p> <p>The impact on young people</p> <p>The Depression led to a high rate of unemployment among young people.</p> <p>Juvenile crime</p> <p>Although the overall rate of juvenile convictions did not increase during the Depression, the number of 14–25-year olds accused of crime did increase.</p> <p>Political extremism</p> <p>The involvement of young men in extremist political organisations increased during the Depression</p> <p>The KPD, for example, had some success in recruiting working-class youths from the ‘wild cliques’ to join political demonstrations and engage in street battles with their opponents. The paramilitary organisations of the nationalist right also set out to recruit unemployed youths. Organisations such as the Hitler Youth and the SA (Nazi Stormtroopers) offered unemployed boys and young men food, uniforms, shelter and the excitement of fighting street battles, all of which could relieve the insecurity and boredom of unemployment</p> <p>There were also emergency labour schemes in which unemployed youths were required to undertake unskilled manual labour, receiving wages that were below the legal minimum. Needless to say, these schemes were unpopular with young people, resulting in two waves of strikes for higher wages in October 1930 and June 1932. In addition to the compulsory schemes, there were voluntary labour schemes, which involved young unemployed people being sent away from the cities to residential work camps for periods of six months. Few of these schemes offered any prospect of vocational training, still less of finding permanent employment.</p>	<p>Should people be forced to work in a random job if they lose their current job?</p>
---	---	--

<p>Who was the leader of the SA? Why were the SA important?</p>	<p>political adviser. Their role in the appointment was an indication that the army had begun to play a key role in politics</p> <p>Brüning's coalition excluded the SPD, the largest party in the Reichstag, which meant that his government did not have enough support in the Reichstag to pass laws. After March 1930, no government had majority support in the Reichstag and governments had to rely on ruling by presidential decree</p> <p>The September 1930 Reichstag election and growth in support for extremist parties</p> <p>Brüning's response to the Depression was to cut expenditure and raise taxes, in order to balance the budget. Since he did not have majority support in the Reichstag, he persuaded Hindenburg to issue a presidential decree passing the budget into law</p> <p>The extremist parties of the left and right gained the most in the 1930 election. The communists gained over a million votes, mostly from the SPD, and 77 seats in the Reichstag. Far more significant, however, was the growth in support for the Nazi Party. In 1928, the Nazis had received a mere 810,000 votes, whereas in September 1930, they gained nearly 6.5 million votes and their representation in the Reichstag increased from 12 to 107 seats, making them the second largest party. I</p> <p>The intensification of political violence</p> <p>In the years 1930–33, however, the level of political violence increased dramatically. Nazis and communists, the latter with their Red-Front Fighters' League, took their political struggle onto the streets. Each side attempted to break up the political meetings of their opponents and rival marches often degenerated into full-scale riots. The violence was particularly severe at election times.</p> <p>Red-front fighters' League: the paramilitary arm of the KPD Party; it had been established in 1924, under the leadership of Ernst Thälmann, and engaged in street battles with the SA, the police and other rightwing paramilitary groups</p> <p>By the end of 1931, the violence had become so intense that Brüning decided to act. He issued a decree in December 1931 banning the wearing of political uniforms, but this had little effect since the Nazi Stormtroopers (SA) continued to march wearing white shirts. In April 1932, therefore, Hindenburg was persuaded to sign a decree outlawing the SA</p>	<p>What are the pros and cons of cutting expenditure and raising taxes?</p>
---	--	---

By the end of 1932, the SA was estimated to have 400,000 members.

10 - The appeal of Nazism and communism

Electoral support for Nazism and communism up to June 1932

The Nazis (NSDAP) and the Communists (KPD) gained electoral support during the Depression years, but the Nazis were far more successful than the communists in broadening their appeal.

Table 1 Support for the NSDAP and KPD in elections from 1928 to July 1932

Election/Year	NSDAP		KPD	
	Total of votes (in millions)	Percentage of votes	Total of votes (in millions)	Percentage of votes
1928 Reichstag	0.81	2.6	3.3	10.6
1930 Reichstag	6.40	10.6	4.6	13.1
1932 Presidential (1st ballot)	11.30	30.1	4.9	13.2
1932 Presidential (2nd ballot)	13.40	36.8	3.7	10.2
July 1932 Reichstag	13.75	37.3	5.3	14.3

Hindenburg had been elected President in 1925 and his seven-year term of office ended in 1932, by which time he was 84 years old. He was reluctant to stand for election again but was persuaded to do so. As in 1925, his main opponent on the left was Thälmann of the KPD. Hitler was reluctant to stand

How did the Great Depression help the Nazis to grow?

<p>What promises did Hitler make to the people of Germany?</p>	<p>against such a conservative icon as Hindenburg but eventually he decided to do so. There was also another right-wing candidate, Theodor Duesterberg. In the first ballot, Hindenburg fell just short of the 50 per cent of the vote needed for outright victory. This triggered a second ballot in which Duesterberg was no longer a candidate. Hitler rented an aeroplane and flew all over Germany, presenting himself as a national saviour. Although Hindenburg won in the end, with 53 per cent of the vote, Hitler received nearly 37 per cent of the vote in the second ballot. In some rural areas.</p> <p>Over the course of the three elections between September 1930 and July 1932, the Nazis more than doubled their electoral support</p> <p>The appeal of Nazism</p> <p>Hitler and the Nazis put forward a wide-ranging but loose collection of ideas which, when assembled, might be described as an ideology. Nazi policy was first put forward in their Twenty-five Point Programme of 1920, which was still officially the statement of their aims in 1933 even though Hitler did not agree with many of its points.</p> <p>The power of the will Hitler presented himself and the Nazi movement as being a force for change in Germany: ‘ The Nazi movement, with its parades of Stormtroopers (SA), presented an image of discipline and unity that would sweep all opponents aside.</p> <p>Struggle and war</p> <p>Struggle, violence and war were at the heart of Nazi thinking and actions. Hitler defined his outlook in terms of struggle and claimed scientific justification for his view that struggle and conflict between races was part of the natural order of things. War, he believed, would reconstruct German society and create a new German Reich through conquest and the subjugation of other races</p> <p>A racial community</p> <p>The concept of a ‘people’s community’, or Volksgemeinschaft, was a key element in Nazi ideology. Although it was never defined very clearly, Hitler advocated a state based on a racial community.</p>	<p>What are the dangers in society if democracy is ignored?</p> <p>How can we combat racism in society today?</p>
--	---	---

<p>Where is socialism normally placed on the political spectrum?</p>	<p>Only Aryans could be citizens of the state; all others were to be denied the rights of citizenship and its benefits, and would be treated as mere 'subjects' of the state</p> <p>A national socialism</p> <p>The Nazis adopted the title National Socialist German Workers' Party (NSDAP) in an attempt to gain working-class support, but at the same time to differentiate themselves from the international socialism of the Communist Party</p> <p>Hitler used the word 'socialism' loosely, in a way that might appeal to working-class voters. In his view, socialism and the Volksgemeinschaft were one and the same thing: 'To be national means to act with a boundless, all-embracing love for the people and, if necessary, even to die for it. And similarly, to be social means to build up the state and the community of the people so that every individual acts in the interest of the community of the people.'</p> <p>The führerprinzip</p> <p>Hitler set out to destroy the Weimar Republic because it was a parliamentary democracy, a system he viewed as weak, ineffective and alien to Germany's traditions of strong, authoritarian government. He also believed that parliamentary democracy encouraged the growth of communism, in his opinion an even greater evil.</p> <p>Aggressive nationalism</p>	
<p>What does Nationalism mean from Year 8 and WW1 topic?</p>	<p>As a German nationalist, Hitler had three main aims:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to reverse the humiliation of the Treaty of Versailles – which he described as an instrument of 'unlimited blackmail and shameful humiliation' – and restore to Germany those lands taken from it • to establish a 'Greater German Reich' in which all Germans would live within the borders of the state • to secure for Germany its 'Lebensraum' to settle its people and provide it with the food and raw materials needed to sustain it as a great power, since 'only an adequately large space on this earth assures a nation its freedom of existence' 	<p>Are populist movements a danger to democracy or should they be encouraged?</p>

<p>What was Hitler's views towards the Jewish people?</p>	<p>Anti-Semitism</p> <p>Hitler saw the Jews as responsible for all of Germany's ills. Jews were represented in Nazi propaganda as greedy, cunning and motivated only by selfish motives.</p> <p>The role of propaganda in Nazi electoral success</p> <p>The Nazis were very skilled in propaganda techniques and this played an important part in their success in winning votes. Hitler understood the importance of propaganda and Joseph Goebbels, his Reich Propaganda Chief from 1928, was a master of the medium.</p> <p>The Nazis had their own newspapers. They also published many posters and leaflets, put on film shows and staged rallies. Nazi marches and rallies, with their banners, songs, bands and the sheer force of numbers, made a powerful statement about Nazi strength.</p> <p>Nazi propaganda skilfully targeted different groups in the population and adapted the Nazi message to particular target audiences.</p> <p>The appeal of communism</p> <p>The KPD gained two million votes in the Reichstag elections between 1928 and July 1932. Its membership also increased, from 117,000 in 1929 to 360,000 in 1932. It was, therefore, a significant and growing force in German political life, especially at street and neighbourhood level in large industrial cities. Whereas in the 1920s the KPD had concentrated on building a strong presence in factories and workshops where trade union membership was well established, after 1929 the party was forced by economic circumstances to focus more on the unemployed.</p>	<p>How can propaganda be a danger to free and fair elections?</p>
---	---	---

	<p>Policies and ideology</p> <p>The election platform of the KPD reflected its revolutionary communist ideology. As well as demanding an end to cuts in unemployment benefits and wages, and the legalisation of abortion, the KPD also advocated close cooperation with the USSR, the end of military spending and the establishment of a workers' state</p> <p>Strengths</p> <p>Communist propaganda helped attract membership, particularly through its posters but also in the speeches of Thälmann: they emphasised class struggle and the smashing of the capitalist system. There were explicit appeals to the unemployed, as for example in the slogan 'Bread and Freedom', and there were images of capitalists being smashed with hammers wielded by workers. There were also posters which emphasised the KPD's links with the USSR and its belief in internationalism. Much of the KPD's propaganda attacked the SPD as the tool of the capitalist classes</p> <p>Weaknesses The reality, however, was that the KPD never came close to launching a successful revolution. Its membership turnover was very high – more than 50 per cent of its new members in 1932 left within a few months, only to be replaced by new recruits. I</p> <p>The appointment of Hitler as Chancellor</p>	<p>Why do you think there is such a debate around abortion?</p>
--	---	---

<p>When was Hindenburg first appointed President?</p>	<div data-bbox="555 212 1458 831" style="background-color: #e6e6fa; padding: 10px;"> <p>KEY CHRONOLOGY</p> <p>Events leading to Hitler's appointment as Chancellor</p> <table border="0"> <tr> <td style="vertical-align: top;">1932 April</td> <td>Hindenburg was re-elected as President Brüning imposed a ban on the Nazi SA</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="vertical-align: top;">May</td> <td>Brüning was forced to resign as Chancellor and replaced by Papen</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="vertical-align: top;">June</td> <td>Papen lifted the ban on the SA</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="vertical-align: top;">July</td> <td>Papen declared a state of emergency in Prussia and dismissed the SPD-led government Reichstag election – Nazis became the largest party</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="vertical-align: top;">September</td> <td>Reichstag passed a vote of no confidence in Papen's government</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="vertical-align: top;">November</td> <td>Reichstag election – Nazis lost votes but still the largest party</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="vertical-align: top;">December</td> <td>Papen was forced to resign and replaced by Schleicher</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="vertical-align: top;">1933 January</td> <td>Hitler and Papen agree to work together in a coalition government Hitler appointed Chancellor</td> </tr> </table> </div> <p>The political and economic crisis</p> <p>The fall of Brüning's government, May 1932</p> <p>Brüning's coalition government was in power from March 1930 until May 1932, despite not having majority support in the Reichstag. His appointment by Hindenburg had been heavily influenced by Schleicher and he could only remain in office, or indeed pass any new laws, with Hindenburg and Schleicher's continued support.</p> <p>In economic policy, Brüning's priority was to reduce state expenditure by cutting welfare benefits, reducing the number of civil servants and cutting wages, a policy for which he was dubbed the 'Hunger Chancellor'. Far from improving the economic situation, these measures contributed to the deepening of the Depression and, by February 1932, unemployment in Germany exceeded 6 million for the first time.</p>	1932 April	Hindenburg was re-elected as President Brüning imposed a ban on the Nazi SA	May	Brüning was forced to resign as Chancellor and replaced by Papen	June	Papen lifted the ban on the SA	July	Papen declared a state of emergency in Prussia and dismissed the SPD-led government Reichstag election – Nazis became the largest party	September	Reichstag passed a vote of no confidence in Papen's government	November	Reichstag election – Nazis lost votes but still the largest party	December	Papen was forced to resign and replaced by Schleicher	1933 January	Hitler and Papen agree to work together in a coalition government Hitler appointed Chancellor	<p>What can be the issue with coalition governments throughout the world?</p> <p>Is austerity the only way to cut back expenditure?</p>
1932 April	Hindenburg was re-elected as President Brüning imposed a ban on the Nazi SA																	
May	Brüning was forced to resign as Chancellor and replaced by Papen																	
June	Papen lifted the ban on the SA																	
July	Papen declared a state of emergency in Prussia and dismissed the SPD-led government Reichstag election – Nazis became the largest party																	
September	Reichstag passed a vote of no confidence in Papen's government																	
November	Reichstag election – Nazis lost votes but still the largest party																	
December	Papen was forced to resign and replaced by Schleicher																	
1933 January	Hitler and Papen agree to work together in a coalition government Hitler appointed Chancellor																	

Why would the SA have a ban imposed on them?

Although Brüning imposed a ban on the SA in April 1932 in an attempt to stop street violence, the political situation continued to deteriorate and Schleicher withdrew his support. Schleicher was concerned that the ban on the SA would provoke a Nazi uprising and he also came to the conclusion, after the presidential election, that no government could rule without the support of the Nazi Party

Brüning's fate as Chancellor was sealed. When Hindenburg, acting on Schleicher's advice, refused to sign a presidential decree Brüning had submitted, Brüning had no alternative but to resign

Papen's government, May–December 1932 The 'cabinet of barons'

Following the orders of Hindenburg and Schleicher, Papen, in an attempt to establish a 'government of national concentration', constructed his government on a non-party political basis. The only political party that supported his coalition was the DNVP, which was rewarded with two posts in the cabinet.

Papen believed that the greatest threat to Germany was a communist revolution and that Weimar democracy had allowed this threat to grow. Although, as an aristocrat, he looked down on the Nazis, he nevertheless sympathised with many of Hitler's ideas and saw the Nazis, with their mass popular support, as useful allies in his quest to establish a government of 'national concentration'. In June 1932, therefore, he lifted the ban on the SA and imposed curbs on the left-wing press.

Table 1 July 1932 election results

	Left		Centre		Right		
Party	KPD	SPD	DDP	Centre Party	DVP	DNVP	NSDAP (Nazis)
Number of seats	89	133	4	75	7	37	230
% of vote	14.3	21.6	1.0	12.4	1.2	5.9	37.3

What system did Germany follow in terms of voting?
What weakness did this create?

Most moderate parties, with the exception of the Centre, suffered losses in the July 1932 election as Germany's political life had become even more polarised compared with the previous election in September 1930. The DVP and the State Party (DDP), in particular, experienced a serious loss of support and were reduced to the ranks of fringe parties. The DNVP also suffered heavy losses as the Nazis established themselves as the main party of the right. The Nazis succeeded in attracting large

Why are moderate parties losing support throughout the world?
France has a gain in far left and right support etc.

What methods could be used to ensure rules pass without the Reichstag?

numbers of middle-class voters, many who had never participated in elections before and many of the unemployed.

Nevertheless, Hitler was now in an even stronger position in his dealings with Papen and Schleicher. After the election, Papen invited Hitler to join his government but Hitler still refused. Again he would only participate in a coalition government if he were the Chancellor. He also felt free to break his agreement with Schleicher and attack Papen's government. Indeed, the Nazis joined with other parties, including even the communists, to debate a vote of no confidence in Papen's government, which was passed by the massive majority of 512 votes to 42. Papen's position had weakened and he was forced to ask Hindenburg to dissolve the Reichstag and call a new election in November.

November 1932 election

Table 2 November 1932 election results

	Left		Centre		Right		
Party	KPD	SPD	State Party	Centre Party	DVP	DNVP	NSDAP (Nazis)
Number of seats	100	121	2	70	11	52	196
% of vote	16.9	20.4	1.0	11.9	1.9	8.8	33.1

The most striking aspect of the November 1932 election result was the loss of support for the Nazi Party. Although they remained the largest party in the Reichstag, they lost two million votes and 34 seats in the Reichstag. It appeared that Nazi support had peaked in July and was now in decline. Part of the explanation for this was that many middle-class voters had been alienated by Hitler's attacks on Papen and by his refusal to join a coalition government if he could not lead it. These middle-class voters returned to the DVP and the DNVP, both of which saw a modest revival in their electoral support.

The end of papen's government

Overall, the biggest loser in the November 1932 election was Papen, even though he was not a candidate. His government still faced a hostile Reichstag majority and he was beginning to lose credibility in the eyes of the army. Papen considered banning the Nazis and the communists, and using the army to enforce an authoritarian style of government, which would bypass the Reichstag

What examples can you give of political parties being banned throughout the world? Is this the correct way to go about dealing with differing views?

<p>What can you remember about the backstairs intrigue from GCSE? Can you state the events in chronological order?</p>	<p>altogether. However, when Schleicher informed Papen that the army would not support him, he had no alternative but to resign.</p> <p>The role of 'backstairs intrigue'</p> <p>A small group of men who made up President Paul von Hindenburg's inner circle of advisers were involved in all of the key decisions.</p> <p>Schleicher had been instrumental in persuading Hindenburg to withdraw his support from Brüning in May 1932 and appoint Papen in his place.</p> <p>Then, in November 1932, Schleicher was deeply involved in the downfall of Papen, since Papen had proved to be far too independent-minded for Schleicher's liking.</p> <p>Schleicher was ambitious, quick-witted and addicted to behind-the-scenes intrigue. As a conservative, he worked for the restoration of authoritarian rule in Germany but, as a pragmatist, he recognised that this could not be achieved through a straightforward return to the past.</p> <p>The rise of the Nazi Party had transformed German politics. Schleicher aimed for an alliance between the forces of old conservatism and the Nazis who, with their popular support, would legitimise an authoritarian regime dominated by the old conservatives.</p> <p>Within Hindenburg's private office, two other men occupied key positions. Oskar von Hindenburg, the President's son, was another army officer with close links to Schleicher. He controlled access to the President and his opinions were highly valued by his father. Also in a key position was Dr Otto Meissner, a civil servant who ran the President's Office and acted as a key go-between in negotiations between Hitler and Hindenburg. Hindenburg regarded Hitler with disdain and viewed the Nazis as a noisy, undisciplined rabble. He was, therefore, reluctant to concede Hitler's demand to be made Chancellor without any checks on his freedom of action. After the fall of Papen's government, however, Hindenburg was running out of options.</p> <p>Schleicher's government, December 1932 to January 1933</p>	
--	--	--

	<p>After the fall of Papen, Schleicher persuaded President Hindenburg to appoint him as Chancellor. His task of constructing a stable government was fraught with difficulty since he had alienated Papen and lost some of Hindenburg's trust because of the way he had conspired against Papen. He believed that his best chance of success lay in persuading the Nazis to join a coalition government led by him. At first, this did not seem to be an impossible dream. The Nazis had suffered a setback in the November election and, in state elections in December, their support continued to fall. They were also virtually bankrupt. Criticism of Hitler's tactics in refusing to join a coalition government after several invitations was beginning to surface within the Nazi Party itself. All of this contributed to the impression that Hitler had overplayed his hand and that his bargaining position had weakened. Schleicher, believing that he could put pressure on Hitler by playing on these divisions in the party opened negotiations with the party's organisation leader, Gregor Strasser, about joining his government. Hitler, however, moved quickly to get rid of Strasser and reassert his control over the party. Schleicher's bid to win Nazi support for his government had failed.</p> <p>Schleicher changed tack. He believed that a progressive social policy could win support from the trade unions and, through them, gain support in the Reichstag. With the economic situation at last beginning to improve, he cancelled the cuts in wages and benefits made by Papen in September, considered a large-scale job creation scheme to relieve unemployment, and even talked about breaking up some of the large estates in the east and distributing the land to small farmers. All of this was too much for the industrialists and landowners, who were the backbone of German conservative politics, and it also failed to attract trade union support. Schleicher's last throw of the dice was to ask Hindenburg to suspend the constitution, dissolve the Reichstag and give him virtually dictatorial powers.</p> <p>Hindenburg refused and Schleicher resigned. Meanwhile, Papen had been involved in negotiations with Hitler over forming a new coalition government. Although Hitler still insisted on being Chancellor in any government he was part of, he was now prepared to consider a coalition. Alfred Hugenberg, the DNVP leader, indicated that he was prepared to support a Nazi-led coalition. Talks between Hitler, Papen and Hindenburg's inner circle (now minus Schleicher) led to a deal in which Hitler would form a coalition government with himself as Chancellor. Hindenburg's doubts about this were laid to rest by assurances from Papen and Oskar von Hindenburg that Hitler would not have a free hand to govern the country as he wished. Papen would be Vice-Chancellor and Hugenberg would run the Economics and Food Ministries. Apart from Hitler, there would be only two other Nazis in the cabinet. Both Papen and Hindenburg believed that Hitler, who was poorly educated and inexperienced in government, would be easy to control.</p>	
--	---	--

<p>What were the limits put on the army after the end of the First World War?</p>	<p>12- The establishment of the Nazi dictatorship, January–March 1933</p> <p>Stahlhelm (Steel Helmets): a paramilitary organisation of ex-servicemen dedicated to the restoration of the monarchy and the revival of Germany as a military power, which took its name from the steel helmets issued to German soldiers in the First World War; founded in 1918 by Franz Seldte, it grew rapidly and had 500,000 members by 1930, making it the largest paramilitary organisation in Weimar Germany</p>	<p>Should the army be able to influence political decisions?</p>
---	--	--

KEY CHRONOLOGY

January–March 1933

- 1 February** Hitler dissolved the Reichstag and called new elections
- 27 February** Reichstag building was set on fire
- 28 February** Decree for the Protection of the People and the State
- 5 March** Reichstag elections – Nazis won 288 seats (43.9 per cent of the vote), still short of overall majority
- 6–7 March** Nazis began taking over state governments
- 8 March** First permanent concentration camp was established
- 13 March** Ministry for Public Enlightenment and Propaganda was established
- 24 March** Enabling Act passed

KEY PROFILES

Wilhelm Frick (1877–1946) was interior minister from 1933 to 1943. He had studied law before working for the Munich police 1904–24. He joined the Nazi Party and was elected to the Reichstag in 1924. He was tried and executed by the Allies after the war.

General Blomberg (1878–1946) had been the army commander in East Prussia before becoming Defence Minister in Hitler's first cabinet. Described as weak, Blomberg was persuaded by Hitler's promise of an aggressive foreign policy and rearmament to steer the army towards increasingly enthusiastic support for the regime. In 1938, however, Hitler removed Blomberg from the government.

Freiherr von Neurath (1873–1956) was a German aristocratic diplomat. In the 1920s, he had served as German ambassador in Rome and then London, before becoming Foreign Minister in Papen's government in 1932. He continued in this post under Hitler until 1938. He joined the Nazi Party in 1937, but was dismissed from the Foreign Ministry in 1938 after opposing Hitler's aggressive plans for German expansion.

<p>From your knowledge at GCSE what methods of terror did the Nazis use?</p>	<p>Nazi use of terror</p> <p>The violence of Nazi Stormtroopers (SA) had played a key role in Hitler's rise to power. Once he was in power in January 1933, he used state resources to consolidate his position and rapidly expanded the SA, since the Stormtroopers' violence and terror were vital weapons in his struggle to eliminate opposition. From a membership of around 500,000 in January 1933, the organisation grew to around 3 million strong a year later.</p> <p>The Nazi 'legal revolution' and the 'revolution from below', in which the SA unleashed a reign of terror against socialist and communist opponents, were opposite sides of the same coin. Using their newfound powers, the SA unleashed a sustained assault on trade union and KPD offices, as well as on the homes of left-wing politicians.</p> <p>Thousands of communists, socialists and trade unionists were rounded up and imprisoned in makeshift concentration camps set up in old factories or army barracks. The first permanent concentration camp was established on 8 March at Dachau near Munich, with accommodation for over 5000 people.</p>	<p>Where is violence and terror still used in the world to control people?</p>
<p>From your knowledge at GCSE what happened in the events of the Reichstag Fire?</p>	<p>The Reichstag Fire</p> <p>On taking power, Hitler persuaded Hindenburg to dissolve the Reichstag and call a new election in March. He believed that the Nazis could win an outright majority in this election, thereby strengthening his position. This election campaign was the occasion for an intensification of Nazi terror against their opponents. By the time the election took place on 5 March, the SPD and KPD had virtually been driven underground by the atmosphere of terror and intimidation generated by the Nazis. A key moment in the campaign was the burning down of the Reichstag building on 27 February. A young Dutch communist, Marinus van der Lubbe, was arrested and charged with causing the fire.</p>	

The Decree for the protection of the people and the State

Hitler was appointed Chancellor by Hindenburg in a way that was strictly legal, according to the constitution of the Weimar Republic. That constitution technically remained in force during the period of the Third Reich but, in the aftermath of the Reichstag fire, Hitler was able to persuade Hindenburg to sign a decree giving him 'emergency' powers. This was the Decree for the Protection of the People and the State, which suspended important civil and political rights that had been guaranteed under the Weimar Constitution. Thus the police were given increased powers to arrest, and detain without charge, those deemed to be a threat to state security

The decree was designed primarily to legalise a full-scale assault on the communists. Backed by a propaganda campaign in which the Nazis claimed that Germany was on the brink of a 'German Bolshevik Revolution', the SA launched a ferocious campaign of violence across Germany

Table 1 *March 1933 election results*

	Left		Centre		Right		
Party	KPD	SPD	State Party	Centre Party	DVP	DNVP	NSDAP (Nazis)
Number of seats	81	120	5	73	2	52	288
% of vote	12.3	18.25	0.85	11.25	1.1	8.0	43.9

The Nazi vote had increased since the previous election in November 1932, but not as much as Hitler hoped and expected. Despite the violence and intimidation, SPD and communist support had held up remarkably well, as did support for the Centre. Perhaps the most significant point about the election result was that nearly 64 per cent of voters had supported non-Nazi parties. On the other hand, the Nazis, with the support of their DNVP allies, now had a Reichstag majority

How do some governments control their people in the 21st century?

Why do people turn to far left- and right-wing parties?

What had happened in the previous elections results since the Great Depression?

<p>From what you studied at GCSE how did the Enabling Act end democracy?</p>	<p>The end of democracy</p> <p>Enabling Act: The Law for removing the Distress of the people and the reich The first meeting of the new Reichstag was held in the Kroll Opera House on 23 March. Hitler's sole objective at this meeting was to secure the necessary two thirds majority for his Enabling Act, a law that would allow him to make laws without the approval of the Reichstag and without reference to the President, for a period of four years.</p> <p>The Enabling Act was passed by the Reichstag on 24 March 1933. Further to this, Hitler was also given the power to make treaties with foreign states without the Reichstag's approval. Because this law was a change in the constitution, it required a two thirds majority of the Reichstag in order to be legally enforceable. With the communist deputies unable to take their seats and the DNVP willing to collaborate with the Nazis in passing the bill, the Centre Party held the key to getting the necessary two thirds majority. By offering the Centre Party the reassurance that he would not use his powers without first consulting Hindenburg, Hitler won its support. Only the SPD deputies voted against the bill and the Enabling Act duly became law.</p> <p>With full executive and legislative powers, Hitler could rule without needing a Reichstag majority and, after 1933, the Reichstag rarely met. The Enabling Act was the final piece in the legal framework that legitimised the Nazi dictatorship. Hitler was now able to issue decrees without needing Hindenburg's approval. Although the law was presented as a temporary measure for four years, in practice it was a permanent fixture of the Nazi regime. With the new law in force, the Nazis could now begin to construct the one-party, terror state that Hitler wanted.</p> <p>Gleichschaltung</p> <p>Gleichschaltung meant 'forcing into line', and was the process through which the Nazis attempted to control or 'coordinate' all aspects of German society. It was Hitler's intention that there should be no independent organisations standing between the state and the individual. Individuals would have no private space in which they could either think or act independently of the regime</p>	<p>Should people be forced and told what to do or should be have freedoms to make our own decisions (vaccinations).</p>
--	---	---

13- Hitler's consolidation of power, March 1933 to August 1934

KEY CHRONOLOGY	
Events leading to Hitler becoming Führer	
1933	
24 March	Enabling Act passed
31 March	1st Law for the Coordination of the Federal States
7 April	Law for Restoration of a Professional Civil Service 2nd Law for the Coordination of the Federal States
22 June	SPD outlawed as a 'party hostile to the nation and the state'
5 July	Centre Party voluntarily disbanded
14 July	Law against Formation of New Parties: Germany was now a one-party state
12 November	Reichstag elections; Nazis won 92 per cent of the vote
1934	
30 January	Law for Reconstruction of the Reich
14 February	Reichsrat abolished
30 June	Night of the Long Knives
2 August	Death of President Hindenburg; Hitler became President as well as Chancellor and the army swore an oath of allegiance to him
19 August	Hitler took the title of Führer

The creation of a one-party state

He claimed that the Nazi Party was the 'racial core' of the entire German people. Although its members were a minority of the population, even after a surge in party membership in 1933, Hitler believed it was nevertheless made up of the superior Germans and was committed to fighting and sacrificing on behalf of the entire German people. In the Nazi Volksgemeinschaft, therefore, there could be no parties other than the Nazi Party. By the middle of July 1933, this ambition had become a reality. This was achieved in a number of stages:

How did the Enabling act create a one-party state?

Where else in the world in there a one-party state?

<p>Why was Prussia needed to control Germany?</p>	<p>The KPD was effectively banned after the Reichstag fire in February. Most of the communists who had not been arrested and imprisoned in concentration camps had fled into exile.</p> <p>Having stood up to Hitler in the Reichstag debate on the Enabling Act in March, the SPD continued to voice its opposition to the regime until it was outlawed as a 'party hostile to the nation and the state' on 22 June 1933.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Realizing that their days as political parties were numbered, the DNVP and the Centre Party dissolved themselves – the DNVP on 27 June and the Centre Party on 5 July. • On 14 July 1933, the Law against the Formation of New Parties outlawed all non-Nazi political parties. <p>Centralisation of power and control over local government</p> <p>The Weimar Republic was a federal state in which a large number of powers were devolved to state governments. Each state, for example, controlled its own police force. Prussia, the largest of the German states, comprised sixty per cent of the territory and fifty per cent of the population of the entire country. It was so large that its state government could operate largely independently of the central government. In July 1932, however, the Prussian state government had been dismissed by Papen and a Reich Commissioner had been appointed to run the state. In Hitler's cabinet after January 1933 this position was held by Goering. This paved the way for the centralisation of power within the whole Reich, which the Nazis began in March 1933</p>	<p>What is the difference between a centralised government and a federal government?</p>
---	---	--

Why would the Nazis want control over the civil service? What was it like under the Weimar?

Table 1 *Laws passed to centralise power in 1933–34*

Date	Laws passed
31 March 1933	First Law for the Coordination of the Federal States dissolved the existing state assemblies and replaced them with Nazi-dominated assemblies.
7 April 1933	The Second Law for the Coordination of the Federal States created the new post of Reich Governor (RG) to oversee the government of each state (Prussia was excluded as it already had a Reich Commissioner). These new RGs were accountable to the Minister of the Interior and responsible for ensuring that the state governments followed the policies laid down by central government.
30 January 1934	The Law for the Reconstruction of the Reich took the centralisation process a stage further. State assemblies were abolished and the governments of the states were formally subordinated to the government of the Reich. This meant that the posts of RGs had now become redundant but Hitler did not abolish the posts. Rivalry and tension between state governments and RGs continued in the coming years.
14 February 1934	The Reichsrat was abolished. This was the parliamentary assembly to which the state assemblies sent delegates. Since the state assemblies no longer existed, it was a logical next step to abolish the Reichsrat.

The Nazi Party had its own organisational structures at both national and local level. At state level the Nazi leaders, known as Gauleiters, wanted to control local government and many of them took over the roles of Reich Governors within their areas

Control over the Civil service

The Nazis regarded the Civil Service as an obstacle to their exercise of dictatorial power. Many local officials were forced to resign and were replaced by Nazi Party appointees, most of whom had no experience of government. The Nazi SA also began to place Party officials in government offices to ensure that civil servants were carrying out the orders of the regime. All of this placed the Nazis firmly in control.

<p>From your GCSE knowledge what happened in the Night of the Long Knives?</p>	<p>The Night of the Long Knives</p> <p>In January 1933, the SA was the Nazis' main instrument of terror and violence. One of the immediate results of the Nazis coming to power was the rapid expansion of the SA.</p> <p>From a membership of around 500,000 in January 1933, the organisation grew to around 3 million-strong a year later. Another result of the Nazis being in power was that the activities of the SA gained legal authority.</p> <p>In late February 1933, the SA and the Stahlhelm were merged and became recognised as 'auxiliary police'. Orders were issued to the regular police forces forbidding them from interfering with SA activities.</p> <p>Much of the violence of the SA against the Nazis' political opponents, and against the Jews, was unplanned, uncoordinated and piecemeal. In the period from February to June 1933, when the Nazis were eliminating opposition and establishing undisputed control, Hitler was prepared to go with the flow of SA violence. He was careful to ensure, however, that the SA did not attack the State itself. Assaults on the police and the army were avoided, as Hitler was careful not to alienate those conservative forces that had shoe-horned him into power.</p> <p>Violence was a vital tool in the hands of the Nazi leadership but, in its uncontrolled form, its usefulness was limited and at some point Hitler was bound to want to call a halt.</p> <p>In July 1933, after passing the Law against Formation of New Parties, Hitler was able to declare that the Nazi revolution was over.</p> <p>He had acquired dictatorial powers, all other parties had been banned or had voluntarily dissolved themselves and the process of Gleichschaltung had been completed.</p> <p>For Ernst Röhm, the leader of the SA, however, the Nazi revolution was far from complete and the SA were determined to continue with their violence until they had achieved the Second Revolution. Chief among Röhm's aims was for the SA to become the nucleus of a new national militia that would eventually absorb and replace the existing army. With a combined SA and Stahlhelm membership of 4.5 million in January 1934, Röhm's forces already vastly outnumbered the army. However, since the summer of 1933 the role and importance of the SA had declined. In August 1933, they had lost their 'auxiliary police' status and were subject to stricter regulations over their powers of arrest.</p>	<p>Is violence ever an effective tool to use in politics or should it never be allowed?</p>
--	---	---

<p>Why was Rohm seen as a threat to the Nazi party?</p>	<p>In the election campaign of November 1933, there was only one party, hence there was no longer a need for SA violence and intimidation. Lacking an 'official' outlet for their violence, and feeling resentment at the way that former conservative opponents of the Nazis were allowed to join the Nazi Party and take important jobs in local and central government, SA members became disillusioned and restless. Drunken brawls, always a feature of the SA, became increasingly common and the police became targets of the SA when they tried to intervene</p> <p>The army remained the only institution with the power to remove Hitler from office. It was also loyal to Hindenburg, not to Hitler. Despite the fact that Werner von Blomberg, the Defence Minister, had brought it closer to Nazi ideology, the army was not a Nazified institution and still retained some independence. The ambitions of the SA and its leader Röhm were regarded as a serious threat by the army leaders, the more so when in the summer of 1934 SA units began stopping army convoys and confiscating weapons and supplies. Moreover, the pressure on Hitler increased on 17th June, when Papen made a major speech at Marburg University in which he criticised Nazi excesses. Papen called for an end to terror and for Hitler to clamp down on the SA's calls for a Second Revolution. Papen's speech had Hindenburg's approval and, despite Goebbels' efforts to censor it, it was reported in the press. When Blomberg, again with Hindenburg's support, threatened to declare martial law and give the army power to deal with the SA, matters came to a head. Hitler had dithered since the spring of 1934, delaying taking decisive action against the SA, but in June he knew he could wait no longer. A ruthless purge of the SA, known as the 'Night of the Long Knives', was launched on 30 June 1934 when the SS, acting on Hitler's orders, eliminated the leadership of the SA and many other political opponents of the Nazis.</p> <p>When Hitler addressed the Reichstag on 13 July, he accepted full responsibility for the executions. He was acting, he said, as the 'supreme judge' of the German people and had been compelled to act in order to save the country from an SA coup. This secured the army's support. Hitler also gained public support for his apparently decisive actions. The SA declined sharply after the purge. By October 1935, its membership had declined to 1.6 million and, without Röhm as its leader, its political power was destroyed. Violence and terror remained vital weapons in the Nazi Party's efforts to retain political control but, after the Night of the Long Knives, the SS controlled the terror machine. After the events of June 1934, violence and terror were used more systematically and in a more controlled manner.</p> <p>In the summer of 1934, 86-year-old President Hindenburg was bedridden, dying of lung cancer. The question of his succession became a matter of urgency for Hitler, especially as Hindenburg himself</p>	
---	--	--

<p>From your knowledge of GCSE and A level how did the Nazis use Terror to control people?</p>	<p>had drawn up a political will in which he expressed his preference for a restoration of the monarchy. Hitler aimed to merge the offices of Chancellor and President after Hindenburg's death, thus making himself the undisputed head of government and the State. As long as Hindenburg lived, Hitler's power was not absolute.</p> <p>On the same day the officers and soldiers of the army took an oath of allegiance to Hitler as their new Commander-in-Chief. On 19 August, a plebiscite was held to get the German people's seal of approval on Hitler's appointment as Führer (Leader) and Reich Chancellor, the title by which he was henceforth to be known. The result was that 89.9 per cent of the voters approved of the change. More surprising perhaps was the fact that the other 10.1 per cent, or four-and-a-half million voters, had the courage to vote 'No'. This was the final act in the Nazi consolidation of power. Hitler had asserted his authority over his own party and had become Führer and Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces.</p> <p>Chapter 14- The 'Terror State'</p> <p>The police system in the Third Reich In the Weimar Republic, individual state authorities controlled the police forces. The Nazis did not abolish these separate police forces but created a system of party-controlled, political police forces answerable to Hitler, which gradually gained control over the entire police system. This proliferation of police forces created confusion and competition, both between the various police forces and between the powerful men who controlled them. The following forces existed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the SS, controlled by Himmler • the SD, an intelligence gathering offshoot of the SS • the SA, controlled by Röhm, in 1933. The SA also acquired police powers to arrest and detain political prisoner. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the Gestapo, the secret State police force in Prussia, of which Goering was the Minister-President. During 1933, the remit of the Gestapo was extended to cover the whole country. 	<p>When the queen dies should Britain become a republic?</p> <p>How does the UK government gather intelligence today? Should intelligence agencies have to abide by the law?</p>
--	---	--

<p>What is a key term for 'Control'?</p> <p>What methods of control did the Nazis use from what you studied at GCSE?</p>	<p>The SS (Schutzstaffel)</p> <p>As Hitler's bodyguard, the SS had certain police functions from the start. Once the Nazis came to power, and especially after the Night of the Long Knives, the police role of the SS was expanded and it became the main Nazi Party organisation involved in the identification and arrest of political prisoners. By 1936, after Himmler had been appointed chief of the German police, the SS controlled the entire Third Reich police system and the concentration camps. Under SS control, the police system in Germany was an instrument of the Führer and the Nazi Party</p> <p>The SD</p> <p>The SD (Sicherheitsdienst) was established in 1931 as the internal security service of the Nazi Party. An offshoot of the SS, it was set up to investigate claims that the party had been infiltrated by its political enemies. The SD was led by Reinhard Heydrich. After 1933, the SD's role was intelligence gathering. One of its important roles was to monitor public opinion, identify those who voted 'no' in plebiscites, and to report on these to Hitler. By 1939, the SD had 50,000 officers, a sign of how important its role was considered to be, and also of how successful Heydrich had been in establishing his own power base. The SD, as a Nazi Party organisation, worked independently of the Gestapo, which was a State organisation. This could, and did, lead to overlap and confusion between the two organisations. The SD was staffed not by professional police officers but by amateurs who were committed Nazis</p> <p>the Gestapo The Gestapo, or Geheime Staatspolizei (secret state police), was originally set up in Prussia alone, but under the Nazi regime its operations were extended to cover the whole country. The Gestapo developed a reputation for being all-knowing. Ordinary Germans believed that the Gestapo had agents in every workplace, pub and neighbourhood. The reality was very different. It was actually a relatively small organisation, with only 20,000 officers in 1939 to cover the whole country. Most of its agents were office-based, not field agents, and they were generally not members of the Nazi Party. Instead, they were professional police officers who saw their role as being to serve the State. The Gestapo depended on information supplied by informers. Nazi Party activists, who were asked to spy on neighbours and workmates, were one important source of information. Every block of flats and every residential street had its 'block leader', who would report suspicious activity.</p>	
--	--	--

<p>Why could the SPD only mount little resistance?</p>	<p>Even more information came from voluntary denunciations of workmates and neighbours by ordinary Germans. Most of these informers were motivated not by political commitment but by personal grudges. So overwhelming was the volume of information received that it was impossible to investigate all alleged crimes and the Gestapo increasingly resorted to arbitrary arrest and preventive custody. Despite its small size, therefore, the Gestapo was very successful in instilling an atmosphere of fear and suspicion in the German population. Political debate and criticism was stifled. People believed that there were Gestapo agents and informers everywhere and adjusted their behaviour accordingly.</p> <p>The courts and the justice system Judges and lawyers were generally very conservative but few belonged to the Nazi Party in January 1933. The long tradition of freedom from political interference for lawyers and judges posed a problem for the Nazis, as the violence and intimidation carried out by the SA and SS was clearly illegal and many prosecutions against Stormtroopers were begun by lawyers who were determined to uphold the law. Hitler was also angered by the fact that the Supreme Court acquitted all but one of the defendants in the Reichstag fire trial. A few judges and state prosecutors were dismissed by the regime.</p> <p>The extent and effectiveness of opposition and non-conformity</p> <p>Political resistance The parties of the left – the SPD and the KPD – were expected to mount the stiffest resistance to Hitler. Indeed, Hitler himself feared that the unions, which were linked to SPD, would stage a general strike to thwart the Nazi takeover in 1933, just as they had done in 1920 to defeat the Kapp Putsch. In the event, the left did not pose a serious threat to the Nazi regime, partly because it was bitterly divided, with the KPD attacking the SPD as ‘social-fascists’</p> <p>The SPD In January 1933, the SPD was unprepared for the Nazi takeover. As a constitutional party committed to working within the State’s legal framework, the SPD was not equipped to organise resistance to a regime that did not respect the law. SPD activists continued to campaign openly for the election campaign in March 1933 and suffered SA violence as a result. SPD deputies bravely defied SA and SS intimidation to vote against the Enabling Act in the Reichstag but, once the regime had acquired legal powers to establish a dictatorship, it began to crush the SPD. By the end of 1933, thousands of SPD activists had been murdered or placed into ‘preventive custody’ and the SPD leadership had fled into exile.</p>	<p>Is there anywhere in the world where the Judiciary is controlled by the state? What issues are there with this?</p>
--	--	--

<p>Why were the KPD of little threat to Hitler at this stage?</p>	<p>The KPD With its background in revolutionary politics, the KPD was much better prepared than the SPD for engaging in underground activity. The KPD was, however, devastated by the wave of repression unleashed upon communists in Germany after Hitler came to power. It was the first party to be banned and its leader, Ernst Thälmann, was arrested at an early stage. About 10 per cent of the KPD's membership was killed by the Nazis during 1933. Nevertheless, the KPD established an underground network in some German industrial centres. Revolutionary unions were set up in Berlin and Hamburg to recruit members and publish newspapers. All these networks were, however, broken up by the Gestapo.</p> <p>Resistance by workers</p> <p>Taking strike action was very risky but strikes did occur. In September 1935, 37 strikes were reported in Rhineland-Westphalia, Silesia and Württemberg. In the whole of 1937, a total of 250 strikes were recorded. Most of these strikes were reactions to poor working conditions or low wages. Significantly, there was increased strike activity in 1935–36 at a time when there was widespread discontent over food prices. From the point of view of the regime, however, any expression of dissent was regarded as a challenge. Of the 25,000 workers who participated in strikes in 1935, 4000 spent short periods in prison. After a 17-minute strike at the Opel car factory in 1936, seven ringleaders were arrested by the Gestapo and imprisoned.</p> <p>Resistance by the Churches</p> <p>The protestant Church The efforts of the Nazi regime to coordinate the Protestant Church into the Volksgemeinschaft led to division within the Protestant congregation. The establishment of the Pastors' Emergency League in 1933 and its development into the Confessional Church in 1934 were, in themselves, acts of resistance. This was led by pastors who were not members of the Nazi Party and who came largely from academic backgrounds. Their refusal to accept being part of a 'coordinated' Reich Church was due to three main factors: • They were trying to protect the independence of the Protestant Church from the Nazi regime. • They were resisting the attempt to impose the Aryan paragraph on the Church. This involved purging from the Church any pastor who had converted from Judaism. • They were trying to defend orthodox Lutheran theology, which was</p>	<p>Why do you think Communism is still feared by much of the world?</p> <p>How can striking make an impact on society?</p> <p>Does the church still wield significant influence throughout the world?</p>
<p>What can you remember GCSE about church resistance?</p>		

<p>What youth groups resisted the Nazi regime? Were any successful?</p>	<p>based purely on the Bible. During 1934, there was a growing struggle between the Confessional Church and the Nazi regime. Pastors spoke out against the 'Nazified Christ' from their pulpits. Many Churches refused to display swastika flags. When two Confessional Church bishops were arrested, there were mass demonstrations in their support. The Nazi regime responded with increased repression. Dissenting pastors had their salaries stopped, they were banned from teaching in schools and many were arrested. By the end of 1937, over 700 pastors had been imprisoned</p> <p>The Nazi regime failed to silence the Confessional Church, but for its part, the Confessional Church did not form full opposition to the regime. The majority of its members professed their loyalty to Hitler and the Third Reich. Much of their energies were expended in fighting the bitter internal struggle against the official Reich Church, with the result that the Protestant Churches became rather inward-looking</p> <p>The Roman Catholic Church The Catholic Church was, in some ways, in a stronger position to retain its independence than the Protestant Church. This was because the Catholic Church was more united, more centralised and had more of a tradition of independence from the State. Nevertheless, the Catholic leadership in both Rome and Germany tried to come to terms with the Nazi regime. It was when the privileges granted to the Catholic Church in the concordat of 1933 came under attack that the Church found itself increasingly at odds with the regime. In 1937, the pope issued the papal encyclical 'With Burning Grief' against the background of mounting pressure on the Catholic Church in Germany.</p> <p>Resistance by young people</p> <p>In the early years of the Nazi regime, the Hitler Youth (HJ) was able to channel youthful energy and rebelliousness into officially approved activities. By the mid-1930s, however, there were growing signs of disillusionment with the official movements among young people. This was partly because membership was made compulsory in 1936 and partly because of the growing regimentation in youth movements. Membership of the HJ and League of German Girls (BDM) made great demands on a teenager's free time, including compulsory gymnastic sessions on Wednesday evenings, all-day hikes on Sundays and endless military drilling. Indeed, this was the intention since the Nazi policy of Gleichschaltung was based on the premise that individuals should have no independent activity. Increasingly in the late 1930s, the response of many young people was to opt out, either by allowing</p>	
---	---	--

<p>What were youth groups like under the Weimar?</p>	<p>their membership to lapse or simply not attending the weekly parades. Those who did attend sometimes hummed the tunes that had been banned. This nonconformist behaviour amounted to little more than normal teenage rebelliousness, but under the Nazis any assertion of independence was considered to be a threat.</p> <p>Resistance by the elites</p> <p>Many members of the German conservative, traditional elites had serious misgivings about the Nazi Party in general and Hitler in particular. Some aristocratic generals in the army and senior civil servants regarded Hitler as a threat to the old Germany, even after the Night of the Long Knives. This was significant because, after the death of Hindenburg, a military coup was the only way to get rid of the regime. The conservative elites were, however, fatally compromised in their dealings with Hitler: the regime consolidated its power in 1933 by an alliance with the army, big business and conservative politicians. The conservative elites broadly shared Hitler's aims for Germany, even if they sometimes disapproved of his methods. Both the Civil Service and the army had a strong tradition of serving the State, whoever was in charge, and active opposition to the Nazi leadership, therefore, would involve a major intellectual and emotional shift on their part. The number of those within the army and Civil Service who opposed the Nazis was therefore very small</p> <p>The use of propaganda</p> <p>As the Nazi Party's propaganda chief before 1933, Goebbels had shown himself to be very adept at using all kinds of media to convey Party messages. He was able to control, direct and censor the media to ensure that Nazi ideas and values were spread effectively. Through his new ministry, he oversaw the work of organisations covering the work of the press, radio, film, literature, theatre, music and fine arts. He thus created a vast bureaucratic empire that gave him enormous power over German cultural life. Goebbels had the power to control who could and could not be employed in the cultural field. Those deemed to be 'racially impure' or 'politically unreliable' were purged. Those remaining in work quickly came to realise that any criticism would lead to the loss of their livelihoods.</p>	<p>Where is propaganda been effective in world society in the 21st century?</p>
<p>How had the Nazis been successful with propaganda during the elections of 1930-33?</p>	<p>The effectiveness of propaganda</p>	

	<p>Nazi propaganda and indoctrination appears to have been most successful when it was aimed at the young, whose opinions were not yet strongly formed, or when their messages overlapped with the traditional values of particular groups. Aristocratic, old conservatives shared the Nazis' beliefs in the need for order and their anti-democratic sentiments, although many were reluctant to swallow the more radical Nazi elements. Germany's middle class shared the Nazis' hostility to communism and socialism and were susceptible to the propaganda message that the Nazis were the only credible alternative to a left-wing takeover in Germany. Anti-Semitism and nationalist resentment of the Treaty of Versailles ran through all classes and the Nazis were able to reinforce these attitudes through their propaganda. T</p> <p>The Hitler myth Nazi propaganda presented Hitler as being unlike other politicians. He was presented as a 'man of the people'. In other words, he symbolised the unity of the Nazi Party and the people. He was presented as a man who:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • was hard-working, tough and uncompromising in fighting and defeating the nation's internal and external enemies • was a political genius who had mastered the problems faced by Germany in 1933 and was responsible for Germany's 'national awakening'; order had been restored, the economy revived and Germany had thrown off the humiliating shackles of the Treaty of Versailles • was dynamic and forceful, in contrast with the weak politicians of the Weimar years • lived a simple life and sacrificed personal happiness to devote himself to his people. He was invariably shown as being alone and removed from the Nazi Party • was the guardian of traditional morality and popular justice, and a statesman of true genius. The reality was in many ways very different from these propaganda images: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hitler was surrounded by officials who competed with each other to gain his attention and implement his wishes. Hitler supplied the vision, his ministers and officials interpreted this and turned it into detailed policies. He was actually not very involved in decision-making. • Far from working hard, Hitler stayed up late watching films and would usually not get up until mid-day. His days were spent eating, walking in the grounds of his mountain retreat and delivering long, rambling speeches to his subordinates. He disliked reading official documents and rarely got involved in detailed discussions on policy. His officials often had great difficulty in getting him to make decisions. 	
--	---	--

<p>From your knowledge at GCSE how did the New Plan help Germany?</p>	<p>The battle for work The Nazis' first priority after coming to power in 1933 was to reduce unemployment – a project which they labelled the 'battle for work'. Large sums of money were spent on the building of roads and public buildings and increased industrial production was stimulated through loans and tax relief to private companies.</p> <p>In 1935, a Reich Labour Service was introduced under which unemployed young men were compelled to do six months' labour in farming or construction. Later that same year, military conscription was reintroduced for young men.</p> <p>The 'New Plan' of 1934</p> <p>As the economy began to revive in 1933 and 1934, foreign trade increased and this led to imports growing faster than exports. This in turn led to a shortage of foreign currencies, which were needed to purchase imported goods. Under the New Plan, Schacht placed controls on imports and on access to foreign currency. He also initiated a series of trade agreements with foreign countries, especially states in the Balkans and South America, whereby Germany was supplied with food and raw materials, which were paid for in German Reichsmarks. The supplying countries could then only use this money to buy German goods</p> <p>Schacht and the use of mefo bills</p> <p>In order to finance rearmament, the Nazis needed to borrow money whilst at the same time avoid the dangers of runaway inflation, which were still fresh in the memories of the German people. In Schacht, they had a financial genius who devised a scheme whereby the government paid for its military equipment using credit notes, or Mefo bills. These bills could be exchanged for cash at the Reichsbank, thereby ensuring that private companies had confidence they would get their money. However, the companies were given an incentive to defer asking for payment by the offer of 4 per cent per annum (p.a.) interest on the bills if they kept them for the full five-year term. In this way, the rearmament programme could be started in 1935 without the government having the funds to finance it. It also had the advantage that the rearmament programme could be kept secret since the expenditure did not appear in the government's accounts.</p>	<p>How could you solve unemployment in the UK?</p>
---	---	--

<p>What does Autarky mean?</p>	<p>The Four Year Plan</p> <p>The aim of this plan was to make Germany ready for war within four years. Although a future war was always implicit in the Nazi quest for Lebensraum ('living space') in the east, the gearing of the German economy to war in the Four Year Plan was the first explicit indication that the regime was planning for war. The priorities of this plan were rearmament and economic autarky. These were to be achieved by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • creating a managed economy with controls on labour supply, prices, raw materials and foreign exchange • setting production targets for private companies • establishing new State-owned industrial plants such as the Hermann Goering Steelworks • increasing production of key commodities such as iron, steel and chemicals • encouraging research and investment in the production of substitute products such as artificial rubber and extracting oil from coal, thereby reducing Germany's dependence on imports. <p>Economic autarky The Four Year Plan aimed to achieve autarky (self-sufficiency) in food production and vital raw materials in order to prepare the German economy for war. Autarky, with its links to national sovereignty and its embodiment of national pride and independence, fitted well with the Nazis' ideological aims. It would, according to the Nazi Party programme, 'free Germany from the chains of international capital'. The effort to increase production was presented as a battle in which the whole 'people's community' had to participate. Propaganda campaigns to persuade people to buy only German goods, eat only German food and use only German raw materials in their work presented these targets as the patriotic duty of all German citizens. There were also propaganda campaigns to persuade Germans to save more, since savings would help to fund investment in new production facilities. In 1937, the regime launched a campaign to collect scrap metal from people's homes and gardens and from public spaces, such as parks, to make up for serious shortages in raw materials. Garden fences, park railings and iron lampposts were removed to be melted down. Pots and pans were collected from people's homes by the Hitler Youth and local committees were set up to coordinate collections.</p> <p>The results of the Four Year Plan did not match the propaganda claims. German industry, despite massive investment, did not meet the targets set by the regime and, in 1939, Germany still imported one third of its raw materials. In food production, there were similar failings. The reality was that the German economy did not have the resources to achieve all of the regime's aims. In order to maintain</p>	<p>Should someone ever be elected to a role who is not a specialist in that area?</p> <p>What are the pros and cons of a country becoming self-sufficient?</p>
--------------------------------	--	--

<p>From your knowledge at GCSE and A level how did the Nazis target the youth?</p>	<p>organisations. It is, therefore, difficult to generalise about what happened to the standard of living of the majority of German workers in these years. Workers in key industries such as armaments were undoubtedly better off than before, while those producing consumer goods were not. Living standards depend as much on prices as they do on incomes. Prices rose during the 1930s and there were shortages of some key commodities. German consumers were able to buy enough food to feed their families but could afford few luxuries. The consumption of higher value foods such as meat, fruit and eggs declined while the consumption of cheaper foods such as potatoes and rye bread increased. There was, then, pressure on living standards and Gestapo and Sopade reports occasionally show some discontent with the regime. On the other hand, the fact that the regime succeeded in persuading the population to shoulder the burden of the rearmament programme, without triggering a wages explosion or mass opposition, indicates the success of propaganda campaigns such as the 'battle for production'</p> <p>16- Social policies</p> <p>Nazi policies towards young people</p> <p>Schools The Nazi regime established control over the school system in two main ways: control over teachers and control over the curriculum.</p> <p>control over the teachers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Under the Law for the Re-establishment of a Professional Civil Service (1933), a number of teachers were dismissed on the grounds of political unreliability or because they were Jewish. • Teachers were pressurised into joining the National Socialist Teachers' League (NSLB), but most teachers were willing to comply with the regime's demands. The historian Joachim Fest has claimed that 'the teaching profession was one of the most politically reliable sections of the population'. • Vetting of textbooks was undertaken by local Nazi committees after 1933. From 1935, central directives were issued by the Ministry of Education covering what could be taught and, by 1938, these rules covered every school year and most subjects. <p>Control over the curriculum</p> <p>Political indoctrination permeated every area of the school curriculum: • The Nazis' aim to promote 'racial health' led to an increasing emphasis on physical education. Military-style drills became a feature of P.E. lessons</p>	<p>Should the government have influence over the curriculum or should it be based on educational specialists research?</p>
--	--	--

<p>What happened to many Jewish students who attended University?</p>	<p>In German lessons, the aim was to instill a ‘consciousness of being German’ through the study of Nordic sagas and other traditional stories.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Biology, there was a stress on race and heredity. There was also a strong emphasis on evolution and the survival of the fittest. • Geography was used to develop awareness of the concepts of Lebensraum (‘living space’), ‘blood and soil’ and German racial superiority. Atlases implicitly supported the concept of ‘one people, one Reich’ <p>Universities</p> <p>Access to higher education was strictly rationed and selection was made on the basis of political reliability. Women were restricted to 10 per cent of the available university places, while Jews were restricted to 1.5 per cent, their proportion within the population as a whole.</p> <p>Under the Law for the Re-establishment of a Professional Civil Service, about 1200 university staff were dismissed on racial or political grounds. This amounted to around 15 per cent of the total.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In November 1933, all university teachers were made to sign a ‘Declaration in support of Hitler and the National Socialist State’. • Students had to join the German Students’ League (DS), although some 25 per cent managed to avoid doing this. • Students were also forced to do four months’ labour service and two months in an SA camp. Labour service would give students experience of real life, considered by the Nazis to be more important than academic learning <p>The Hitler youth</p> <p>In 1936, a Law for the Incorporation of German Youth gave the Hitler Youth the status of an official education movement, equal in status to schools and the home. At the same time, Catholic youth organisations were banned and the Hitler Youth became the only officially permitted youth organisation. Also, by 1936, the Hitler Youth had been granted a monopoly over all sports facilities and competitions for children under the age of 14. Membership of the Hitler Youth was made compulsory in 1939.</p>	<p>Where in the world is education taught to a certain narrative and influenced by the state?</p>
---	---	---

<p>What activities did the Hitler partake in? What was the purpose of these activities?</p> <p>How would what the Nazis taught girls challenge the freedom gained in the Weimar period?</p> <p>Why potentially would there have been a declining birth rate in the 1920s?</p>	<p>the League of German Girls The Bund Deutscher Mädel (BDM), or League of German Girls, was the female equivalent of the Hitler Youth. Its motto – ‘Be faithful, be pure, be German’ – was part of a process of preparing girls for their future role as housewives and mothers in the Volksgemeinschaft. Membership became compulsory in 1939.</p> <p>In the BDM, girls were taught that they had a duty to be healthy since their bodies belonged to the nation. They needed to be fit for their future role as child bearers. They were also instructed in matters of hygiene, cleanliness and healthy eating. Formation dancing and group gymnastics served the dual purpose of raising fitness and developing comradeship. At weekly ‘home evenings’, girls were taught handicrafts, sewing and cooking.</p> <p>Many girls found their experiences in the BDM liberating. They were doing things that their mothers had not been allowed to do and they could escape from the constraints of the home. They also developed a sense of comradeship. Although strictly run on the leadership principle, the BDM groups were relatively classless, bringing together girls from a wide range of backgrounds. This was part of the strategy for capturing the minds of German youth and moulding them to the purposes of the Nazi regime.</p> <p>The Nazis were successful in bringing schools and universities under their control. The HJ had, by 1939, become the only youth movement allowed in Germany, and membership of both HJ and BDM had grown. The HJ undoubtedly reinforced certain values that had long been well established in German culture, particularly the importance of duty, obedience, honour, courage and physical strength. This picture of success, however, must be balanced by the fact that attendance at HJ parades was beginning to slip by 1939 and that the Nazis themselves were concerned about the re-emergence of independent youth cliques.</p> <p>The Nazis opposed the trend towards greater emancipation for women that had been evident in the Weimar period. They viewed the declining birth rate in the 1920s with alarm as it threatened to undermine their aim to expand Germany’s territory and settle Germans in the newly acquired lands to the east. The main priority for Nazi policy towards women after 1933, therefore, was to raise the birth rate. This was closely linked to attempts to restrict the employment of married women outside the family home. These aims were pursued through a number of policies:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Marriage loans were introduced for women who left work and married an Aryan man. For each child born, the amount of the loan that had to be repaid was reduced by a quarter. 	<p>What issues are there in society in terms of fighting for equality?</p> <p>What is happening to birth rates in the different continents around the world?</p>
---	--	--

<p>From what you remember at GCSE how did the Nazis try to increase birth rate?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Nazis awarded medals to women for ‘donating a baby to the Führer’. Those with four or five children received a bronze medal, six or seven qualified for silver, and eight for gold. • Birth control was discouraged. Abortion was severely restricted. • Women were encouraged to adopt a healthy lifestyle, with plenty of exercise <p>The Nazis also sought to promote their values through a number of organisations for women:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The German Women’s League (DFW) was set up in 1933 to coordinate all women’s groups under Nazi control. It had a domestic science department, which gave advice to women on cooking and healthy eating. By 1939, the DFW had over 6 million members, seventy per cent of whom were not members of the Nazi Party. • The National Socialist Women’s Organisation (NS-F) was an elite organisation to promote the nation’s ‘lovelife, marriage, the family, blood and race’. It was primarily an organisation for propaganda and indoctrination among women to promote the Nazi ideology that women should be child-rearers and homemakers. • The Reich Mother’s Service (RMD) was a branch of the DFW for training ‘physically and mentally able mothers, to make them convinced of the important duties of motherhood, experienced in the care and education of their children and competent to carry out their domestic tasks’. By March 1939, 1.7 million women had attended its motherhood training services. 	
<p>How would the New Plan have an impact on workers?</p>	<p>Nazi policies towards workers</p> <p>The Nazi Volksgemeinschaft would be a society in which class differences, religious loyalties, as well as regional, age and gender differences would be put aside and replaced by national unity. Given their traditional ties to trade unions and non-Nazi political parties, industrial workers presented the greatest challenge to the process of Gleichschaltung. The Nazis could not ignore the working class nor could they rely solely on repression to achieve their objective of ‘coordinating’ this very important part of German society. Their first step was to ban the existing free trade unions, which was done on 2 May 1933. Following that, the next step was to coordinate workers into a Nazi run organisation, the German Labour Front (DAF).</p> <p>The German Labour front (dAf)</p> <p>The Deutsches Arbeitsfront (DAF), or German Labour Front, was established on 6 May 1933, under the leadership of Robert Ley, to coordinate workers into the National Socialist regime. The DAF took over the assets of the banned trade unions and became the largest organisation in the Third Reich. Although membership of the DAF was not compulsory, its membership grew rapidly since it was the</p>	<p>What incentives can employers provide for workers in society today? Do they often work?</p>

<p>What can you remember about the DAF and the KDF?</p>	<p>only officially recognised organisation representing workers. The DAF had two main aims: to win the workers over to the Volksgemeinschaft and to encourage workers to increase production. Because it was a symbol of the Nazi Volksgemeinschaft, the DAF included employers as well as workers. The DAF replaced the trade unions but was not a trade union itself.</p> <p>Strength through Joy (kdf)</p> <p>The Kraft durch Freude (KdF) organisation, or Strength Through Joy, was set up by Robert Ley and the DAF to organise workers' leisure time. The basic idea behind the scheme was that workers would 'gain strength for their work by experiencing joy in their leisure'. Workers who were refreshed by holidays, sports and cultural activities would be more efficient when they returned to work. The KdF also aimed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to submerge the individual in the mass and encourage workers to see themselves as part of a Volksgemeinschaft. With leisure time as well as work time regulated by the regime, there would be no time or space for workers to develop private lives. To this end, the KdF was a propagandist organisation, which used its activities to indoctrinate workers and their families into Nazi ideology • to encourage a spirit of social equality. All KdF activities were organised on a one-class basis with no distinction between rich and poor • to bring Germans from the different regions of the country together and to break down regional and religious differences • to encourage participation in sport to improve the physical and mental health of the nation. Every youth in employment was obliged to undertake two hours each week of physical education at their workplace • to encourage competition and ambition. A KdF National Trades Competition was organised for apprentices to improve skills and standards of work. Through the KdF, workers were offered subsidised holidays in Germany and abroad, sporting activities and hikes, as well as theatre and cinema visits at reduced prices. Classical music concerts were put on in lunch breaks in factories. There were KdF wardens in every factory and workplace employing more than 20 people. Supporting these were over 7000 paid employees of the organisation by 1939. Membership of the KdF came automatically with membership of the DAF so that, by 1936, 35 million belonged to it. <p>the degree of success of Nazi policies towards workers</p> <p>The evidence from Sopade and Gestapo reports shows that workers' reactions to Nazi schemes to win their support were mixed. Many workers, of course, had been influenced by socialist and communist ideas before 1933 and would therefore have been resistant to Nazi ideology. According to these</p>	<p>How can companies promote better mental health?</p>
---	---	--

<p>What opposition was there from the church?</p>	<p>reports, Strength through Joy (KdF) was popular not because people shared its Nazi ideological aims, but because it offered workers a means of escaping the boredom and pressure of their working lives. On the other hand, trade unions had been abolished and workers had no independent means by which they could voice their grievances.</p> <p>Nazi policies towards the churches</p> <p>Coordinating the Churches into the Volksgemeinschaft posed serious challenges for the Nazi regime since the Germans were divided by faith. Although the majority of Germans were Protestant, a significant minority were Roman Catholic. Secondly, religious loyalties were deep-rooted in some communities and were an obstacle to the Nazi aim of making the Führer the focus of loyalty for all Germans. Hitler realised that he would have to proceed cautiously at first, with his initial objective being to gain control over the Churches before later trying to weaken their influence</p> <p>Nazis, notably Robert Ley, were atheists who wanted to replace the Christian Churches with a new Nazi faith. This lack of coherence in Nazi religious policy is evident in their dealings with the different Churches.</p> <p>The Protestant church</p> <p>The main Protestant Church in Germany was the German Evangelical Church, which many Nazis saw as a potential nucleus for a single national Church. Evangelicals were politically very conservative and staunch nationalists, regarding Germany as a Protestant state. Within the German Evangelical Church, there was a strong tradition of respect for, and cooperation with, the State. Many Protestants were anti-Semitic and vigorously anti-communist. There were, therefore, many points of convergence between Nazi ideology and the views of German Protestants and it was no coincidence that, before 1933, the strongest areas of Nazi support were in the Protestant north and east of Germany. In the early months of the Nazi regime, some Nazi-leaning Protestant pastors staged mass weddings of SA brownshirts and their brides. For their part the Nazis, in 1933, turned the 450th anniversary of the birth of Martin Luther into a major national celebration</p>	<p>How do religious loyalties impact people's beliefs and views in politics?</p>
---	---	--

	<p>The Reich church</p> <p>In the spring and summer of 1933, the Nazi regime began to 'coordinate' the Evangelical Church into a single, centralised Reich Church under Nazi control. In the Church elections of July 1933, the German Christians, with the support of Goebbels' Propaganda Ministry, won a sweeping victory and were now in a position to 'Nazify' the Church. Ludwig Müller, a Nazi nominee, was appointed as Reich Bishop and took over the administrative headquarters of the Evangelical Church with the help of the SA. Müller abolished all elected bodies within the Church and reorganised it on the leadership principle. In November 1933, the German Christians celebrated their triumph in taking over the Reich Church by holding a mass rally at the Sports Palace in Berlin. Here, they demanded that those pastors who had not declared their allegiance to the new regime should be dismissed, along with all non-Aryans. As a State institution, the Reich Church was forced to adopt this so-called 'Aryan paragraph' and 18 pastors, mostly men who had converted to Christianity from Judaism, were dismissed. By the end of 1933, it appeared that the Reich Church had successfully been 'coordinated' into the Volksgemeinschaft.</p> <p>The confessional church</p> <p>In September 1933, a group of dissident pastors, led by Martin Niemöller and Dietrich Bonhoeffer, established a Pastors' Emergency League. This evolved into a breakaway Church known as the Confessional Church. With the support of about 5000 pastors, the new Church was established to resist State interference in the Church and to re-establish a theology that was based purely on the Bible. The Confessional Church was thus in opposition to the official Reich Church. Some rural congregations went over to the Confessional Church because, as the Gestapo reported on the Potsdam district, 'farming people seem to want to celebrate their Church festivals in the traditional form'.</p> <p>The very fact that the Confessional Church was established in defiance of the Nazi policy of Gleichschaltung shows that the regime's attempts to 'coordinate' the Protestant Church were a failure</p> <p>The Roman Catholic church</p> <p>The Roman Catholic Church presented a far greater obstacle than the Protestants to the Nazi policy of Gleichschaltung. Catholics in Germany were part of an international Church and took their lead in</p>	<p>Should governments ever get involved in religion?</p>
--	---	--

<p>When did the Concordat happen from your GCSE knowledge?</p>	<p>religious matters from the pope. The Roman Catholic Church, therefore, was less susceptible to Nazi ideology than the wholly German Evangelical Church. The Nazis regarded the fact that the Roman Catholic Church demanded obedience to the pope from German Catholics as undermining Germany's unity as a nation. In the early 1930s, Catholic voters were among the least likely people to vote for the Nazi Party. On the other hand, Catholics as a group were keen to be seen and accepted as part of the German nation and, after Hitler came to power, the Catholic Church was prepared to compromise. There were also some points of convergence between Catholics and Nazism: the Catholic Church regarded communism as a far greater evil than Nazism and there were also many within the Church who shared the Nazis' anti-Semitism.</p> <p>The concordat</p> <p>In July 1933, the regime and the Vatican (the headquarters of the Catholic Church and home of the pope) reached an agreement called a concordat, under which:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the Vatican recognised the Nazi regime and promised that the Catholic Church would not interfere in politics • the regime promised that it would not interfere in the Catholic Church and that the Church would keep control of its schools, youth organisations and lay groups. It was not long, however, before the Nazi regime was breaking the terms of this agreement. In the summer of 1933, the Nazis began to seize the property of Catholic organisations and forced them to close. Catholic newspapers were ordered to drop the word 'Catholic' from their names. The Gestapo and SS put Catholic priests under surveillance. In the Night of the Long Knives in June 1934, a number of leading Catholics were executed by the SS. <p>Conflict between the regime and the catholic church</p> <p>Some Catholic priests did begin, in 1935–36, to speak out from their pulpits about the dangers of Nazi religious ideas. Leading this criticism was Clemens von Galen, the Archbishop of Münster. In response, the regime increased the pressure on the Catholic Church:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Permission to hold public meetings was severely restricted. • Catholic newspapers and magazines were heavily censored and many publications had Nazi editors imposed upon them. 	
--	--	--

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Goebbels launched a propaganda campaign against financial corruption in Catholic lay organisations. Many had their funds seized and their offices closed by the SA. • Membership of the Hitler Youth was made compulsory for all young people. Although Catholic youth organisations were still tolerated, they experienced increasing difficulty in holding onto their members. In 1937, Pope Pius XI issued an encyclical entitled 'With Burning Grief'. In response, the regime again increased the pressure: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gestapo and SS agents were placed inside Catholic Church organisations. • There was a tightening of restrictions on the Catholic press. Pilgrimages and processions were restricted and Catholic youth groups were closed down. • Many monasteries were closed down and their assets were seized. Crucifixes were removed from Catholic schools. • Goebbels' Propaganda Ministry publicised many sex scandals involving Catholic priests, attempting to portray the Church as corrupt. Around 200 priests were arrested and tried on sex charges. • Finally, the Nazis began a campaign to close Church schools. By the summer of 1939, all Church schools had been converted into community schools. <p>Section 17- The radicalisation of the State</p> <p>The Nazi regime could not act just as it wished in its first few years in power. Nazi ideological aims could only be implemented when it was politically possible. There were three distinct phases in the development of the Nazi regime.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Phase one: The legal revolution, 1933–34. When Hitler came to power in 1933, he depended on political allies. Hitler could not completely prevent the radical SA's violence, but he controlled it as much as he could. He consolidated his power by legal means. 2. Phase two: Creating the new Germany, 1934–37. By August 1934, the Nazi regime was secure, but Hitler still did not have a free hand. He worried about public opinion both at home and abroad. One example of this was the Olympic Games in Berlin in 1936. Before and during the Games, Nazi anti-Semitism was put under wraps while Nazi propaganda projected the image of Germany as a civilised society. Between 1934 and 1937, Hitler avoided confronting powerful groups like the army or the Churches. He also knew that Germany was not yet ready for a war, whatever the propaganda said. 3. Phase three: The radicalisation of the State, 1938–39. By the end of 1937, the Nazi regime was far stronger than in 1933. The economy had recovered. The SS completely controlled the police system. Hitler felt Germany was militarily ready for war. In 1938 and 1939, therefore, the Nazis took bold steps they would not have dared to take earlier. Hitler took control of the army, sacking its two most 	<p>Should oppressive regimes ever be allowed to hold global events such as the World Cup or the Olympics?</p>
--	--	---

<p>How were different groups treated during the Holocaust from what you studied in KS3 (Y9)?</p>	<p>Groups excluded from the Volksgemeinschaft The Nazis divided those who were to be excluded from the Volksgemeinschaft according to three criteria:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Political enemies • ‘Asocials’, i.e. people who didn’t fit the social norms imposed by the Nazis • Racial enemies, subdivided into: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • those of a different race (e.g. Jews, Gypsies) • those with hereditary defects, such as disabilities or disease. <p>Lebensraum</p>	
<p>Where did the idea of Lebensraum originate from?</p>	<p>In Germany, there was widespread support for the idea that the country was already over-populated and that industrious German farmers needed more land. Many argued that Germany’s destiny lay in the east, conquering the supposedly inferior Slav peoples of Poland and the former Russian Empire to gain access to fertile farmland and raw materials. Nazi ideology fitted in smoothly with these ideas about Germany’s destiny to expand eastwards, but Hitler’s concept of Lebensraum had a particular focus on race. Lebensraum would not only allow for the ‘Germanisation’ of the eastern lands and bringing the ‘Lost Germans’ back to the Reich. More importantly it would provide the battleground for a war of racial annihilation, wiping out the inferior Slav races and smashing Bolshevism in Russia.</p>	<p>Should countries be allowed to encroach on other countries territory?</p>
	<p>Policies towards the mentally ill and physically disabled</p> <p>In Nazi racial ideology, the mentally ill and physically disabled were considered to be ‘biological outsiders’ from the Volksgemeinschaft because their hereditary ‘defects’ made them a threat to the future of the Aryan race. Nazi thinking on the issue of mental and physical disability borrowed much from the ‘science’ of eugenics, which had become increasingly influential in Europe and the USA from the late nineteenth century and especially in the aftermath of the First World War</p>	
	<p>Sterilisation</p> <p>In July 1933, the Nazis took this further by introducing the Law for Prevention of Hereditarily Diseased Progeny (Sterilisation Law), which introduced compulsory sterilisation for certain categories of ‘inferiors’. This law specified the ‘hereditary diseases’ that sterilisation was to be applied to: congenital feeble-mindedness; schizophrenia; manic-depressive illness; epilepsy; chronic alcoholism; hereditary blindness and deafness; severe physical malformation (if proven to be hereditary). Later</p>	<p>Should anyone ever be prevented from having kids?</p>

	<p>amendments permitted sterilisation of children over 10 years, and the use of force to carry it out after 14 years, with no right to legal representation.</p> <p>During the Third Reich, 400,000 people were sterilised.</p> <p>Euthanasia</p> <p>A recurrent theme of Nazi propaganda was the idea that something had to be done about the 'burden' of the long-term ill and disabled.</p> <p>From October 1939, the programme was rapidly expanded and later moved to new, larger headquarters in Berlin, Tiergarten 4. It was from this address that the name by which the euthanasia programme is best known, Aktion T4, originated. The basis of T4 was bureaucracy and paperwork. Forms about patients were to be filled in at clinics and asylums, and passed on to assessors, who were paid on a piecework basis to encourage them to process as many patients as possible. Those who made judgements of life and death did so without having to look the patients in the eyes, but rather simply looked at forms. Some doctors took part because they were careerists. Several doctors and nurses complained about the programme, but their objections were ignored.</p> <p>Nazi policies towards asocials and homosexuals</p> <p>Asocials The term 'asocial', as used by the Nazis, covered a wide range of people who were deemed to be social outcasts. These included criminals, the 'workshy', tramps and beggars, alcoholics, prostitutes, homosexuals and juvenile delinquents. Nazi policy was to introduce tough measures against these groups and to give the police more power to enforce them. As with other aspects of Nazi racial policy, the approach towards asocials hardened and became more systematic as time went on. • In September 1933, the regime began a mass round-up of 'tramps and beggars', many of whom were young homeless, unemployed people. Since the Nazis did not have enough space in concentration camps to house all of these people (estimates of their total vary from between 300,000 and 500,000), they began to differentiate between the 'orderly' and the 'disorderly' homeless. The 'orderly', who were fit, willing to work and had no previous convictions, were given a permit and forced to work for their accommodation. The 'disorderly' were considered to be habitual criminals and sent to concentration camps.</p>	<p>Should Euthanasia be allowed in the UK?</p>
--	--	--

<p>Why would homosexuals be on the Nazis unwanted list?</p>	<p>Homosexuals In common with most other European countries at the time, homosexuality was outlawed in Germany before 1933. In the relatively liberal climate of the Weimar Republic, however, homosexuality flourished in Berlin and other large cities. Most Nazis regarded homosexuals as degenerate, perverted and a threat to the racial health of the German people. In 1933, the Nazis began a purge of homosexual organisations and literature. Clubs were closed down, organisations for gay people were banned and gay publications were outlawed.</p> <p>In May 1933, Nazi students attacked the Institute of Sex Research, a gay organisation, and burned its library. They also seized the Institute's list of names and addresses of gay people. This was the beginning of a long and sustained persecution of gay people in Nazi Germany.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In 1934, the Gestapo began to compile lists of gay people. In that same year, the SS eliminated Röhm and other leaders of the Nazi SA who were homosexuals. • The law on homosexuality was amended in 1935 to widen the definition of homosexuality and to impose harsher penalties for those convicted. After the law was changed, over 22,000 men were arrested and imprisoned between 1936 and 1938. <p>In 1936, Himmler created the Reich Office for the Combatting of Homosexuality and Abortion.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall, some 100,000 men were arrested for homosexuality, of whom about 50,000 were convicted. Even when the men arrested had served their sentences, they were immediately rearrested by the Gestapo or SS and held in concentration camps under 'preventive custody'. • In the camps, they had to wear a pink triangle to distinguish them from other prisoners and they were subjected to particularly brutal treatment by the guards. • Many of those imprisoned were subjected to 'voluntary castration' to 'cure' them of their 'perversion'. • Gay men who would not agree to abandon their sexual orientation were sent to concentration camps where they were subjected to unusually harsh treatment. Many were beaten to death. It has been estimated that about 60 per cent of gay prisoners died in the camps. • Lesbians did not suffer the same degree of persecution as they were considered to be 'asocial' rather than degenerate. 	<p>How should Britain communicate with countries where homosexuality is illegal?</p>
---	---	--

	<p>Policies towards religious sects</p> <p>There were a number of Christian sects that had become established in Germany by the time the Nazis came to power – the Jehovah’s Witnesses, Christian Scientists, Mormons, Seventh-Day Adventists and members of the New Apostolic Church. All had international links, which aroused Nazi suspicions about their loyalties, and most were banned by the regime in November 1933. The ban on some sects, however, was lifted when they demonstrated their willingness to cooperate with the regime. Where sects were allowed to continue, however, Gestapo agents attended and reported on their services. The Jehovah’s Witnesses were the only religious group to show uncompromising hostility to the Nazi State. With around 30,000 adherents in Germany in 1933, the Jehovah’s Witnesses were a small but closely-knit sect.</p> <p>Their belief that they could only obey Jehovah (God) led them into conflict with the Nazi regime because they refused to take a loyalty oath to Hitler. They refused to give the Hitler salute, participate in Nazi parades or accept army conscription. They regarded persecution as a test of their faith and became more resistant under pressure from the regime. Many were arrested. In prison, they refused to obey orders, to attend parades or remove their caps. By 1945, around 10,000 Jehovah’s Witnesses had been imprisoned and many had died. However, the regime had failed to break their resistance and the Witnesses had made some converts to their beliefs in the camps. Unlike the Jehovah’s Witnesses, the Seventh-Day Adventists gave a positive welcome to the Nazi regime, describing it as the beginning of Germany’s rebirth. The ban on the sect was removed within two weeks as it agreed to display the swastika flag in its churches, conclude its services with the ‘Heil Hitler’ greeting and remove the so-called ‘Jewish’ language of the Old Testament from its services. Its well-developed welfare organisation, which provided food and shelter, agreed to exclude asocials, Jews and other ‘race enemies’ from receiving help. Other sects also strove to make the necessary compromises with the regime in order to ensure their survival. The Mormons’ welfare organisation, like that of the Seventh-Day Adventists, selected its recipients according to Nazi criteria. The New Apostolic Church incorporated SS and SA flags into its church parades.</p> <p>Policies towards the Roma and the Sinti</p> <p>Jews were not the only victims of the intensification of Nazi race policies after 1935. There was also growing persecution of Germany’s 30,000 gypsies (Roma and Sinti people), known in Germany as Zigeuner. Gypsies had been subjected to In 1935, Nazi legal experts ruled that the Nuremberg Laws applied to Gypsies, even though they were not specifically mentioned in the laws. In 1936, the SS set</p>	<p>How are the Roma community treated around Europe in the 21st century?</p>
--	---	---

	<p>keep the SA under control and he was genuinely concerned about adverse reactions from his conservative allies in Germany or from foreign public opinion.</p> <p>The civil Service Laws in 1933</p> <p>In April 1933, the Nazi regime introduced the Law for the Restoration of the Professional Civil Service, requiring Jews to be dismissed from the Civil Service. This was not as straightforward as the Nazis hoped. There was no objective, scientific definition of who was racially Jewish according to physical characteristics or blood group. Under the 1933 law, people were considered 'non-Aryan' if either of their parents or either of their grandparents were Jewish. Another difficulty was that President Hindenburg insisted on exemptions for German Jews who had served in the First World War and for those whose fathers had been killed in the war. Hitler reluctantly accepted this as a political necessity and the exemption was kept in place until after Hindenburg's death in 1934. The exemptions amendment lessened the laws' impact because it applied to up to two thirds of Jews in the Civil Service.</p> <p>Further anti-Semitic legislation in 1933 Similar laws were passed after the Law for the Restoration of the Professional Civil Service, aimed at excluding Jews from the professions. These measures were not as effective as the Nazis would have hoped, partly because there were exemptions for those who had fought in the First World War and partly because Jews in medicine, the law and education were numerous and well-established, so it was not feasible to remove them all at once.</p> <p>The Legal Profession Doctors Education The Press</p> <p>The Nuremberg Laws, 1935</p> <p>In 1935, the Nazi regime extended the anti-Semitic legislation through the Nuremberg Laws, so called because they were announced at the annual party rally at Nuremberg. By 1935, many fanatical anti-</p>	
--	---	--

<p>From KS3 and GCSE why could it be argued the Nuremberg laws created a significant change in policy?</p>	<p>Semites in the Nazi movement were restless because they believed Nazi persecution of the Jews had not gone far enough. They urged Hitler to move further and faster. These radicals became the driving force behind the demands for anti-Jewish legislation. At the Nuremberg Party Rally in 1935, Hitler announced that the Communist International had declared war on Nazism and that it was time to 'deal once and for all with Jewish-Bolshevism'. On 15 September, the Nuremberg Laws were introduced:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Reich Citizenship Law meant that someone could be a German citizen only if they had purely German blood. Jews and other non-Aryans were now classified as subjects and had fewer rights than citizens. • The Law for the Protection of German Blood and Honour outlawed marriage between Aryans and non-Aryans. It was made illegal for German citizens to marry Jews. It was also illegal for Jews to have any sexual relations with a German citizen. The laws made the enforcing of anti-Semitism the major concern of civil servants, judges and the Gestapo. <p>The law was later extended to cover almost any physical contact between Jews and Aryans. The mere fact of an allegation was enough to secure a conviction. Aryan women were pressured to leave their Jewish husbands, on the grounds that men who lost their jobs through anti-Semitic legislation would be a burden on their partners. Although some relationships continued, there was a high risk of being denounced to the Gestapo. Punishments were harsh and Jewish men convicted under the terms of the Law for the Protection of German Blood and Honour were often re-arrested by the Gestapo after being released and then sent to concentration camps.</p> <p>In November 1935, the First Supplementary Decree on the Reich Citizenship Law defined what constituted a 'full Jew' – someone who had three Jewish grandparents, or who had two Jewish grandparents and was married to a Jew. 'Half Jews' were labelled Mischlinge. The law was difficult to interpret as the definition of a Jew was based on the number of Jewish grandparents. In many cases, Jews or their Jewish parents had converted to Christianity. This confused situation meant that legal classifications were often arbitrary and inconsistent.</p> <p>The position of Jews without the rights of citizenship left them with obligations to the state, but with no political rights and powerless against the Nazi bureaucracy. Possessing documentary proof of a person's ancestry became a high priority for many people. Many non-practising Jews attempted to prove their Aryan ancestry; some acquired falsified documents on the black market. There was further discrimination by local authorities and private companies that would not employ Jews, although Mischlinge were able to continue relatively 'normal' lives and could even serve in the lower ranks of the military.</p>	<p>Do we place too much emphasis on what nationality we are and where we are born?</p>
--	---	--

<p>What were the events targeting the Jewish community in Germany from 1933-38?</p> <p>Why did Reich Kristallnacht happen?</p> <p>How did the Treaty of Versailles impact the Nazis policy towards Austria?</p>	<p>19- The development of anti-Semitic policies, 1938–40</p> <p>Anti-Semitic policies</p> <p>1938 April Registration of Jewish assets over 5000 marks October Jewish passports stamped with a large 'J' November Jews forbidden to visit theatres, etc. Reichkristallnacht, Expulsion of all Jewish pupils from schools</p> <p>December Compulsory sale of all Jewish businesses</p> <p>1939 September German invasion of Poland Ghettoisation of Jews in Poland October Euthanasia programme authorised by Hitler November Jews in occupied Poland made to wear Star of David</p> <p>1940 April German invasion of Western Europe.</p> <p>The effect of the Anschluss with Austria, March 1938</p> <p>Although the Anschluss (union) with Austria was banned under the Treaty of Versailles, it was a long-term ambition of German nationalists and was achieved in March 1938. The German takeover of Austria was achieved without a shot being fired and German troops were welcomed enthusiastically by the Austrian people. This 'bloodless victory' further emboldened Hitler and the Nazi leadership to pursue their ambitions in foreign policy and to adopt more radical racial policies in the Greater Germany they had created.</p> <p>By 1938, therefore, Hitler was growing in confidence that Germany was ready for war if necessary and that the Allied powers lacked the resolve to act against him. After his 'bloodless victory' in Austria, his next target was Czechoslovakia, which included a large German minority living in the area known as the Sudetenland. In September 1938, Hitler risked war with Britain and France over his demand for the Sudetenland to be handed over to Germany. Once again, he achieved a 'bloodless victory' after Britain and France agreed to the German takeover. In March 1939, he achieved another success with the occupation of the rest of Czechoslovakia. In August 1939, Nazi Germany and Soviet Russia signed a non-aggression pact (known as the Nazi-Soviet Pact) under which the USSR agreed not to oppose the German invasion of Poland.</p>	<p>What issues of violence are there in British society today towards minorities? How can we deal with this violence?</p>
---	---	---

<p>What was the Four-year plan? Why was Schacht replaced?</p>	<p>This invasion followed on 1 September 1939, which led to war between Germany and Britain and France two days later. The more radical phase of Nazi anti-Semitism was part of the more general radicalising of the regime's policies, which began in the winter of 1937–38. By late 1937, the Four Year Plan was beginning to improve both the economic and the military situation in Germany. Those who had been urging caution – Schacht in economic policy and Blomberg and Fritsch in the military – were swept aside and the balance of power in the regime shifted towards the more radical elements in the Nazi Party. Schacht had argued strongly against radical anti-Semitism in the economic field because he did not want to alienate foreign investors. Goering, in charge of the Four Year Plan, did not care about foreign opinion and was determined to remove Jews from businesses as soon as possible. The occupation of Austria in March 1938 led to a rapid acceleration of the economic campaign against Jews as the Nazis in Austria were allowed to act against Jews without constraint. This prompted Goering to take more radical action in Germany itself.</p> <p>Anti-Semitic decrees, April to November 1938</p> <p>In April 1938, the Decree of Registration of Jewish Property provided for the confiscation of all Jewish-owned property worth more than 5000 marks. This was the starting point for the Aryanisation of Jewish property and businesses. In April 1938, there were roughly 40,000 Jewish-owned businesses in Germany; a year later only around 8000 had avoided being closed down or 'Aryanised'.</p> <p>Further legislation banned Jews from work as travelling salesmen, security guards, travel agents and estate agents – 30,000 Jewish travelling salesmen lost their jobs. In 1938, Jews also lost their entitlement to public welfare. The increasing number of unemployed and poor Jews depended completely on the charities set up by the Jewish community, such as the Central Institution for Jewish Economic Aid. From October 1938, the passports of German Jews had to be stamped with a large 'J'.</p> <p>The drive to make Jews easily identifiable and, at the same time, strip them of their individuality led to a new law in 1939 compelling all Jewish men to adopt the additional first name of 'Israel'; all Jewish women took the additional first name 'Sarah'. At this stage, Hitler turned down the suggestion of making all Jews wear a yellow star in public – this did not come into practice within the Reich until 1941.</p>	<p>How should countries be dealt with that invade other countries?</p>
---	---	--

	<p>Reichkristallnacht, 9–10 November 1938</p> <p>The Reichkristallnacht pogrom can be viewed as an uncontrolled outpouring of anti-Semitic feeling amongst radical elements of the Nazi movement, partly supported by German public opinion. Certainly this was the view put out by Nazi propaganda, which announced that ‘the National Soul has boiled over’. It is also true that some people in the Nazi hierarchy were concerned about the violence running out of control. In the days after the pogrom, Hitler gave Hermann Goering a coordinating role to ‘sort things out’. From this point of view, it might appear that the situation in November 1938 was similar to that of April 1933, when the regime had to rein in the SA boycott. In reality, Reichkristallnacht was orchestrated by the Nazi leadership and the majority of those involved in the violence and vandalism were SA and SS men who had been instructed not to wear uniforms.</p> <p>The Nazis seized the opportunity presented by the murder of Ernst vom Rath on 9 November. Rath was a minor German official in Paris who was killed by Herschel Grynszpan, a young Polish Jew angry at the treatment of his parents by the Nazi regime. The killing of vom Rath was more an excuse for unleashing anti-Jewish terror than the real cause. The chief instigator of the pogrom was Joseph Goebbels. He gave instructions to the Nazi officials in the regions to organise the violence and vandalism, but to be careful to make it appear that it was not orchestrated by the Nazi Party. The fifteenth anniversary of the 1923 Munich Putsch was on 9 November and Goebbels hoped to please Hitler by marking the occasion with a spectacular event. In the violence, 91 Jews were killed and thousands injured.</p> <p>There was looting of cash, silver, jewellery and works of art. Damage to shops and businesses amounted to millions of marks. Much of the vandalism was purely destructive, not for gain. Orders from the SS directed the police not to intervene against the demonstrators; they were ordered to place 20,000–30,000 Jews in ‘preventive’ detention. The fire brigades watched and did nothing as synagogues burned to the ground; their only concern was to stop the fires spreading to other buildings.</p> <p>The anti-Jewish violence of November 1938 was not received with universal approval in Germany. Some ordinary citizens joined in the violence, looting alongside SA thugs who were equipped with crowbars, hammers, axes and petrol bombs, but many German people were horrified by the destruction. In Leipzig, the American consul reported that silent crowds of local people were ‘benumbed and aghast’ at the sight of the burned-out synagogue and the looted shops the next morning.</p>	
--	--	--

<p>From year 9 what methods can you remember the Nazis using to have early success in the war? (Blitzkrieg)</p>	<p>There was only a short period of time, however, in the late summer and early autumn of 1940, when the Madagascar Plan seemed viable. Germany's failure to end the war with Britain, either by military victory or a peace agreement, meant that the British Royal Navy would be able to disrupt the mass transportation of Jews by sea to Madagascar. Attention turned back to the east. By October 1940, Hitler was already planning for Operation Barbarossa. The Madagascar Plan was shelved in favour of the plan to send Europe's Jews deep into Siberia, 'East of the Urals', once the forthcoming conquest of the USSR was complete.</p> <p>20- Policies towards the Jews, 1940–41</p> <p>Blitzkrieg: literally 'lightning war'; used to describe the German strategy of attacking an enemy with maximum force, combining air attacks with fast-moving motorised army units on the ground in order to achieve a quick victory</p> <p>Operation Barbarossa: the German codename for the invasion of the USSR; the operation was named after Frederick Barbarossa (Redbeard), a medieval German king who invaded Russia</p> <p>Invading Poland caused Britain and France to go to war, but this did not save Poland. In October 1940, Hitler won a series of Blitzkrieg victories in the west, defeating France and leaving Britain isolated. France came under a Nazi puppet regime ruled from the town of Vichy. Hitler seemed to have a free hand to fulfil his aim of Lebensraum in the east. In August 1939, Hitler and Stalin, the leader of the communist USSR, had concluded the Nazi-Soviet Pact, which guaranteed that the USSR would not intervene when Germany invaded Poland. The Pact was only ever intended to be a temporary truce. In October 1940, Hitler started detailed planning for the conquest of the USSR and, in June 1941, he launched Operation Barbarossa. German armies swept across the USSR, occupying vast territories in eastern Poland, the Baltic States (Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia), western Russia and Ukraine. Complete victory seemed almost certain. The way was open for the fulfilment of the dream of Lebensraum. All of these events had an impact on the development of Nazi anti-Semitic policy, since the war in the east was to be a war of racial annihilation, fought with a savagery and ideological intensity on a completely different scale than the relatively civilised struggle against the western Allies. The German invasion deep into the western parts of the USSR in 1941 immediately brought more than 3 million Soviet Jews under German rule. The war was especially brutal. Before the invasion had even been launched, Hitler issued the instruction to 'eliminate' the 'Bolshevik-Jewish intelligentsia'.</p>	<p>Is Britain's policy on sending migrants to Rwanda fair?</p>
---	---	--

<p>From KS3 why did the Nazis have to result to using Ghettos? What were the conditions in the Ghettos like?</p>	<p>The war with Soviet Russia intensified the pressure on Hitler to deal with the ‘Jewish question’ in Germany as well as in the occupied territories. A series of measures had further isolated Jews from German society by late 1941:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Radio sets were confiscated from Jews. In November 1939 Jews were banned from buying radios. A month later, they were banned from buying chocolate. • In 1940, Jews were excluded from the wartime rationing allowances for clothing and shoes. In July, an order limited them to entering shops at restricted times only – in Berlin it was from 4 pm to 5 pm. • In 1941, regulations were tightened up to require Jews to have police permit to travel. An order in December 1941 compelled Jews in Germany to wear the yellow Star of David, as was already the case with Jews in the occupied territories. <p>Deportations and ghettoization</p> <p>The Nazi regime urgently needed a clear plan to deal with the huge Jewish populations that were displaced by military conquest and Germanisation. One solution they turned to was the creation of Jewish ghettos. In February 1940, the first ghetto was set up in Lodz, the second biggest city in Poland. About 320,000 Jews were living in the city. The Nazis considered their ‘immediate evacuation’ to be impossible. The majority of Jews were accommodated in a closed ghetto, set up in a single day by barricades – later the Jews had to build a surrounding wall.</p> <p>Jews sent to the ghettos had their homes confiscated. Most Jews had to sell their valuables to survive. There was further economic exploitation in the form of forced labour. The Nazis massively restricted the amount of food, medical supplies and other goods that entered the overcrowded ghettos. Conditions in the ghetto were terrible. Six people shared an average room; 15 people lived in an average apartment. Few homes had running water. With no economic links to the outside world, basic necessities such as food and fuel were scarce. There were terrible lice infestations and diseases spread rapidly, including spotted fever, typhus, typhoid and tuberculosis.</p> <p>The Warsaw Ghetto</p>	<p>Should anyone ever be deported from a country? (illegal immigrants for example)</p>
--	--	--

<p>What role did the Einsatzgruppen play during the Holocaust?</p> <p>What changes occurred to Nazi policy from 1933-41?</p> <p>Who was Heydrich?</p>	<p>The largest ghetto established in Poland was in the capital city, Warsaw. Governor Hans Frank ordered the Jews to build a high wall around the Jewish Quarter in October 1940, forming the Warsaw ghetto. Jews also had to pay for its construction costs. In November, the ghetto was sealed off completely from the rest of the city. More than 400,000 Jews were concentrated there and over the following months, many more Jews and Gypsies were forced out of the countryside into the ghetto. Richer Jews were housed in the 'small ghetto'; the mass of ordinary people were squeezed into the so-called 'large ghetto', which was not large at all and became desperately overcrowded. Food rations in the large ghetto were at starvation levels. Germans in occupied Poland were consuming an average of 2310 calories per day, close to the 2500 calories a day for an adult man recommended by present-day nutritionists. In Warsaw in 1940, Poles received 634 calories a day. The figure for Jews was 300. Malnutrition and overcrowding inevitably led to outbreaks of killer diseases, above all typhus. More than 100,000 people died in the ghetto in 1940–41.</p> <p>The Einsatzgruppen ('Special Groups')</p> <p>As German forces overran the western territories of the USSR in June and July 1941, 'Special Groups', the Einsatzgruppen, were sent in to eliminate communist officials, Red Army commissars, partisans and the 'Jewish Bolshevik intelligentsia'. The activities of the Einsatzgruppen went far beyond their original remit. They carried out numerous mass killings of Soviet Jews in the second half of 1941. Possibly half a million Soviet Jews were killed by the Einsatzgruppen in June and July 1941.</p> <p>The Einsatzgruppen were temporary units made up of police and regular troops commanded by men from the Gestapo, the SD and the Criminal Police under the overall direction of the SS. Einsatzgruppen had been in operation before 1941. Reinhard Heydrich and the RSHA had organised Special Groups in 1938 and 1939 to secure government buildings and to seize official files at the time of the Anschluss (union) with Austria and when Germany occupied Prague. Special Groups were used extensively in support of military operations in the invasion of Poland in 1939, when they were involved in 'special actions' against Jews and many Poles, especially communists and the 'intelligentsia'. Local volunteers were often recruited to assist them.</p> <p>The Einsatzgruppen played an important role in the 'ethnic cleansing' of the territories in western Poland that were incorporated into Greater Germany. Key responsibilities of the Einsatzgruppen included the mass shooting of Jews and forcing Jews into ghettos in the cities. It is estimated that 7000 Jews were killed in Poland in 1939 and, in total, it is believed that the Einsatzgruppen in Poland killed 15,000 people including Jews and members of the 'intelligentsia</p>	<p>Where else has there been 'ethnic cleansing' in the 20th and the 21st century?</p>
---	---	---

<p>How did rationing impact the war from what you studied at GCSE?</p>	<p>The Einsatzgruppen were supported by police reserve units. Police Battalion 309 carried out a massacre in Bialystok in eastern Poland on 27 June 1941. The police battalions included many 'ordinary men' conscripted into the police instead of the regular army. The total number of men involved in the mass killing of Jews and communist party officials now rose to 40,000 men. Jewish men were routinely being shot; with the extra manpower, Jewish women and children were now also to be shot. The Einsatzgruppen were also supported by auxiliary groups that they recruited from the local populations in areas such as Ukraine and Latvia. There were many eager volunteers.</p> <p>21 The impact of war on German society</p> <p>The impact of rationing</p> <p>Decrees establishing a food rationing system were issued in August 1939, even before the war began. Clothing was not initially included in the rationing scheme but permits were needed to purchase clothes.</p> <p>The allocation of food rations was based on age, occupation and race. Those who were employed in manual labour received more than those who had more sedentary occupations. Jews received smaller rations. There were special allocations for groups such as pregnant women, nursing mothers and the sick. The allocations established at the beginning of the war remained largely unchanged during the first two years of the war.</p> <p>After the invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941, some rations were reduced.</p> <p>The impact of propaganda and indoctrination on morale</p> <p>Maintaining the morale of Germans was a high priority for the regime. Goebbels had developed a highly sophisticated propaganda system, which controlled the flow of information to the German people. The regime also used its secret police system, the SD and Gestapo, to monitor the public mood and the effectiveness of propaganda. The SD reports provide a valuable source of information for historians about German morale at different stages of the war.</p> <p>Phase 1: Blitzkrieg, September 1939–June 1941 Events in the war • After defeating Poland in the east, German forces achieved a series of quick victories against various European countries.</p>	<p>Is there any justification for war?</p>
--	--	--

<p>How effective war propaganda in maintaining morale?</p>	<p>people who experienced at first hand the horrors of the bombing raids paint a rather different picture.</p> <p>Goebbels attempted to keep up morale in the face of the air raids with talk of retaliation using secret weapons that were being developed. Germany's civilian population did display resilience in defiance of the bombing but, as the raids continued, there was a serious erosion of civilian morale. The experience of sheer terror as many of Germany's cities were consumed by firestorms, the growing shortages and lengthening queues, the loss of sleep as nights were disrupted by air-raid warnings – all contributed to a growing sense of exhaustion.</p> <p>Unsurprisingly, civilian morale collapsed. The civilian population was exhausted and suffering severe hardship but there were few signs of outward resistance, still less of rebellion. On the whole, the German population reacted passively and with resignation to the final collapse of the regime and Germany's occupation by foreign forces, bound together in a 'community of fate'. Once Germany was defeated and occupied, however, the Nazi regime collapsed quickly</p> <p>The changing impact of the war on German society</p> <p>Elites</p> <p>Among the elites there were diverse views regarding the Nazi regime and various reasons for opposing it. Some felt a moral conviction that the Nazi regime was evil. Others were patriotic about their country but believed that Hitler was leading Germany to destruction. Some were democrats, while others were traditional, aristocratic conservatives who wanted a return to an authoritarian, non-Nazi style of government.</p> <p>Workers</p> <p>In his 'Decree on the Conversion of the Whole German Economy onto a War Footing' of 3 September 1939, Hitler imposed wage reductions and a ban on the payment of bonuses for overtime, Sunday work and night-shift working. This caused widespread discontent among the labour force, which was reflected in an increased level of absenteeism. Consequently, in October 1939, the regime relented. Wage levels were restored to their pre-war levels and the payment of bonuses was reintroduced, but</p>	
--	---	--

How did workers and women's lives change during the war from what you can remember at GCSE?

wage rates were not allowed to increase. Total war measures began to impact on workers during 1943 and 1944. In August 1944, a total ban on holidays was imposed, the working week was increased to 60 hours and extra payments for working overtime were abolished. This increased pressure did result in some rise in absenteeism but employers had a number of disciplinary measures at their disposal. Workers could have their reserved status removed, which would result in conscription into the armed forces and, possibly, a posting to the Eastern Front. Employers could also allocate extra food rations to those employees who had good attendance records and impose fines for absenteeism and bad timekeeping. The regime also had at its disposal the DAF factory cell system, in which workers were divided into groups under a loyal Nazi Party member who was responsible for the attendance of workers in his cell. The regime also used incentives to encourage workers to raise productivity. Many plants switched from an hourly paid system to a system of piecework under which workers could earn more if they produced more. The increase in working hours and the pressure to produce more had an impact on workers' health and welfare. Accidents at work increased and workers' health deteriorated.

Women

Women bore the brunt of the hardships endured on the home front. As housewives, married women were obliged to spend time queuing for supplies of vital foodstuffs when shortages occurred. As mothers, women had to shoulder even more of the task of childcare when their husbands were away in the armed forces. As workers, women played an increasingly vital role in the German war economy

German War Economy

Table 1 *International comparison of women in employment, 1939–44*

Germany		Great Britain	
Date	Women as % of total workforce	Date	Women as % of total workforce
May 1939	37.4	June 1939	26.4
May 1941	42.6	June 1941	33.2
May 1942	46.0	June 1942	36.1
May 1943	48.8	June 1943	37.7
May 1944	51.0	June 1944	37.9

Youth

<p>Why did the Nazis have to use more labour as the war progressed?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • central coordination of the allocation of labour, equipment and materials to armaments factories • the concentration of production in fewer factories and on a narrower range of standardised products • greater use of mass production techniques • more shift working to keep factories operating 24 hours a day <p>The economic impact of allied bombing</p> <p>Between 1942 and May 1945, the British and Americans carried out a sustained bombing offensive against Germany's industrial capacity and civilian morale. The gains in production achieved by Speer in 1943 and 1944 occurred despite the damage inflicted by the air raids. Undoubtedly, the bombing had an impact on production since supply lines were damaged, factories had to be dispersed and worker morale was affected. In January 1945, officials at the Ministry of Armaments calculated that the bombing had resulted in 35 per cent fewer tanks, 31 per cent fewer aircraft and 42 per cent fewer lorries being produced than would have otherwise been the case. Moreover, the intense bombing campaign of January to May 1945 caused an actual reduction in the amount of armaments that were produced.</p> <p>Mobilisation of the labour force</p> <p>The defeat at Stalingrad in January 1943 led to even more drastic measures to increase the labour supply. Even before the surrender of German forces, on 13 January 1943 Hitler issued a Decree for the Comprehensive Deployment of Men and Women for Reich Defence Tasks. This established a small committee to oversee the mobilisation of labour for the war effort. Under this decree, all men aged 16–65 and women aged 17–45 had to register for work with their local labour office</p> <p>The use of foreign labour</p> <p>From June 1940 until the spring of 1942, foreign workers in German industry were mainly recruited from occupied countries in western Europe.</p> <p>By December 1941, there were some 4 million foreign workers employed in Germany. From 1942 to 1945, Sauckel succeeded in rounding up and transporting to Germany 2.8 million workers from eastern Europe. Millions of prisoners of war were also forced to work in Germany. It has been calculated that, by 1944, there were 7 million foreign workers in Germany and another 7 million people in the occupied countries doing work for the Germans.</p>	<p>How should prisoners of war be treated?</p>
---	---	--

<p>What were the Nazis policies towards the Jewish community from 1933-42?</p>	<p>23 The origins of the 'Final Solution'</p> <p>By the end of 1941, the Nazi regime had to face the fact that the complete conquest of the Soviet Union had not been achieved and that final victory would have to wait until the summer of 1942 at the earliest. Some of the previous plans to send millions of deported Jews to be resettled on the island of Madagascar or in Siberia had to be abandoned. It was also clear by then that the vast numbers of Jews already deported to the General Government area of Poland were too many for the authorities there to cope with. It was the urgency of the problems facing the Nazi regime late in 1941 that led to radical new policies.</p> <p>The Wannsee Conference, January 1942</p> <p>The key moment in the implementation of systematic murder was the Wannsee Conference on 20 January 1942.</p> <p>The importance of the Wannsee Conference is frequently misrepresented as the occasion when the final decision was taken to exterminate Europe's Jews. In reality, Wannsee was a meeting to inform senior bureaucrats of their roles in implementing a decision that had already been taken.</p> <p>The top-secret meeting at Wannsee comprised 15 high-ranking Nazi officials. Hitler and Himmler were not in attendance. The chairman was Reinhard Heydrich, the most powerful man in the SS after Heinrich Himmler. Heydrich had received orders from Hermann Goering, empowering him to organise the preparations for the 'Final Solution' to the 'Jewish question'.</p> <p>The 'Final Solution'</p> <p>When the war turned against Germany in 1942-43, it might have been expected that the Nazi regime would slacken its attempts to exterminate the Jews and focus their efforts on fighting the Allies. In fact, the mass killings were accelerated and given higher priority than military needs. Nazi propaganda became even more hate-filled than before. The intensification of the Nazi propaganda war against the Jews ran in parallel with the periods of crisis in Germany's war effort.</p>	
--	--	--

<p>How did the war change the Nazis policies towards the Jewish community?</p>	<p>Zyklon b: a form of poisonous cyanide gas, originally developed by a Jewish scientist as a weapon for use in the First World War and later used in the gas chambers for mass killings in the death camps</p> <p>Jewish resistance</p> <p>Across Eastern Europe, groups of partisan fighters established base camps deep in the forests and carried out acts of sabotage against the German occupiers. Many of these groups were nationalist or communist, but there were also numerous Jewish groups. About 10,000 Jewish partisans were active in Lithuania in early 1942. In the General Government of Poland, the Nazi governor, Hans Frank, had to commit large security forces to try to deal with more than 20 different Jewish partisan groups. In Belarus, from autumn 1941 onwards, a Jewish resistance group led by the Bielski brothers eventually became a permanent community of 1200 partisans. In addition to acts of sabotage, the Bielski group also provided a refuge for Jews escaping from the ghettos.</p> <p>The Bielski family, from Stankiewiczze in Poland, were millers and grocers. After the Nazis took over this part of Poland in 1941, the parents were killed in the ghetto in Nowogrodek and the four sons, Tuvia, Alexander, Asael and Aron, fled to the nearby Naloboki forest. They set up a camp, which attracted other Jewish escapees and, at its height, housed over 1200 people. For three years, they carried out sabotage missions against Nazi forces and managed to evade capture. When the Soviet Red Army occupied the area in 1944, the partisans emerged from the forest but were treated with hostility and suspicion by the Soviet commanders.</p> <p>There were also sporadic revolts in the ghettos and camps.</p> <p>The death marches</p> <p>The military defeat of the Third Reich did not bring a tidy end to the suffering of the victims of the Holocaust. From autumn 1944, as German forces pulled back, the Nazi regime carried out a frantic programme of evacuations and forced marches. Camps were hurriedly closed down and the inmates sent on long marches westwards, away from the advancing Red Army. These death marches caused terrible suffering and loss of life. Often in freezing winter weather, people who were already malnourished and had inadequate shoes and clothing were forced to march. Many died of illness and exhaustion. Hundreds were shot by their guards for failing to keep up the required pace. Even if they survived their first forced march from one camp to a new one, many prisoners had to repeat the awful experience all over again as that new camp was evacuated when enemy forces approached. It is</p>	
--	--	--

<p>From your GCSE knowledge what different opposition groups were there and how did they provide opposition?</p>	<p>difficult to know exactly how many victims died on the death marches; estimates range from 250,000 to 400,000. Many of them were women. The death marches continued right up to the end of the war</p> <p>24- Opposition and resistance in wartime</p> <p>Opposition from young people</p> <p>Working-class youth During the 1930s, the Nazis had banned all independent youth groups and made membership of the Hitler Youth (HJ) compulsory. However, there was a long-standing tradition among working-class youths to form independent youth groups. Some, such as the 'wild cliques', were criminal or semi-criminal in nature, whilst others, such as the Wandervogel were law-abiding but unconventional. Despite the efforts of the regime, the 'wild cliques' were never completely suppressed and began to re-emerge during the war. One such group was the Edelweiss Pirates</p> <p>The Edelweiss Pirates were groups of mostly working-class young people aged 14–18 who were mainly active in the Rhineland and Ruhr areas. Their name derived from their badge, which showed an edelweiss flower. According to the Justice Ministry report, the main 'uniform' of the group consisted of 'short trousers, white socks, a check shirt, a white pullover and scarf and a windcheater. In addition they have very long hair.' Although not overtly political, the Edelweiss Pirates were anti-Hitler Youth and tried to avoid conscription. The report also stated that 'They hate all discipline and thereby place themselves in opposition to the community. However, they are not only politically hostile but, as a result of their composition, they are also criminal and antisocial.' The Edelweiss Pirates consciously rejected the official, disciplined and militaristic culture of the Hitler Youth by organising independent expeditions into the countryside, where they sang songs banned in the Hitler Youth. In the war years, there were an increasing number of clashes between Edelweiss Pirates and Hitler Youth groups. In 1944, the Cologne group became linked to an underground group that helped army deserters, escaped prisoners of war, forced labourers and prisoners from concentration camps. They obtained supplies by attacking military depots. The chaos and destruction caused by bombing provided the conditions for developing underground activity. The Gestapo and Hitler Youth used their powers to crush the Edelweiss Pirates. When arrests, shaving of heads and banishment to labour camps did not work, the Gestapo turned to more severe measures. On 7 December 1942, the Gestapo broke up 28 groups in Düsseldorf, Duisburg, Essen and Wuppertal. The leaders of the Cologne Edelweiss Pirates were publicly hanged in November 1944.</p> <p>Middle-class youth Swing Youth</p>	<p>What methods of opposition can be used to good effect to create change in the 21st century?</p> <p>Does methods of opposition have to differ depending on what country you are in? What are the potential risks of opposition?</p>
--	--	--

<p>What opposition was there from the protestant and catholic church?</p>	<p>A different style of youth rebellion developed among young people from the prosperous middle class. The Swing Youth were motivated, according to the Ministry of Justice report, by ‘the desire to have a good time’. In a conscious rejection of Nazi values, the Swing Youth groups listened to American and British swing and jazz music and wore English-style clothes. Swing clubs sprang up in Hamburg, Kiel, Berlin, Stuttgart, Frankfurt, Dresden, Halle and Karlsruhe. By adopting jazz music – which the Nazis referred to as ‘negro music’ – as the emblem of an alternative youth culture, they were placing themselves in opposition to the regime, but they were not overtly political or attempting to overthrow the regime. Nevertheless their ‘sleaziness’ and unashamed pleasure-seeking offended the moral precepts of the Nazi regime and Himmler wanted to send the leaders of the movement to concentration camps for two to three years.</p> <p>Opposition from the Churches</p> <p>The Roman Catholic Church As in the 1930s, the Christian Churches were influenced in their response to the regime firstly by their desire to protect their organisations and secondly by their support for many of the regime’s policies. The Roman Catholic Church, for example, supported Germany’s war aims in 1939 and gave wholehearted support to the invasion of the USSR in 1941. It was again left to individual churchmen to raise their voices in protest at some aspects of Nazi policies. Bishop Galen spoke out in a sermon in 1940 to condemn the euthanasia programme that killed 270,000 mentally and physically disabled people. His protest struck a chord with other Christians and led to the temporary halting of the programme by the regime. Galen himself was not persecuted by the regime for his outspoken opposition but other priests who distributed his sermon were. Three Catholic priests were executed. Apart from Galen, the other leading Catholic who spoke out against the regime was Archbishop Frings of Cologne, who condemned the killing of prisoners of war.</p> <p>The Protestant Church The Protestant Confessional Church of Prussia was the only Christian body in Germany to protest publicly about the treatment of the Jews. In 1943, a statement was read from the pulpits in Prussian churches. Dietrich Bonhoeffer, who had been an outspoken critic of the regime since 1933, also called for wider Christian resistance to the treatment of Jews. Since 1940, however, Bonhoeffer had been banned from speaking in public and his criticisms could not reach a wide audience in Germany. Bonhoeffer had become involved in the late 1930s with critics of the Nazi regime from among the elites and he had extensive contacts abroad. He was arrested by the Gestapo in 1943 and held in prison until his execution (just before liberation) in 1945.</p> <p>Communist opposition</p>	
---	---	--

<p>Why were the Gestapo effective at dealing with opposition?</p>	<p>The underground communist resistance had been severely weakened by the Gestapo in the 1930s but had managed to survive in some areas. The 1939 NaziSoviet Pact had undermined communist resistance to the regime as the KPD struggled to explain and justify this arrangement. The invasion of the USSR in June 1941, however, had galvanised communist resistance to the regime. At the time of the invasion, the KPD had 89 underground cells operating in Berlin, with other cells in Hamburg, Mannheim and central Germany. Their main means of spreading ideas and attempting to recruit was through issuing leaflets attacking the regime. Infiltration by the Gestapo was always a problem for these cells and, in 1942–43, the Gestapo had considerable success in destroying the communist underground network. By the end of 1943, 22 of the communist cells in Berlin had been destroyed. The communist underground did cling to life in some areas but, under pressure from the Gestapo and linked to the USSR, the power most Germans considered to be their main enemy, the movement had no prospect of attracting widespread support.</p> <p>Army and civilian critics among the elites</p> <p>The Kreisau Circle Many of the diverse views of the elite who opposed Nazism could be found within the Kreisau Circle. Kreisau was the home of Count Helmut von Moltke, one of the leading figures within the group, which also included other aristocrats, lawyers, SPD politicians and churchmen such as Bonhoeffer. The common denominator linking this diverse group was a belief in personal freedom and individual responsibility. Described as the ‘intellectual powerhouse of the non-communist opposition’ in Nazi Germany, the Kreisau Circle held three meetings in 1942–43 before the group was broken up by the Gestapo.</p> <p>Assassination attempts and the July 1944 plot</p>	
<p>From your knowledge at GCSE, what happened in the July 1944 bomb plot?</p>	<p>Among those who had been involved in the 1938 plot, General Beck, Karl Goerdeler and Ulrich von Hassell continued to discuss acting against the regime. They had links to Dietrich Bonhoeffer and General Hans Oster. At first, Beck and Goerdeler concentrated on trying to persuade senior army generals to arrest Hitler. They also made contact, through a meeting between Bonhoeffer and Bishop Bell of Chichester, with the British government, hoping for a commitment to a negotiated peace if Hitler was removed. None of these moves was effective and, in 1943, the conspirators decided that their only option was to assassinate Hitler. The loss of the German army at Stalingrad, due largely to Hitler’s refusal to allow a retreat, confirmed that Hitler was leading Germany to disaster. A first assassination attempt was made in March 1943 when a bomb was placed on Hitler’s plane. This failed to explode. Although the plot was not discovered, the arrest of Bonhoeffer and other members of the</p>	

	<p>Kreisau Circle in April 1943 was a warning that the Gestapo was getting close to uncovering the full extent of the conspiracy. In 1943, the conspiracy was joined by Colonel Claus von Stauffenberg, who actually succeeded in planting a bomb at Hitler's headquarters in East Prussia in July 1944. Plans were made for a military coup – codenamed Operation Valkyrie – to take over Berlin after Hitler was assassinated. If the assassination attempt had been successful, the conspirators would have established a provisional government consisting of Conservatives, Centre Party, SPD and non-Party representatives, which would then have tried to open immediate peace negotiations with the western Allies. The bomb exploded, but Hitler escaped with minor injuries. The planned coup did not materialise because of confusion among the conspirators, who failed to seize control of the radio stations. A broadcast by Hitler to prove that he was still alive was confirmation that the plot had failed. In the wake of this failed assassination, Himmler was placed in charge of rounding up the conspirators. The SS cast their net wide, arresting 7000 people and executing 5746. Beck committed suicide and Stauffenberg was shot. The failure of the plot led to the army losing the last vestiges of its independence from the regime as it was effectively placed under SS control.</p>	
--	---	--