

# GCSE History – Revision Guide

## AQA History: Paper 1 – ‘Understanding the modern world’

- Germany, 1890-1945: Democracy and dictatorship
- Conflict and tension between East and West, 1945-1972



Name –



## Contents

### Paper 1: Understanding the Modern World

#### Section A: Germany, 1890-1945; Democracy and dictatorship

##### **Kaiser Wilhelm and the difficulties of ruling Germany**

Parliamentary government / Growth of socialism / Industrialisation	1
Navy Laws / Germany during the First World War	2
Impact of the First World War / The Weimar Republic and constitution	3
The Treaty of Versailles	4
Financial problems of the Weimar Republic	5

##### **Weimar Democracy**

Political change and unrest, 1919-23	6
The Stresemann era (1924-29)	7
Weimar culture in the 1920's	8

##### **The impact of the Depression**

What was the Depression?	9
Reasons for the growth of the Nazi Party	10
Who voted for the Nazis?	11

##### **The failure of Weimar democracy**

Hitler's road to power	12
------------------------	----

## **The establishment of Hitler's dictatorship**

Elimination of political opposition	13-14
The Night of the Long Knives	14

## **Economic changes in Nazi Germany**

Back to work	15
Work and control / Economic policy	16
Self-sufficiency / the Nazis and Farmers	17
Impact of war	18

## **Social policy and practise in Nazi Germany**

The Nazis and young people / Education	19
Hitler Youth Organisations / Women in Nazi Germany	20
Nazi policies towards women	21
Nazi control of churches and religion	22-23
Racial policy, persecution and the Final Solution	24-25

## **Control in Nazi Germany**

The police state	26
Art and culture in Nazi Germany	27
Resistance and opposition	28
Glossary	29

## Paper 1: Understanding the Modern World

### Section B: Conflict and tension between East and West, 1945-1972

#### Part one: The origins of the Cold War

Timeline of key events	30
Differences between communism and capitalism	31-32
The Yalta and Potsdam Conferences	32-34
The creation of the Eastern Bloc	35
The Iron Curtain Speech and Truman Doctrine	35
The Marshall Plan	36
Stalin's reaction: Cominform and Comecon	37
The Berlin Blockade and Airlift	38

#### Part two: The development of the Cold War

The communist revolution in China	39
The Korean War	40
The Vietnam War	41
NATO and the Warsaw Pact	42
The space race	43
The arms race	44
The Hungarian Uprising	45

The U2 Crisis and the Paris Peace Summit	46
The Berlin Wall	47-48

**Part three: Transformation of the Cold War**

Tensions over Cuba: The Bay of Pigs	49
The Cuban Missile Crisis	50-51
The Soviet Invasion of Czechoslovakia (The Prague Spring)	52-53
Détente and the end of tensions	54-55
Glossary	56

GCSE History AQA 2016-18  
 Paper 1: Section A  
 Germany, 1890-1945: Democracy and dictatorship

Topic	I can explain.....	Red	Amber	Green
<b>Part one: Germany and the growth of democracy</b>				
Kaiser Wilhelm and the difficulties of ruling Germany	The growth of parliamentary government and the influence of the Prussian military			
	The Kaiser's Navy Laws			
	Impact of the First World War			
Impact of the First World War	Economic problems and defeat			
	The abdication of the Kaiser			
	Treaty of Versailles including reparations			
Weimar democracy	Invasion of the Ruhr and Hyperinflation			
	The Weimar constitution			
	Political unrest including; the Spartacists, Kapp Putsch and Munich Putsch			
	The rule of Gustav Stresemann			
	Weimar culture and the golden twenties			

Topic	I can explain.....	Red	Amber	Green
<b>Part two: Germany and the depression</b>				
The impact of the depression	Growth in support for the Nazis			
	Role of the SA			
	The appeal of Hitler himself			
The failure of Weimar democracy	Nazi election results			
	The political deal with Papen and Hindenburg			
	How Hitler became Chancellor in 1932			
The establishment of Hitler's dictatorship	The Reichstag Fire			
	The Enabling Act and the elimination of political opposition			
	The SA and the Night of the Long Knives			
	How Hitler became Dictator in 1934			

Topic	I can explain.....	Red	Amber	Green
<b><i>Part three: The experiences of Germans under the Nazis</i></b>				
<b>Economic changes</b>	Benefits and drawbacks to economic policy			
	How the Nazis reduced unemployment			
	The impact of war on the economy			
<b>Social policy and practise</b>	Impact on the lives of women			
	Impact on the lives of young people			
	Control of churches and religion			
	Racial policy and persecution of the Jews / the Final Solution			
<b>Nazi control</b>	Joseph Goebbels and the use of propaganda			
	Heinrich Himmler and the terror state			
	Opposition and resistance to Nazi rule			



# Kaiser Wilhelm II and the difficulties of ruling Germany



## RECAP

When Germany was unified as a nation in 1871, the king of the most powerful state, Prussia, became its new ruler, or **Kaiser**.

## Parliamentary government

▼ **Kaiser**: ruled over all the states of Germany.

**Chancellor** (chief minister) and ministers advised Kaiser.

**Bundesrat**: made up of representatives from each state.

**Reichstag**: parliament elected by men over 25.

Both debated and voted on laws drawn up by the Kaiser and ministers.

**Kaiser**: could ignore government advice and make his own decisions. He made all military and foreign policy decisions.

## Growth of socialism

Many workers were unhappy with low wages and poor working conditions.

Workers joined **trade unions** and **organised strikes** hoping to force the government to improve pay and working conditions. By 1914 over three million workers had joined trade unions.

A new political party – the **Social Democratic Party (SPD)** – became popular among the workers.

- It believed in **socialism** – power and wealth should be shared equally among the people.
- It hoped that the Kaiser might allow the Reichstag to make more social reforms or laws to improve workers' rights and conditions.
- It disagreed with the power and privileged positions held by land and factory owners.
- Around one in three Germans voted for this political party at this time.

Some socialists took a more **extreme** view: they wanted to rebel against the Kaiser's rule, start a revolution and allow cities and towns to be governed by councils of workers.

## Kaiser Wilhelm II

Spent most of his youth in the army



Keen to maintain a powerful army and build up a large navy

Took great pride in leading the army and was very interested in military tactics

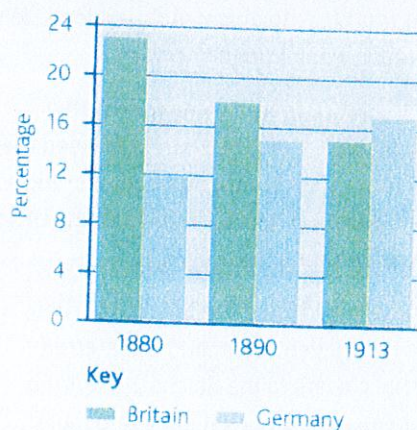
Was from **Prussia**; **militarism** – the belief that a country should have strong armed forces – was important to Prussia; Prussian generals, army officers and tactics formed the basis of the new united German army

Wanted Germany to be a **global power** and have an empire to rival Britain's; this idea was called **Weltpolitik** – 'world policy'

## Industrialisation

In the late 1800s, Germany began to **industrialise**. Supported by powerful German businessmen, production of iron and coal doubled. By 1913, Germany was producing

as much coal as Britain and more iron and steel. By 1914, Germany produced two-thirds of Europe's steel. In industries such as electrical goods and chemicals, German companies dominated Europe. Some leading factory and business owners had become very rich and influential.



Percentage share of world industrial production

# Navy laws

## What?

Between 1898 and 1912 a series of **Navy Laws** were introduced. As a result, a huge amount of money was spent to rapidly increase the size of the navy. The army expanded in size too.



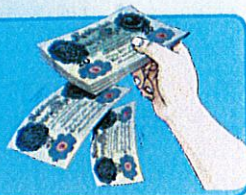
## Why?

The Kaiser wanted a large navy to help him take over more countries and protect those already in the German Empire.



## How?

Taxes were increased and money was borrowed to pay for this. Germany would remain in debt for a very long time.



## SUMMARY

- Germany's Kaiser was extremely powerful and could make his own decisions.
- From the late 1800s, Germany's economy expanded as it industrialised. By 1914 it was a world economic power.
- Germany's working class grew as Germany industrialised, but their pay and conditions were poor.
- The new Social Democratic Party (SPD) became popular with workers. It wanted social reforms to improve workers' rights and conditions.
- The Kaiser wanted to expand the German Empire, so he introduced Navy Laws (1898–1912) and used borrowed money to increase the army and navy.

## Timeline: Germany's reactions during the war



### ▼ In 1914

- The war was popular and patriotic Germans thought it would end quickly.
- Soon the British navy stopped ships getting food into Germany, leading to food and other shortages.

### ▼ In 1915–16

- In Germany, protesters demanded an end to the war. Demonstrations increased from 500 to 10,000 people. War weariness increased.
- On the front line, soldiers were worn down by bombs, gas and machine gun fire.

### ▼ Politically unstable

- Germany was close to defeat. A flu epidemic killed many already weak from a poor diet.
- In October, Army General Ludendorff stated Germany could not win the war. He advised the Kaiser to make the country more democratic so the winning Allies (France, Britain and the USA) would treat Germany more fairly.
- The Kaiser allowed the main political parties to form a new government, and transferred some of his powers to the Reichstag. But the German people were not satisfied and more demonstrations followed.

## Defeat and the end of the monarchy

**28 October 1918:** The German navy in Kiel **mutinied**. The mutiny spread. Soldiers sent to deal with the protests also joined the sailors and workers. In just six days, workers' and soldiers' councils were governing towns and cities all over Germany. The Kaiser realised he had lost control. His army generals refused to support him.

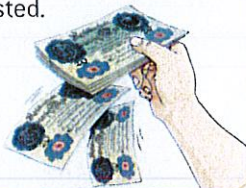
**9 November 1918:** The Kaiser **abdicated** and secretly left Germany, never to return. Friedrich Ebert, the leader of Germany's largest political party (the SPD), took over Germany temporarily. He promised to hold elections and ended the war.

**11 November 1918:** Germany surrendered. The First World War was over.

## Impact of the war on Germany by 1918

### Virtually bankrupt

- Owed vast sums of money that it had borrowed to pay for the war.
- Lent some of its own money to its allies.
- Factories were exhausted.
- War pensions would cost the government a fortune.



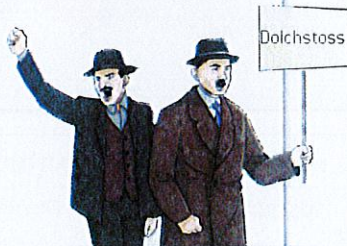
### Society divided further

- Some factory owners had made a fortune during the war, while workers had restrictions placed on their wages.
- Women worked in the factories during the war. Some people thought this damaged traditional family values.



### Politically unstable

- There was mutiny and revolution all over Germany.
- Many ex-soldiers and civilians felt that politicians had betrayed Germany by ending the war.



## The Weimar Republic

Temporary leader Ebert declared that Germany would be a **democratic republic** and arranged for elections for a new parliament to take place in January. A group of **Communists** in Germany, known as **Spartacists**, wanted Germany to be run by small councils of soldiers and workers. On 6 January 1919, the Spartacists seized power in Berlin.

Ebert sent in a group of 2000 tough ex-soldiers, known as the Free Corps (Freikorps), to attack the Spartacists.

After three days of brutal street fighting, the Free Corps recaptured buildings and arrested (and later killed) the Spartacist leaders.

Ebert then held the elections and his own party, the SPD, won most votes and Ebert became the new German President.

By now, the politicians were meeting away from the violence in Berlin in another German town called Weimar. They created the Weimar Constitution, which was a formal set of rules for how Germany would be governed. From this time, until the Nazi takeover, Germany was known as the **Weimar Republic**.

In Weimar's new **constitution**, which was a set of rules by which Germany was governed, all Germans had equal rights, including the right to vote.

## What were the weaknesses of the Weimar Constitution?



**Proportional representation** meant that lots of different political parties were able to win some seats in the Reichstag, but it was difficult for one party to get a majority. The leading party had to deal with smaller groups in order to get anything done. This made law-making a very slow process.



Many groups didn't like this new democratic system of governing at all. Some older army generals, judges, upper-class families, rich factory owners and university professors longed for the 'good old days' when the Kaiser ruled Germany.



The new system of government and the politicians who created it were linked to Germany's defeat at the end of the First World War. Some Germans used the term 'November Criminals' to describe these politicians.

The constitution also contained **Article 48**, which meant that laws could be passed without the Reichstag by order of the President.

# The main political parties in early Weimar Germany

Names are in English but they have been given their German initials:

Political party:	Communist Party (KPD)	Social Democratic Party (SPD)	German Democratic Party (DDP)	Centre Party (Zentrum)	People's Party (DVP)	National People's Party (DNVP)	National Socialist German Workers' Party (NSDAP or Nazis)
Supporters:	Vast majority were working class	Mostly working class	Middle class, for example lawyers, writers	Catholics from all classes (southern Germany was mainly Catholic)	Middle class, mainly businessmen	Middle and upper classes, some ex-soldiers	Unemployed, many ex-soldiers; some support from middle and upper classes who feared communists

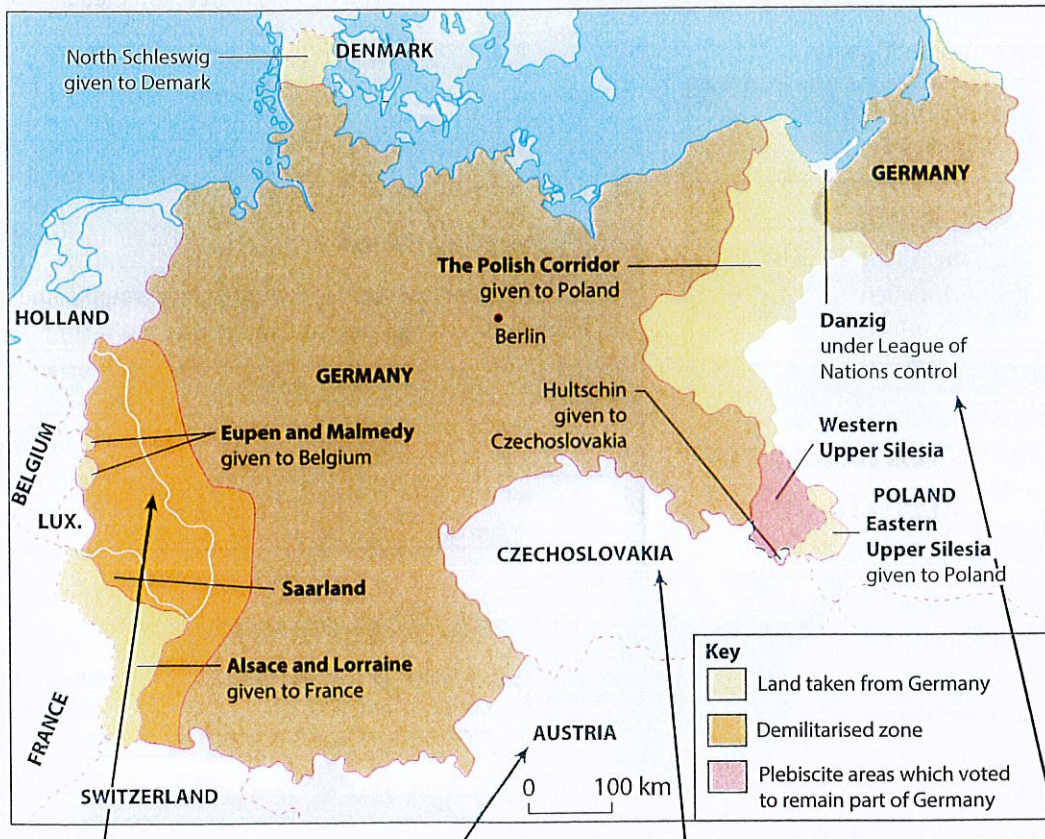
## The Treaty of Versailles, 1919

The Treaty of Versailles was a list of punishments, instructions and orders that Germany had to follow because it lost the war. The Treaty stated:

The war was Germany's fault, so Germany must pay for the war cost of the war (which was later set at £6.6 billion).

Germany should only have a small army, a small navy, and no submarines, tanks or air force.

Germany must hand over its colonies abroad to the winning countries.



No German soldiers should enter the Rhineland, an area of Germany next to France.

Germany must never unite with Austria again.

Large areas of German land are to be used to create new countries for people who had previously been ruled by others (such as Poland and Czechoslovakia).

Germans hated the Treaty for three main reasons:

- 1 They felt it was too **harsh**. The Treaty took away large areas of land which meant losing people, factories, farms and mines. They had to pay a large amount of money to the winners too. Many Germans felt humiliated.
- 2 They were ordered to sign the Treaty, without discussion. They called it a '*diktat*' – a dictated peace.
- 3 Many Germans felt that they had not really lost the war at all! Instead, Germany's new politicians had **betrayed** the country by asking for a ceasefire when the Kaiser left Germany in November 1918. Some Germans, including soldiers, thought Germany could have carried on fighting, but was betrayed by the politicians who ended the war. Field Marshal Hindenburg said at the time, 'The German army was stabbed in the back. No blame is to be attached to the army. It is perfectly clear on whom the blame rests.'

## Reparations

In the Treaty of Versailles, Germany was ordered to pay **reparations** (payments for damages caused by the war) to the winning countries:

- In 1921, the figure was set at 132 billion gold marks (or £6.6 billion) to be paid in yearly instalments for the next 66 years.
- Later that year, the German government scraped together their first instalment of two billion gold marks and handed it over to France and Belgium. Some of the payment was in gold, but most of it was in goods like coal, iron and wood.





## Occupation of the Ruhr, 1922

- In 1922, when the next payment was due, the Germans announced that they could not afford to pay.
- The French and Belgians didn't believe them and decided to take what they were owed by force.
- In January 1923, 60,000 French and Belgian soldiers marched into the **Ruhr**, a rich, industrial area of Germany. They took control of every factory, mine and railway in the region. They also took food and goods from shops and arrested any Germans who stood up to them.



## Hyperinflation, 1923

- The German government ordered its workers in the Ruhr to go on strike and not help the French and Belgian soldiers remove goods from the country. This was known as passive resistance. The German government continued paying the workers on strike.
- The German government printed large amounts of money to pay striking workers and to pay the money they owed France and Belgium. This caused lots of problems. As workers spent money in the shops, shopkeepers began to put up their prices.
- The German government printed even more money to help workers buy products, so shops raised their prices again.
- Soon prices were inflating so fast that it became known as **hyperinflation**.

Year	Price of a loaf of bread	Price of one egg
1914		
1918	0.6 marks	0.9 marks
1923: Sept	1.5 million marks	4 million marks
1923: Nov	201 billion marks	320 billion marks

## SUMMARY

What impact did the First World War (1914–18) have on Germany?

- It led immediately to mutiny in the navy and to the abdication of the Kaiser (9 November 1918).
- Germany became a democratic republic. The Weimar Constitution had both strengths and weaknesses.
- Weimar politicians ('November Criminals') were criticised by many for both surrendering in November 1918 and accepting the punishments in the Treaty of Versailles (June 1919).
- The reparations demanded as part of the Treaty crippled Germany. It could not afford to pay them.
- The demands of the reparation payments led directly to the hyperinflation crisis (1923).

# Weimar democracy

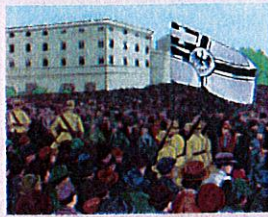


## RECAP

### Political change and unrest, 1919–23

There were many murders, rebellions and uprisings against the Weimar government in the years immediately after the First World War.

#### The Kapp Putsch



When?



In March 1920, **right-wing** politician and journalist **Wolfgang Kapp** gathered around 5000 men (Free Corps), mainly police and ex-soldiers, and took over the capital, Berlin.

Why?



He wanted to take over the whole country and recover the land lost in the Treaty of Versailles.

What happened?



President Ebert and the government fled Berlin. However, Kapp didn't have the workers' support and they went on strike, resulting in no gas, water, electricity or trains.

Result



After only 100 hours as Germany's leader, Kapp fled abroad. Ebert and his government returned to Berlin.

#### Assassinations



When?



Between 1919 and 1922, there were over 350 political murders in Germany, mostly carried out by right-wing extremists.

Why?



They wanted to eliminate those who were responsible for the Treaty of Versailles.

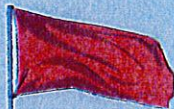
What happened?



In August 1921 Matthias Erzberger, the man who signed the armistice in 1918, was shot dead by a right-wing group. They also killed Foreign Minister Walter Rathenau, and threw acid on Philipp Scheidemann, an important Weimar politician.

#### Murder, riots and rebellions, 1919–23

#### Red Rising in the Ruhr



When?



In March 1920, after the Kapp Putsch, **left-wing** workers in the industrial Ruhr stayed on strike.

What happened?



They took over several towns in what is known as the Red Rising.

Result



The government sent soldiers and some Free Corps units to deal with the rebellion. Over 1000 workers were killed.

#### The Munich Putsch



When?



In November 1923, Hitler and the Nazis tried to seize control of the Bavarian government in southern Germany.

Why?



Hitler promised to overturn the Treaty of Versailles, destroy communism and restore Germany's national glory.

How?



He planned to capture Munich and march on Berlin. Key Bavarian politicians at a Munich beer hall refused to support his plan to march on Berlin. Hitler pressed on with his plans nevertheless.

What happened?



As Hitler and about 2000 supporters marched through Munich, they were met by armed police. Three policemen and 16 Nazis died in a short gun battle.

Result



Hitler and Ludendorff (a former First World War general who was now a Nazi supporter) were arrested.

## The Stresemann era (1924–29)

Between 1924 and 1929 Germany began to recover from some of its problems, and most historians put Germany's recovery down to the hard work of one man – Gustav Stresemann. Stresemann is best known as Germany's Foreign Minister from 1924 until his death in 1929. These are the main problems he faced – and how he dealt with them:

### The hyperinflation crisis

He stopped the printing of bank notes and replaced the worthless notes with a temporary, new currency called the Rentenmark. In 1924 this was replaced by the Reichsmark, a stable currency that remained for the next 25 years. Hyperinflation ended. However, people who had lost their savings never got their money back, and blamed Stresemann.



### French and Belgian troops in the Ruhr

He arranged for the USA to lend money to Germany (800 million gold marks). Germany then re-started its reparation payments. This 'deal' was known as the **Dawes Plan**. The French and Belgian troops left the Ruhr. However, some Germans felt Stresemann should have demanded a complete end to reparations. In 1929, through the **Young Plan**, Stresemann negotiated a reduction in the total payment.



### Economic recovery

As well as using some of the borrowed American money to pay reparations, Stresemann also used it to build new factories, houses, schools and roads. This meant more jobs, with Germans earning more money. Slowly, Germany became more prosperous. However, some, even Stresemann himself, feared that Germany relied too much on the American loans.



### Foreign policy

He worked hard to improve Germany's relationships with other nations.



- In 1925, Germany signed the **Locarno Pact** with Britain, France, Belgium and Italy. They promised never to invade each other.
- In 1926, Germany joined the **League of Nations**, an international peacekeeping organisation that Germany had been banned from when it was set up in 1919.
- In 1928, Germany signed the **Kellogg-Briand Pact**. The participating countries agreed never to go to war, unless in defence.
- Germany regained its international status and became an important part of the League of Nations. However, some Germans criticised Stresemann for not demanding back some of the land taken by the Treaty of Versailles.

## Ongoing problems

Stresemann died in 1929. Germany had begun a new era of peace and prosperity under his leadership. However, there were still some underlying problems:

- There were many political parties. A government was made by several parties joining together. But they disagreed and wasted time arguing over decisions.
- Extreme political parties, e.g. the Nazis and the communists, did not support the Weimar system.
- Large groups of Germans were poor, e.g. farmers and middle classes who had lost their savings in the hyperinflation of 1923.
- German prosperity was built on American loans. What if they wanted their money back?

## Weimar culture in the 1920s

The 1920s have been called a 'golden age' for German artists, writers, poets and performers, who became known for their creativity and innovation. Before the First World War, the Kaiser kept tight control on all types of entertainment – but these controls were removed in Weimar Germany. Many people decided to experiment and try new things.

### SUMMARY

- There were many murders, rebellions and uprisings against the Weimar government immediately after the First World War. The reasons varied – from disgust with the Weimar government for agreeing to the armistice in 1918 to unhappiness with the government because it was seen as ineffective.
- In 1924 Weimar politician Stresemann began to successfully tackle some of the economic, social and political problems.
- The 1920s were a cultural 'golden age' with key developments in the arts, literature and design.

### Cinema



Cinema became very popular. *Metropolis*, directed by Fritz Lang, was the most technically advanced film of the decade. German-born actress Marlene Dietrich became a global star playing glamorous, strong-willed women.

### Nightlife



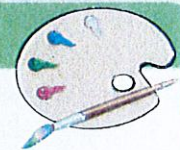
Germany became a centre for new plays, operas and shows. Musicians performed vulgar songs, about politicians, that would have been banned under the Kaiser. Berlin was famous for its nightclubs with live bands that played American jazz.

### Literature



People had 120 newspapers and magazines to choose from. A German anti-war novel, *All Quiet on the Western Front* by Erich Remarque, became a bestseller.

### Art and design



**Avant-garde** artists such as Otto Dix and George Grosz believed art should show the reality of everyday life, in particular the differences between social classes. In design and architecture, a new group of designers known as the **Bauhaus** believed in modern, practical designs.

## Reactions to the changes

While some Germans embraced the changes, others hated them. They wanted culture to celebrate traditional German values. They thought the new nightclubs, shows and paintings were leading Germany into a moral decline.



# The impact of the Depression



## RECAP

### What was the Depression?

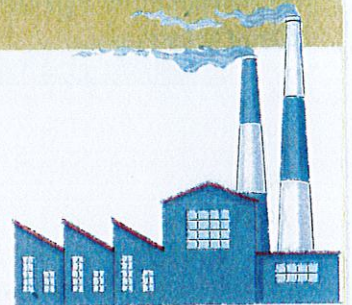
From 1924 onwards, foreign banks, especially American ones, lent huge amounts of money to Germany to build factories and businesses. This created more jobs, more money and a better standard of living.

In October 1929 a financial crisis, known as the **Wall Street Crash**, hit the USA. American companies and banks went out of business, and millions lost their jobs. This soon became known as the **Depression**.

### The impact on Germany

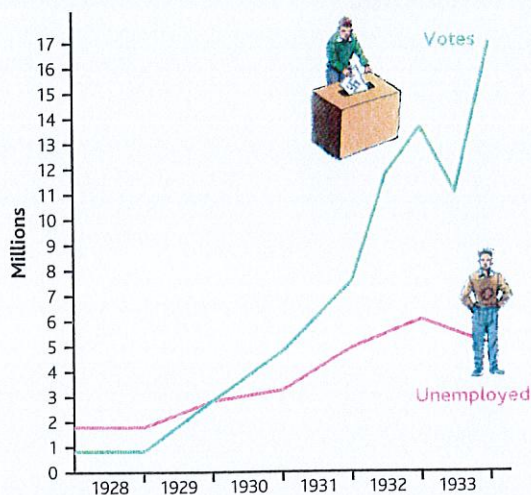
#### Economic

- Americans had bought many German goods such as cars, electrical equipment and clothing. But they couldn't afford these things any more because of the Depression, so German factories shut down. Millions lost their jobs.
- Troubled US banks demanded back the money they had lent to Germany after the First World War. German banks tried to reclaim this money from German businesses. They could not pay, and went bankrupt.



#### Political

- People listened to different, often extreme, political parties (like left-wing communists and right-wing Nazis) that promised **radical** solutions to Germany's problems and ways of improving their lives.
- In the 1930 election, the communists increased their number of seats in the Reichstag to 77 (from 54). Nazi support increased from 12 seats in 1928 to 107 seats in 1930.



#### Social

- Many people were soon living on the streets – jobless, hungry and angry at their political leaders who they blamed for their problems.



# Reasons for the growth of the Nazi Party

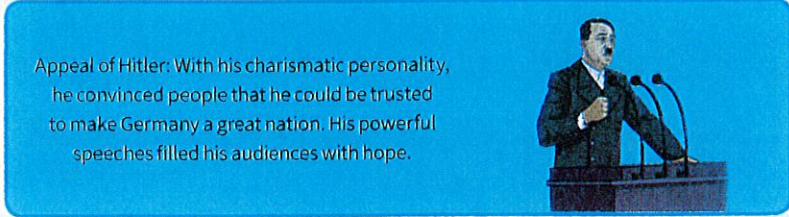
In four years, the Nazi Party went from being the eighth most popular party in Germany to the most popular. In 1928 they won only 800,000 votes. In July 1932, they won nearly 14 million votes. The following diagram explores the factors (reasons) for this rise in popularity.



Why did the Nazis become so popular?



Discontent with the Weimar government: Weimar politicians couldn't agree how to help the unemployed and get Germany out of the Depression. Several different Chancellors were appointed by President Hindenburg (first Müller, then Brüning) but they made little impact. Many ordinary Germans felt that the democratic system wasn't working.

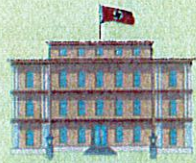


Appeal of Hitler: With his charismatic personality, he convinced people that he could be trusted to make Germany a great nation. His powerful speeches filled his audiences with hope.

Why did the Nazis become so popular?

4 Fear of communism: German communists, such as the Spartacists, had tried to take over in the years after the First World War. This alarmed middle-class and wealthy Germans who didn't want to lose their wealth and position in society. Communists were anti-religion, which worried churchgoers. Hitler said he would fight communism and gained support from the middle and upper classes.

5 Nazi Party structure, methods and tactics: After the failure of the Munich Putsch in 1923, Hitler changed tactics to legally win power in elections:



Nazi Party offices were set up all over Germany to recruit more followers.

The SA (Stormtroopers) protected Hitler's meetings and tried to influence voters at elections.



Hitler took part in mass parades and rallies to display Nazi power.

The Hitler Youth Organisation was set up to encourage younger followers.



The Nazis used new media like radio and cinema news reports, bought newspapers and printed millions of leaflets and posters to reach a wide audience. Joseph Goebbels, one of Hitler's most loyal followers, was put in charge of propaganda from 1928 to spread the Nazi message.

# Who voted for the Nazis?

## Farmers

- The Depression hit farmers hard and the Weimar government offered little help.
- The Nazis promised them higher prices for crops, a better quality of life and higher status in society.
- Nazi opposition to communists appealed to farmers – if the communists took over they would seize farmers' land.



## Women

- The Nazis targeted women voters by saying that family life, good morals and self-discipline were important.
- Some women agreed with Hitler's view that Weimar culture had been a bad influence on the young.



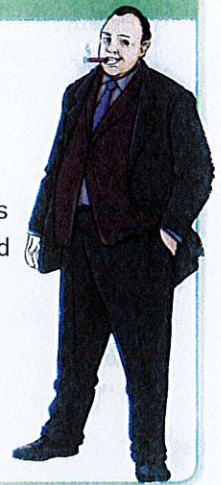
## Middle classes

- The middle class – people such as small business owners, doctors, bank workers and managers – feared that law and order might break down during the Depression.
- They worried that a communist takeover could destroy their way of life.
- The Nazis promised to deal with problems decisively and the SA fought communists.



## Wealthy classes

- The Nazis promised strong leadership to make Germany powerful again.
- Hitler promised to let owners run factories how they wanted, and his plans to build more weapons would be good for manufacturing.
- The communists wanted to take over many businesses, but the Nazis opposed them.



## Youth

- Hitler's promise to tear up the Treaty of Versailles and make the country strong again appealed to young people.
- They wanted to be a part of Germany's bright future and get jobs in the armed forces or building new homes, motorways and hospitals.



## SUMMARY

- The economic Depression, which began in America in 1929, affected many countries all over the world.
- Between 1928 and 1930, German unemployment rose from 2.5 to 4 million. By 1932 it was six million.
- Millions felt the Weimar government was doing little to deal with the crisis. Support for the more extreme political parties (like left-wing communists and right-wing Nazis) grew because they promised to solve Germany's problems.
- A number of other factors meant that support for the Nazi Party grew very quickly at this time.
- The Nazis appealed to a wide variety of people, including the unemployed, farmers, business owners and the middle classes.

# The failure of Weimar democracy



## RECAP

Political instability grew as the Depression worsened. As parties rarely won a majority in Weimar Germany, they usually got together to form a **coalition** government from which a Chancellor was chosen. Such coalitions were mostly ineffective and the President could use Article 48 of the Constitution to appoint a new Chancellor in emergencies.

## Hitler's road to power

### September 1930 Reichstag election

- No party won a majority so a coalition was formed.
- Nazis gained 107 seats to be the second largest party.
- Heinrich Brüning of the Centre Party became Chancellor. He was unpopular for cutting unemployment pay and raising taxes.

#### The September 1930 Reichstag election results

Party	Seats won
Social Democratic Party (SPD)	143
Nazi Party	107
Communist Party (KPD)	77
Centre Party (Zentrum)	68

### Hitler builds on success

#### 1932 presidential election

Paul von Hindenburg	X
Adolf Hitler	

- Nazis put up millions of posters and flags, and Hitler gave speeches at mass rallies – huge meetings – across Germany.
- Hitler's private army, the SA, beat up communists and disrupted their meetings, making it hard for them to campaign.
- Many Germans felt the chaos, violence and unstable governments proved that the Weimar government was failing.
- In March 1932 Hitler challenged Hindenburg for the presidency. He won an impressive 13.4 million votes against Hindenburg's 19.3 million.

### July 1932 Reichstag election

- Brüning resigned in July 1932 and Hindenburg appointed another Centre Party politician, Franz von Papen.
- Von Papen lacked support, so he called an election.
- The results were astonishing: the Nazis were now the largest political party.

#### The July 1932 Reichstag election results

Party	Seats won
Nazi Party	230
Social Democratic Party (SPD)	133
Centre Party (Zentrum)	97
Communist Party (KPD)	89

### Another new Chancellor

- As a result of his success, Hitler demanded the Chancellor's job.
- Hindenburg refused because he thought the Nazis were a disruptive party and used his emergency powers to give the job to von Papen again.
- Von Papen called another election in November 1932. While votes for the Nazis fell slightly, they were still the largest party.
- Von Papen's Centre Party got fewer seats too, so he resigned again.

### Hitler becomes Chancellor

- Hindenburg made his old friend Kurt von Schleicher Chancellor, but he had little support, so resigned.
- On 30 January 1933, Hindenburg had little choice but to appoint Hitler as Chancellor.
- He tried to limit Hitler's power by appointing von Papen as Vice Chancellor and only allowing Hitler to have two other Nazis in the cabinet.
- Hindenburg and his advisers thought they would be able to control Hitler.



# The establishment of Hitler's dictatorship



## RECAP

### Elimination of political opposition

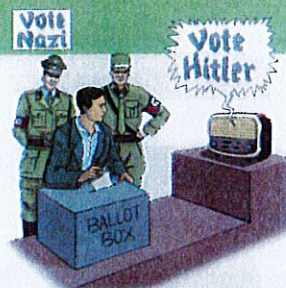
As Chancellor, Hitler was not in complete control. President Hindenburg could easily have replaced him. Also, Germany was a democracy, so Hitler could only make laws with the Reichstag's approval – and over half of the Reichstag politicians didn't belong to the Nazi Party. However, Hitler quickly moved to increase his power and establish complete control of Germany.

#### Timeline



##### February 1933

- Hitler called a new election for March 1933, hoping to get a majority. He now had greater influence over many newspapers and radio stations. He used his control of the police to intimidate voters and beat up opponents.



##### 27 February 1933

- A week before voting day, the Reichstag burned down. Hitler blamed it on a communist plot to take over Germany.



##### 28 February 1933

- Hitler asked Hindenburg to pass an emergency 'Protection Law', giving Hitler the power to deal with Germany's problems. Because of the Reichstag fire and the apparent communist plot, Hindenburg agreed.

##### March 1933

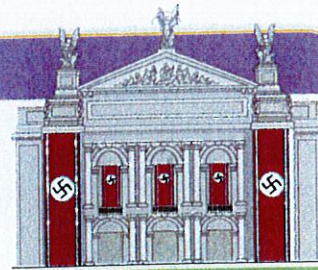
- The new law, the **Decree for the Protection of the People and the State**, banned leading communists from taking part in the election campaign. Four thousand communists were jailed and their newspapers banned. In the election on 5 March, the Nazis got more votes than ever, but still not the majority Hitler desperately wanted!

##### 23 March 1933

- Centre Party politicians joined the Nazis. Hitler now had his majority. Many Centre Party politicians were bullied into passing the **Enabling Act** – he could make laws without approval from the rest of the Reichstag.

▼ 7 April 1933

- Nazis were put in charge of all local government, councils and the police. The **Gestapo** (secret police) was formed. The first **concentration camp** for political prisoners was opened in Dachau, southern Germany.



▼ 2 May 1933

- Hitler banned all trade unions.

▼ 14 July 1933

- Hitler banned all political parties except the Nazis. The **Law Against the Formation of New Parties** banned the establishment of new ones. Germany was now a one-party state.

Voting Paper - July 1933  
Put a cross next to who you want to run the country.

Nazis	<input type="checkbox"/>
People's Party	<input type="checkbox"/>
Centre Party	<input type="checkbox"/>
Democrat	<input type="checkbox"/>
Social Democrats	<input type="checkbox"/>
Communists	<input type="checkbox"/>

▼ 2 August 1934

- Hitler murdered his opponents in the SA during the **Night of the Long Knives** in June 1934. When Hindenburg died, Hitler immediately took over as President while remaining Chancellor. He made the army swear an **oath of loyalty** to him, and not to the country. Hitler decided to be called **Der Führer** – the leader.

## The Night of the Long Knives

Hitler dealt ruthlessly with the problem of Rohm and the SA in a series of bloody events on 30 June 1934. This became known as the Night of the Long Knives:



Hitler arranged a meeting at a hotel in Bavaria, southern Germany, with SA leaders on 30 June 1934.

Shortly before dawn, Hitler and an assassination squad from the **SS** (his bodyguards, the black-uniformed **Schutzstaffel**) stormed into the hotel and arrested Rohm and other SA leaders. They were later shot dead.

Over the next few days around 400 political opponents were executed, including ex-Chancellor von Schleicher.

## Impact of the Night of the Long Knives

- **Rivals dead:** Many of those who Hitler regarded as a threat were now dead, including Rohm and all the leading Nazis who didn't agree with Hitler.
- **Rise of SS:** The SS, led by Heinrich Himmler, was now responsible for Hitler's security, not the SA. Along with the Gestapo, the SS now formed the basis of the 'police state'. The SA remained but was never again a major force.
- **Rule of murder:** Hitler did not hide what he had done. His acts established murder as a method of the Nazi government.

## The SA – from help to hindrance

- Had protected Hitler from harm and beaten up his opponents.
- Many SA members were violent thugs who wanted well-paid jobs as a reward now that Hitler was in power.
- Their leader was **Ernst Rohm**. Hitler worried that Rohm was becoming too powerful. The SA already had more members than the German army.
- Rohm wanted to combine the SA and the army, and control both himself.
- This alarmed Hitler and the army leaders. Hitler needed to keep the army leaders happy: he would need them to get back the land Germany lost in the Treaty of Versailles.

# Economic changes in Nazi Germany



## RECAP

### Back to work

Over six million Germans were out of work when Hitler came to power in 1933. The Nazis set up a number of schemes, programmes and organisations to get Germans back to work.

#### The National Labour Service (RAD)

- All men aged between 18 and 25 had to spend six months in the RAD.
- They planted forests, mended hedges and dug drainage ditches on farms.
- They wore uniforms and lived in camps, but were given free meals and a small wage.



#### Public Work Schemes

- A new network of autobahns (motorways) to link Germany's major towns and cities was built.
- This gave work to nearly 100,000 people.
- New schools and hospitals were built, creating even more jobs.

#### 'Invisible' unemployment

The Nazis used a variety of other methods to reduce unemployment figures:

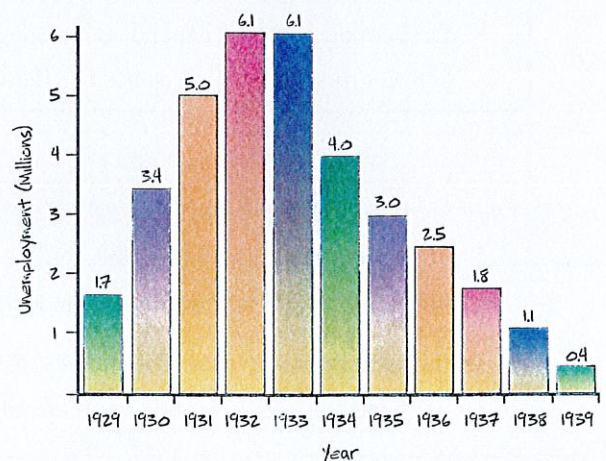
- Women who gave up work to have a family did not count in the official figures.
- Part-time workers were counted as full-time.
- The Nazis created jobs by sacking people, such as Jews, and giving their jobs to non-Jews. These out-of-work Jews were not counted in jobless figures.

#### Rearmament

- The Nazis ordered the **rearmament** of Germany to rebuild its armed forces.
- New tanks, battleships, fighter planes and guns were built, creating thousands of jobs.
- Huge government arms contracts made factory owners and industrial bosses a fortune.
- Conscription was introduced in 1935. All males aged between 18 and 25 had to join the armed forces for at least two years. Within five years, the army grew from 100,000 to 1,400,000, creating even more jobs.



Nazi policies seemed to be working as unemployment fell steadily:



## Work and control

The Nazis made great efforts both to control workers and to reward high production:

### DAF: *Deutsche Arbeitsfront* (German Labour Front)

- Replaced trade unions.
- Strikes now illegal, workers needed permission to leave jobs.
- Promised to protect workers' rights and improve conditions.
- Ran two schemes to improve Germans' lives: SDA and KDF

### SDA – *Schönheit der Arbeit* (Beauty of Labour):

tried to improve the workplace by installing better lighting, safety equipment, new washrooms, low-cost canteens and sports facilities.

### KDF – *Kraft durch Freude* (Strength through Joy):

organised leisure activities to encourage hard work. Had a reward scheme with cheap holidays, theatre trips and football match tickets if workers met targets.

The DAF also had a scheme to help workers save for a car. Hitler himself helped design an affordable 'People's Car', a Volkswagen. However, despite inspiring many people to work (and save) hard, the scheme was a swindle. No ordinary Germans ever received a car. Instead the money was used to build more weapons.

### Better off or not?

The Nazis provided work – but workers lost their rights because trade unions were banned. Workers could not quit without government permission and strikes were banned.

People could also be forced to work as many hours as the Nazis required. One of the ways the Nazis created jobs was by sacking people, such as Jews.

The KDF did provide rewards for workers, such as holidays – but some holidays were still too expensive for most working-class Germans.

Food also cost more than it used to. Germany was trying to be self-sufficient and not rely on foreign imports. So with less food in the shops, shopkeepers charged more because of the high demand.

## Economic policy

To achieve Hitler's goal of making Germany a powerful nation again, he wanted the Nazis to control the economy and direct all manufacturing, agricultural and industrial production. How would the Nazis achieve this?

### The economy under Schacht

Respected banker Hjalmar Schacht was appointed Minister of Economics.

- He realised that imports of raw materials, such as iron, steel, rubber and wood, were needed to build more weapons.
- He signed deals with countries in South America and south-east Europe to supply raw materials in return for German goods.
- For a short time, things went well – weapons production increased and unemployment fell.
- But Germany was still dependent on foreign raw materials and the changes were too slow for the impatient Hitler.
- Schacht was sacked and replaced by Hermann Goering.

### The economy under Goering

- In 1936 Goering introduced a **Four Year Plan** to increase military production.
- High targets were set (and met) in industries like steel and the production of explosives.
- However, targets were not met in other key industries like oil production.
- Germany still needed foreign raw materials so Goering tried to make Germany **self-sufficient**.



## Self-sufficiency

The Nazis hoped to stop being reliant on foreign goods by making Germany self-sufficient. They would find alternatives to the things the country needed, or develop artificial substitutes.

▼ German scientists found ways to make...



petrol from coal



artificial wool from wood pulp



make-up from flour



coffee from acorns

## The Nazis and farmers

Around 30 percent of the population was involved in agriculture and forestry. Farmers had been important supporters of the Nazis. Although Hitler tried to reward their support by helping them cope with the Depression, his policies had mixed results.

### Good for farmers

- Farmers' taxes were reduced.
- Farmers could not be thrown off their land if they got into debt.
- To keep farms large and controlled by the same families, farmers could not divide land between their children. This was popular with some farmers as it meant farms would be secure for generations.

### Bad for farmers

- Some farmers did not like the law that prevented the division of farms because their children had to look for jobs in cities instead.
- In the late 1930s the Nazis controlled food prices.

## Impact of war

The Second World War (1939–45) went well for Germany to begin with. News from the war zones was always good as German forces won one great battle after another.

However, the war began to go badly for Germany. After defeat at the Battle of Stalingrad in Russia, German forces were pushed back on the Eastern Front. There were defeats elsewhere too, and then America joined on Britain and Russia's side. By the beginning of 1944, Germany was facing defeat and life at home had become very hard for ordinary Germans.

### Hardship on the home front

#### Rationing

Supplies were needed for the soldiers, so there were severe food shortages:



- By November 1939, food and clothing were rationed. People were limited to one egg per week.
- Goods like soap and toilet paper were in very short supply.
- Hot water was rationed to two days per week.

#### Total War

In 1942, Albert Speer was made Armaments Minister. He organised the country for **Total War**: everything was focused on making weapons and growing food for soldiers. Anything that didn't contribute to the war was stopped:

- Beer halls (pubs), dance halls and sweet shops were closed.
- Letter boxes were boarded up.
- Factories stayed open longer.

#### Labour shortages



- Women were drafted in to work in factories as men were fighting the war.
- By 1944, around seven million foreign workers had been brought in to work as slave labour in the factories. They came from the countries Germany had conquered.

#### Bombing and refugees



From 1942, Britain and America began bombing German cities. As a result:

- There was **no electricity, water or transport** in many German cities.
- Thousands lost their homes.
- Thousands more left their homes to find **safety as refugees**.

#### SUMMARY

- The Nazis introduced a number of schemes, programmes and organisations to get Germans back to work.
- The German Labour Front (DAF) replaced trade unions. The SDA and the KDF attempted to improve the lives of German workers.
- The Nazis were determined to rearm Germany and make it self-sufficient. Great effort went into this, led by economist Hjalmar Schacht and later, Hermann Goering.
- The Nazis tried to reward farmers and save them from the worst effects of the Depression.
- The Second World War went well for Germany to begin with. The impact was felt strongly later in the war and ordinary Germans suffered with rationing, labour shortages and bombing.

# Social policy and practice in Nazi Germany



## RECAP

### The Nazis and young people

The Nazis went to great lengths to control every aspect of young people's lives both in school and out. They believed that if young people were brought up to believe in Nazi ideas, they would become good Nazis who would never rebel against the regime.

#### Schools

- Teachers had to join the German Teachers League and teach what the Nazis wanted, or be sacked.
- Every subject was used to put forward Nazi propaganda and beliefs. So, in History, students learned how badly Germany was treated at the end of the First World War.
- Textbooks were rewritten to present Nazi beliefs as facts.
- Race Studies ('**Eugenics**'), was taught. Students were taught that the **Aryan** race was superior to others.
- PE became very important to prepare boys for the army. Girls studied domestic skills such as cooking and sewing to prepare them for their roles as wives and mothers.
- Students identified as potential future Nazi leaders were sent to special academies known as '**Napolas**' (National Political Educational Institutions).

#### Education under the Nazis

#### Universities

- Universities had to change their courses to reflect what the Nazis believed.
- Top university professors were hand-picked by the Nazis.
- Many lecturers were sacked, either for racial or political reasons. By 1939, over 3000 had been dismissed.
- All students had to train as soldiers for a month each year.
- The Nazis did not regard university education as particularly important, and fewer Germans attended university during the Nazi era.



# Hitler Youth Organisation

As part of his campaign to **indoctrinate** the young with Nazi beliefs, Hitler set up the Hitler Youth Organisation (HYO).

## Timeline

▼ 1922

- Hitler Youth Organisation founded.

▼ 1933

- All other youth groups banned. Of 7.5 million members, 2.3 million were aged 10–18.

▼ 1939

- Membership made compulsory. Of 8.8 million members, 7.2 million were aged 10–18.

## German boys

- Boys went to Hitler Youth meetings several times a week after school, and to special weekend camps every month.
- They learned how to march, fight with knives, fire a gun and keep fit.
- Activities were based on competition, struggle, heroism and leadership.
- The Nazis wanted to prepare the boys for their future role as soldiers.



## German girls

- For girls the emphasis was on how to keep fit, cook good meals and care for babies, to prepare for motherhood.
- They also went on tough marches and attended weekend camps



# Women in Nazi Germany

The Nazis believed that the role women had to play in society was different, but equally as important, to the role of men.

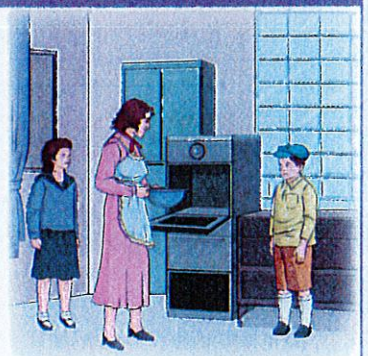
## Women in Weimar Germany

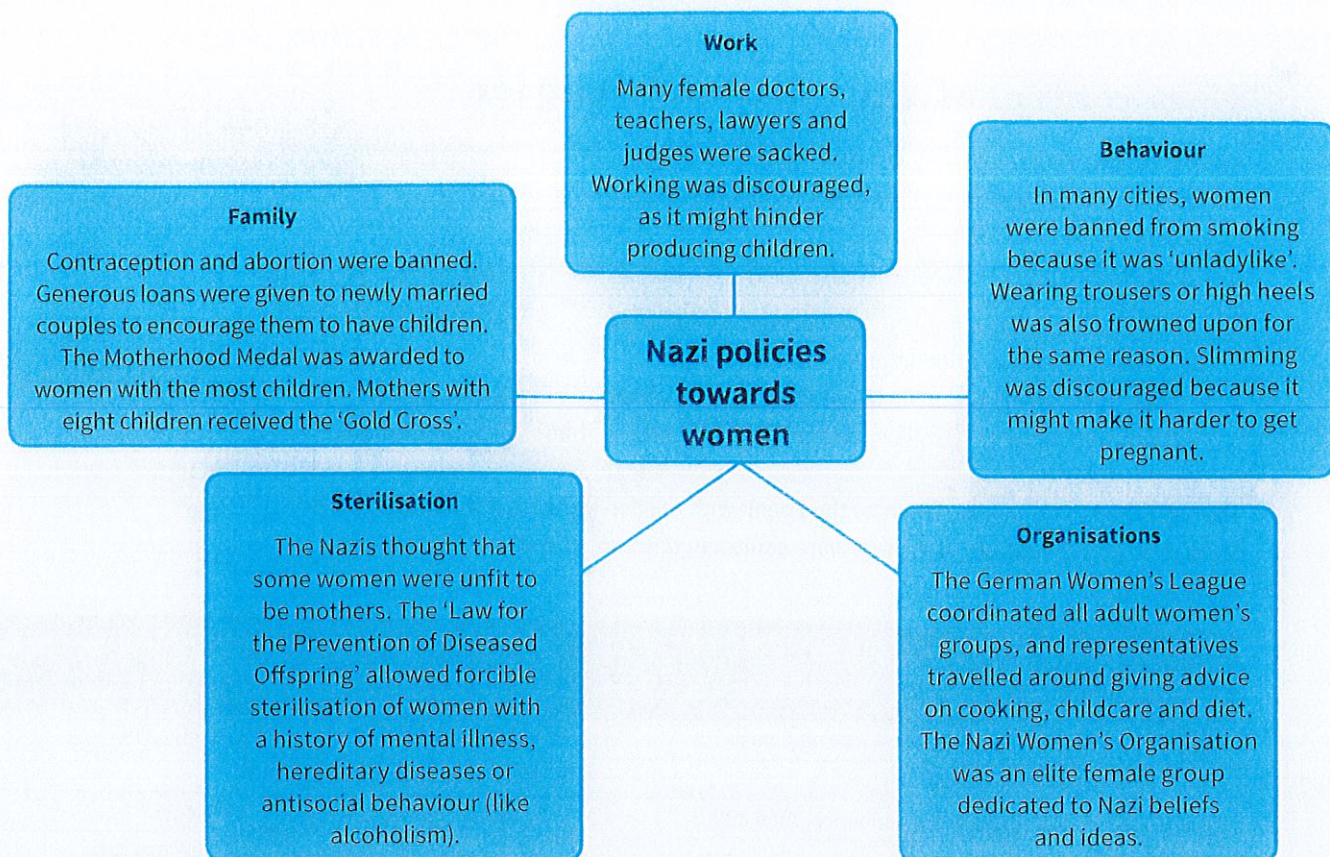
- In the 1920s, German women had many rights and freedoms that women in other countries did not have. For example, they could vote, and if they worked for the government, their pay was equal to men.
- Many women attended university and became lawyers and doctors.
- The birth rate fell as more women worked. In 1900 there had been over two million births per year. In 1933 there were under one million.



## Women in Nazi Germany

- The Nazis were worried about the declining number of births. They felt that a low birth rate and a smaller population didn't fit with their plans to expand Germany's territory and settle Germans in other areas of Europe.
- The Nazis felt it was a woman's patriotic duty to stay at home, have lots of children and support their husbands.
- Women should stick to the three Ks – **Kinder, Kirche and Küche** (children, church and cooking)



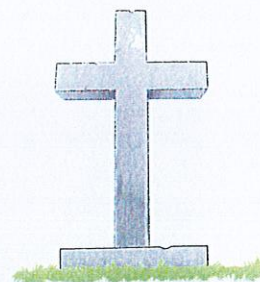


## Impact of the policies

- Thousands of women were prevented from following their chosen career path.
- The birth rate increased – around 970,000 babies were born in 1933, rising to 1,413,000 by 1939.
- When the Second World War started in 1939, there was a labour shortage as men were joining the army. Thousands of women were needed to work in factories for the war effort, taking on the joint role of main wage earner and mother. Unlike in Britain, though, women were still not called up to work.

## Nazi control of churches and religion

Most Germans were Christians. The Nazis and Christianity clashed because the beliefs and values of Christianity were very different from those of the Nazis. Traditional Christianity did not prosper under Nazi rule.





### Germany's Christians

There were two main Christian groups in Germany:

- There were around 20 million Catholics (around one third of the population).
- There were around 40 million Protestants (around two thirds of the population).

The Nazis had to be careful with how they dealt with religion because it was an important feature of German society. But there were some key differences between Nazism and Christianity:

Nazism 	Christianity 
Nazis thought strength and violence were glorious	Most Christians believe in love and forgiveness
Hated the weak and vulnerable	Help the weak and vulnerable
Believed some races were better (superior) than others	Believe all people are equal in God's eyes
Hitler was a God-like figure	Believe in God and the teachings of Jesus Christ

## Why did some Christians support the Nazis?

- The Nazis believed in the importance of marriage, the family and moral values. Most Christians believe in the importance of these too.
- Hitler had sworn to destroy communism. This appealed to Christians because communism was anti-religious.
- Hitler promised to respect the Church.

### The Nazis and the Catholic Church

Hitler cooperated with Catholic leaders at first. A 1933 Concordat (agreement) with the Pope (head of the Catholic Church) said that the Catholic Church and the Nazis would not interfere with each other.

Hitler soon broke this agreement. Catholic priests were harassed and arrested and Catholic youth clubs and schools were closed down.

The Nazis continued to **persecute** Catholic priests.

In 1937, the Pope issued his 'With Burning Anxiety' statement, read out in Catholic churches across Germany. This said that the Nazis were 'hostile to Christ and his Church'.

In August 1941, Catholic Archbishop Galen (one of Germany's best-known religious leaders) openly criticised the Nazis. He was put under house arrest until the end of the war.

## The Nazis and German Protestants

Hitler was admired by some Protestants, known as '**German Christians**', who wanted to see their Church under Nazi control.



Their leader, Ludwig Müller, became the first 'Reich Bishop' of the German Christians in September 1933. They often wore Nazi uniforms and used the slogan 'the swastika on our chests and the Cross in our hearts'.

Some Protestants were totally opposed to the Nazis. Pastor Martin Niemöller formed the **Confessional Church**, which openly criticised the Nazis.



The Nazis arrested around 800 pastors of the Confessional Church.



Niemöller was sent to a concentration camp and the Confessional Church was banned.

## Other religious groups

- Jehovah's Witnesses were pacifists who refused to serve in the army. One third of Germany's Jehovah's Witnesses were killed in concentration camps.
- Members of other groups – the Salvation Army, Christian Scientists and the Seventh Day Adventist Church – were also persecuted.
- Jewish people suffered relentless persecution in Nazi Germany.



## RECAP

# Racial policy, persecution and the Final Solution

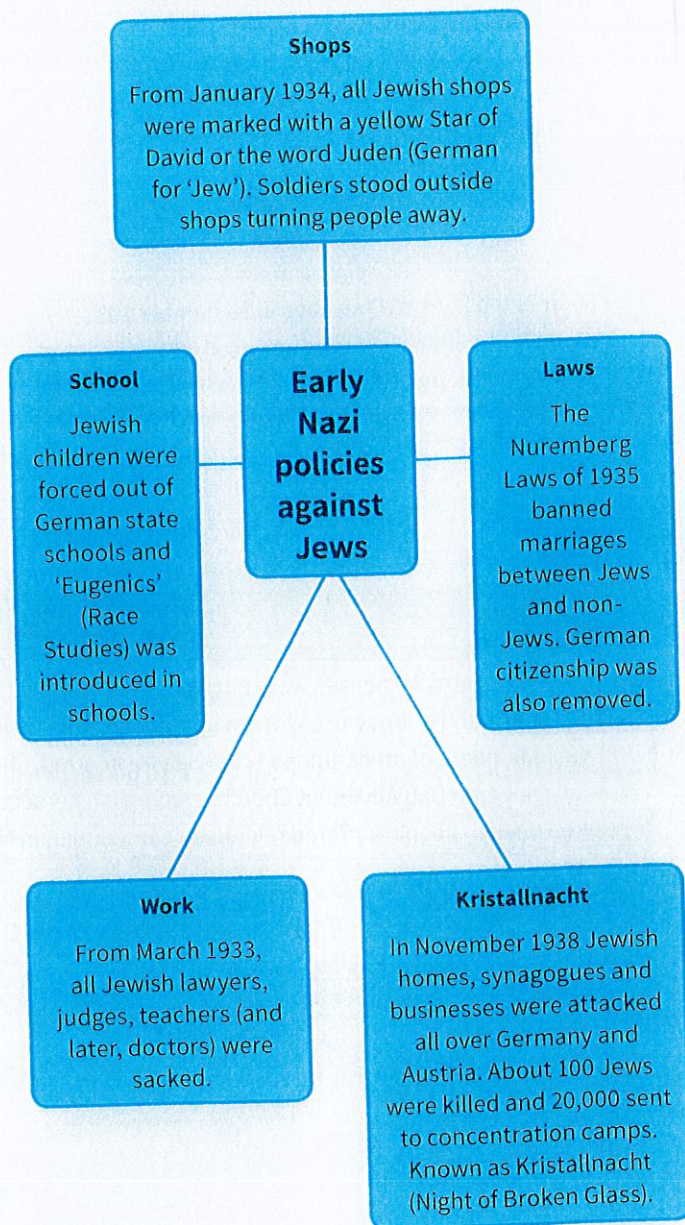
Hitler believed that Germans were the 'superior' **master race** – Aryans – with the right to dominate 'inferior' races and groups of people. He feared that such groups would mix with Aryans and wanted to rid Germany of them. He had a particularly obsessive hatred of Jews.

### Persecution of racial groups

- The Nazis classed Jews, Gypsies, Slavs (such as Russians), black and Indian people as 'inferior'.
- Hitler wanted to **cleanse** Germany of these people.
- The Nazis began to persecute and, later, murder members of these groups. Over half a million Gypsies and over six million Jews from across Europe died in death camps in the years up to 1945.

### Persecution of 'undesirables'

- 'Undesirables' was Hitler's term for people with mental and physical disabilities and those who did not, in his view, contribute to society. He believed that they weakened Germany and he wanted to get rid of them to create a stronger nation.
- About 350,000 physically and mentally disabled people were forcibly sterilised by the Nazis. From 1939, the Nazis began to kill them. About 200,000 people, including 5000 children, were murdered in specially built 'nursing homes'.
- Around half a million homeless people, beggars and alcoholics were sent to concentration camps in 1933. Many were worked to death. Thousands of prostitutes, homosexuals and 'problem' families were sent to the camps too.



## The journey to the Final Solution

When war broke out in 1939, persecution of the Jews intensified:

- Jews were rounded up in some of the countries under Nazi occupation and forced to live in **ghettos** in major cities, or sent to work in labour camps.
- Execution squads (**Einsatzgruppen**) went out into the countryside and shot or gassed Jews.



### The death camps

- At the Wannsee Conference in 1942, Nazi leaders planned what they called 'a final solution to the Jewish question': the mass murder of every Jew in Nazi-controlled territory.
- Heinrich Himmler, Head of the SS, oversaw the Final Solution.
- Six death camps (or extermination camps) were to be built. They contained gas chambers to carry out the murders, and large crematoriums to burn the bodies.
- Jews from all over German-occupied Europe were transported to these camps. In total, around six million were killed.
- The Nazis' attempt to wipe out the Jewish race is commonly known as the **Holocaust**.
- Thousands of Gypsies, homosexuals, political opponents, the disabled and any other groups whom the Nazis considered unfit to live were also killed in the camps.

### Fighting back: Jewish resistance

- Some Jews fought back. They formed resistance groups, attacked German soldiers and blew up railway lines that the Germans were using.
- In some ghettos there was resistance – the Warsaw Ghetto Uprising of 1943 lasted 43 days.
- There were occasional rebellions in death camps. In Treblinka camp in 1943, 15 guards were killed and 150 prisoners escaped.

### SUMMARY

- The Nazis tried to control all aspects of a young person's life. The school system and the Hitler Youth Organisation were dedicated to spreading Nazi propaganda and creating the sort of young people that the Nazis wanted.
- The Nazis believed that males and females had different roles: men as soldiers, women as homemakers.
- Some Christians supported the Nazis. But Nazism and Christianity often clashed because their beliefs were very different.
- Hitler believed that Germans were the master race and should dominate other races. He wanted to remove the groups he felt were 'inferior'.
- He especially hated the Jews and persecuted them harshly, with millions dying in death camps.

# Control in Nazi Germany



## RECAP

It seemed that Hitler and the Nazis were supported by most Germans in the 1930s. However, the Nazis had such tight control over German lives that it is hard to tell how many people did not agree with their policies but were too afraid to say so. How did the Nazis create a climate of fear?

## The police state

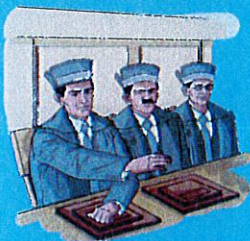
After 1933, Germany became a 'police state' – a country where the police and other organisations linked to the police (such as the courts) are very powerful and act on behalf of the government. The diagram on this page shows the different elements of the Nazi police state and how they worked together to control the country.

### Himmler

- The Head of the SS.
- A loyal Nazi who personally reported to Hitler, whom he had known since 1923.



### Regular police and law courts



- Ordinary police continued their work, but ignored crimes committed by Nazis.
- Top jobs in the ordinary police went to Nazis.
- Law courts and judges were under Nazi control. New laws meant that the death penalty could be given for, among other things, telling an anti-Hitler joke, having sex with a Jew, listening to a foreign radio station.

### The Gestapo (secret police)



- No uniform.
- Spied on people they thought might be a threat. Tapped phone calls and opened mail.
- Had the power to arrest, imprison without trial and torture anyone.
- Set up a network of 'informers' who would report anyone who criticised the Nazis. Children were encouraged to report their parents or teachers.

### The SS (*Schutzstaffel*)



- Set up in 1925, wore black uniforms.
- Originally Hitler's personal bodyguards, but over time divided into three sections:
  - The SD (*Sicherheitsdienst*) – looked after 'security'. They could arrest anyone for any reason, search homes and seize property.
  - The Waffen SS – elite unit in the army.
  - The Death's Head Units – ran the concentration camps, and later, the death camps.

### Concentration camps



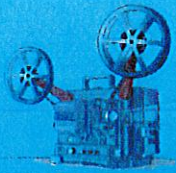
- Set up as soon as Hitler took power.
- Large prisons where any 'enemies of the state' could be held for any length of time. Anyone the Nazis didn't like was sent there – Jews, Gypsies, political opponents and anyone who criticised Hitler.
- Inmates were forced to work hard and some were even tortured or worked to death.



# Art and culture in Nazi Germany

Cultural activities such as music, theatre, art and literature all had to reflect Nazi ideas and beliefs. The Chamber of Culture was set up to organise this.

## Cinema



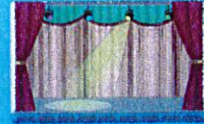
- Nazi supporters such as Alfred Hugenberg owned film studios, so the Nazis had a direct influence on exactly which films were made.
- Goebbels read and approved all film scripts.
- All films had to carry a pro-Nazi message.
- News reports of Nazi achievements were always shown before the main film.

## Music



- Official approval was given to traditional marching music, folk songs and classical music by German and Austrian composers such as Bach, Beethoven, Mozart and Wagner.
- Some music that was popular in Weimar Germany was not permitted.
- Jewish composers were banned, and so was jazz music because it had its origins among African Americans.

## Theatre



- In the Weimar era, Nazis founded the Militant League for German Culture to protest against 'modern' plays and films they disapproved of.
- When the Nazis took over, they ruled that plays should mainly focus on German history and politics.
- Songs about sex and politics were common in Germany's cabaret clubs. The Nazis closed them down.

## The Chamber of Culture

- Led by Joseph Goebbels.
- All musicians, writers, artists and actors had to be members.
- Anyone who refused would not be allowed to work.
- Some people, such as Jews, were banned from joining.

## Literature



- A list of banned books was created. 'Un-German' books or those by Jewish authors were removed from libraries and bookshops. Goebbels organised events in which books were gathered and burned.
- Goebbels encouraged books about race, the glory of war and the brilliance of the Nazis.
- Some popular books written in Weimar Germany were banned, including Erich Remarque's anti-war novel *All Quiet on the Western Front*
- Hitler's *Mein Kampf* was the bestselling book in Germany.
- Around 2500 writers left Germany between 1933 and 1945.

## Art



- The Nazis wanted art to be clearly understandable to ordinary people. It should show healthy, heroic German figures and family scenes of happy, strong, 'pure' Germans.
- Hitler hated modern art and called it 'degenerate' (perverted).
- In 1936, the Nazis publicly burned 5000 paintings they disapproved of. They put on an exhibition of 'degenerate' art to mock it and opened another of officially approved paintings.

## Design



- Hitler had clear ideas about the design of big, public buildings like libraries, government offices and parade grounds. He favoured huge, stone structures, often copies of buildings from ancient Greece or Rome.
- 'Bauhaus' was an important architectural and design movement in Weimar Germany. It used new technology to design simple, practical buildings and objects. Hitler did not approve of such modern design, and closed the movement down in 1933.



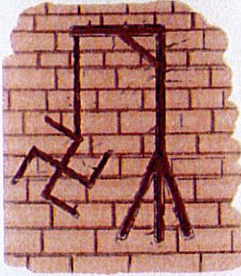

## Sports and leisure



- Health and physical fitness was important to the Nazis, so success in sport was used to promote the Nazi regime.
- The Olympic Games, held in Berlin in 1936, was a propaganda opportunity. Famous German filmmaker Leni Riefenstahl made a groundbreaking film of the Games using the latest German technology.
- The German team came top of the medals table. The Nazis claimed that this showed the superiority of the German race.
- During the Games, anti-Semitic posters and newspapers were temporarily stopped to give the rest of the world the impression of a more tolerant Germany.

## Resistance and opposition

The Nazis had a firm grip on Germany with its methods of propaganda, censorship and intimidation, but opposition remained. There were different levels of challenge to the Nazis in Germany:

Type of resistance	Examples
<p>'Grumbling' or moaning</p> 	<p>The lowest type of opposition.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>In the privacy of their own homes, people might tell an anti-Nazi joke or complain about the Nazi regime.</li> </ul>
<p>Passive resistance</p> 	<p>A public show of opposition, often by refusing to do what most of the population were doing.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Some might refuse to give the 'Heil Hitler' salute or to give money to the Hitler Youth members who were collecting funds.</li> </ul>
<p>Open opposition</p> 	<p>Some Germans organised themselves into groups to openly oppose the Nazis.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The <b>Swing Youth</b> declared their dislike of Nazi ideas and policies by listening to jazz music and having Jewish friends.</li> <li>The <b>White Rose group</b>, led by brother and sister Hans and Sophie Scholl, urged Germans to get rid of Hitler. They handed out anti-Nazi leaflets, put up posters and wrote graffiti on walls.</li> <li>Youth groups such as the <b>Edelweiss Pirates</b> and the Navajos beat up Nazi officials and helped army deserters.</li> <li>Other groups sabotaged railway lines and passed on military secrets to other countries.</li> </ul> <p>Protestant and Catholic Church leaders made some open criticism of the Nazis too.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The Catholic Church spoke out in 1941 against the killing of physically and mentally disabled people.</li> </ul>
<p>Attempts to kill Hitler</p> 	<p>There were around 50 attempts on Hitler's life, some by lone individuals, and others by organised groups:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The Kreisau Circle – a group of army officers, university professors and aristocrats who discussed assassinating Hitler, but didn't actually do anything.</li> <li>The Beck-Goerdeler group – contacted the British about removing Hitler, but no agreement was reached. The group did, however, try to kill Hitler in March and November 1943, and was behind the July Bomb Plot of 1944.</li> <li>The July 1944 Bomb Plot – army officer Colonel Claus von Stauffenberg was part of a group that detonated a bomb where Hitler was meeting other Nazi leaders. Despite killing four men and injuring Hitler, the bomb failed to kill him.</li> </ul>

# Glossary

## A

**abdicate:** give up the throne of a country

**Article 48:** part of the Weimar Constitution that gave the President the right to rule in a time of crisis without requiring the support of the Reichstag

**avant-garde:** new and experimental ideas and methods in art, music, or literature

## B

**Bauhaus:** school of design originating in Weimar Germany, which focused on modern, simple and practical designs

**Bundesrat:** group made up of German state representatives who supported the Kaiser

## C

**Chancellor:** in Germany, the chief minister, or Prime Minister in the government

**coalition:** government where two or more political parties combine to rule

**communism:** political system where all property is owned by the government; people are equal and they are paid by the government according to their needs

**concentration camp:** camp in which people are held under harsh conditions and without the freedoms of the rest of society

**constitution:** set of rules by which a country is governed

## D

**Dawes Plan:** agreement allowing for US loans to be given to European countries (especially Germany) in order for them to build factories and roads, and stimulate the economy

**democratic republic:** system of running a country in which all adults have the right to vote for the government they want

**Depression:** time during the 1930s when many banks and businesses failed and millions lost their jobs

**Der Führer:** supreme leader, the title adopted by Adolf Hitler

**diktat:** nickname given by many Germans to the hated Treaty of Versailles; translated as 'dictated peace'

## E

**Edelweiss Pirates:** rebel youth gang which went camping and sang songs making fun of Hitler; they even physically attacked Hitler Youth groups

**Einsatzgruppen:** SS mobile death squads responsible for the murder of those thought by the Nazis to be racial or political enemies

**Enabling Act:** law passed in 1933 that allowed the Nazis to make their own laws without consulting the Reichstag

**eugenics:** the science of improving a population by controlled breeding

## F

**Four Year Plan:** attempt by the Nazis to increase agricultural and industrial production, regulate imports and exports, and achieve self-sufficiency in the production of raw materials

## G

**Gestapo:** part of the SS and Nazi Germany's secret police force, created by Herman Goering in 1933 and controlled by Heinrich Himmler

**ghetto:** area where members of a particular racial group are forced (or in some cases choose) to live

## H

**Holocaust:** the mass murder of millions of Jews by the Nazis during the Second World War

**hyperinflation:** sudden, dramatic rise in prices

## I

**industrialisation:** process by which a country transforms from a mainly agricultural society to one based on manufacturing

## K

**Kaiser:** the German emperor

**Kinder, Kirche and Küche:** 'Children, Church and Cooking'; a slogan used by the Nazis which reflected what women should dedicate their lives to

## L

**League of Nations:** international peace-keeping organisation set up after the First World War; Germany joined in 1926

**left-wing:** political belief that promotes equality, high taxation for the rich, and the redistribution of wealth

## M

**master race:** elite race of people, to which Hitler believed the Germans belonged

**mutiny:** rebellion by soldiers or sailors who refuse to take orders

## P

**propaganda:** the systematic spreading of ideas and information in order to influence people's thinking and actions, often through the use of media such as posters, film, radio and newspapers

**proportional representation:** political system in which the number of politicians for a particular party is in proportion with the number of votes they win

## R

**Reichstag:** the main, elected German parliament

**reparations:** payments made by Germany to some of the winning nations of the First World War for the damage done by the fighting

**right-wing:** political belief that promotes traditional or conservative policies

## S

**Schutzstaffel (SS):** originally Hitler's elite personal bodyguards, the SS became one of the main instruments of terror in Nazi Germany

**self-sufficient:** having a 'closed economy', which meant that the Nazis tried to stop trading with the outside world and rely entirely on its own resources

**socialism:** system of government which supports democracy and greater government involvement in the economy and society

**Spartacus League:** group of German communists who wanted a revolution similar to the one that had taken place in Russia in 1917

**Stormtroopers (SA):** Hitler's brown-shirted supporters who were employed to beat up opponents and guard meetings

**Swing Youth:** group of young Germans who refused to join the Hitler Youth Organisation

## T

**Total War:** the idea that all Germans, both civilians and soldiers fighting at the fronts, must take an active part in war

## W

**Weimar Republic:** name given to Germany's democratic system between 1913 and 1933

**Weltpolitik:** literally meaning 'world policy', this was the Kaiser's plan to turn Germany into a global power

**White Rose group:** anti-Nazi youth group, made up mainly of university students

## Y

**Young Plan:** agreement to reduce reparations, made in 1929 between Germany and the countries they owed money to after the First World War

GCSE History AQA  
 Paper 1: Section B  
 Conflict and tension between East and West, 1945-1972

Topic	I can explain.....	Red	Amber	Green
<i>Part one: The origins of the Cold War</i>				
	Relations between the USA and USSR prior to WW2			
The end of the Second World War	Yalta and Potsdam Peace Conferences			
	The division of Germany			
	Differences between Capitalism and Communism			
	Aims of the 'big three' countries			
	Effects of the dropping of the atomic bomb			
The Iron Curtain and the evolution of East-West rivalry	Soviet expansion in Eastern Europe (Eastern bloc) and the 'Iron Curtain' speech			
	US policies; the Truman Doctrine and Marshal Plan			
	Stalin's reaction to US policies; Cominform and Comecon			
	The Berlin Blockade and Airlift			

Topic	I can explain.....	Red	Amber	Green
<i>Part two: The development of the Cold War</i>				
The significance of events in Asia for superpower relations	The Communist revolution in China			
	The Korean War and the rise of the North Korean Communists			
	The Vietnam War and US involvement			
Military rivalries	The arms race			
	NATO and the Warsaw Pact			
	The space race			
The 'Thaw'	The Hungarian Uprising			
	The U2 spy plane crisis and its affects on the Paris Peace Conference			

Topic	I can explain.....	Red	Amber	Green
<i>Part three: Transformation of the Cold War</i>				
Berlin Wall	Reasons for its construction			
	Kennedy's response			
Tensions over Cuba	Castro's Cuban Revolution and the Bay of Pigs			
	The Cuban Missile Crisis			
	Development of CND and worldwide response to the crisis			
Czechoslovakia	'The Prague Spring'			
	Impact on the Warsaw Pact			
	The Brezhnev Doctrine and soviet responses			
Easing of tension	The reasons for 'Détente'			
	Détente: The roles played by Brezhnev and Nixon in the easing of Cold War tensions			

# Conflict and Tension between East and West 1945–1972 Timeline

The colours represent different types of event as follows:

-  **Blue:** economic events
-  **Red:** political events
-  **Green:** military events
-  **Black:** international events or foreign policies

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <p><b>1944</b>  February – Yalta Conference</p> <p><b>1944</b>  October – ‘Percentages agreement’</p> <p><b>1945</b>  May – End of the Second World War in Europe</p> <p><b>1945</b>  July – August – Potsdam Conference</p> <p><b>1945</b>  August – Atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki; End of the Second World War in the Pacific</p> <p><b>1947</b>  February – The Long Telegram</p> <p><b>1947</b>  March – Churchill’s Iron Curtain speech</p> <p><b>1947</b>  September – Cominform is established</p> <p><b>1948</b>  April – The Marshall Plan is put into action</p> <p><b>1948</b>  June – The Berlin Blockade begins</p> <p><b>1949</b>  January – Comecon is established</p> <p><b>1949</b>  April – NATO is formed</p> <p><b>1949</b>  May – The Berlin Blockade is lifted following the success of the Berlin Airlift</p> <p><b>1949</b>  August – The USSR successfully tests an atomic bomb</p> <p><b>1949</b>  October – Mao declares the formation of the People’s Republic of China</p> <p><b>1950</b>  June – North Korea invades the South leading to the Korean War</p> <p><b>1952</b>  November – The US successfully tests a hydrogen bomb</p> | <p><b>1953</b>  July – The Korean War ends</p> <p><b>1954</b>  July – The French withdraw from Vietnam</p> <p><b>1955</b>  May – Formation of the Warsaw Pact</p> <p><b>1956</b>  October–November – The Hungarian Uprising</p> <p><b>1957</b>  October – Sputnik, the first man-made satellite, is launched by the USSR</p> <p><b>1959</b>  January – Castro takes power in Cuba</p> <p><b>1960</b>  May – An American U2 spy plane is shot down over the USSR leading to an international crisis</p> <p><b>1961</b>  April – The Bay of Pigs invasion attempt</p> <p><b>1961</b>  August – The Berlin Wall is constructed</p> <p><b>1961</b>  October – The USSR explodes the most powerful bomb in history</p> <p><b>1962</b>  October – The Cuban Missile Crisis</p> <p><b>1968</b>  January–August – The Prague Spring movement</p> <p><b>1969</b>  July – Neil Armstrong, an American, becomes the first man to set foot on the Moon</p> <p><b>1972</b>  May – SALT I</p> |
|---|---|



# The end of the Second World War

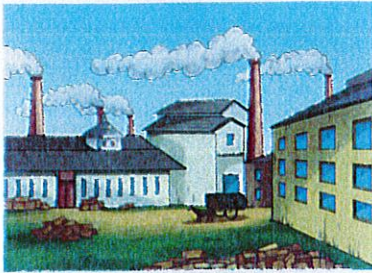


## RECAP

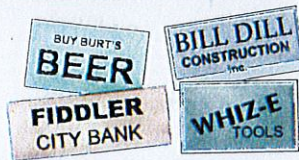
### Contrasting ideologies of the USA and USSR

It is impossible to understand the Cold War without understanding the political and economic **ideologies** that divided the two superpowers – the USA and the USSR.

Key country: USA



- Developed out of the Industrial Revolution and the new social group of the middle class.



- Private businesses and making profits are allowed.



- Usually multiple political parties in elections.
- Government usually elected by the people.

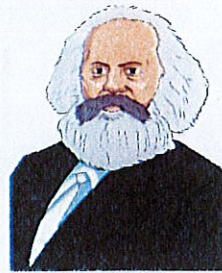


- Free economy.

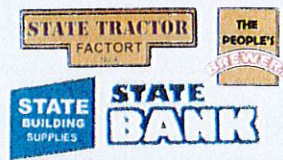


- Great differences in wealth but most have a reasonable standard of living.
- Based on the idea of 'opportunity for all'.

Key country: USSR



- Based on the ideas of Karl Marx in the nineteenth century and developed by Lenin in Russia.



- All businesses are owned by the state and all profits go to the state.



- One-party state, other parties are banned.



- Economy controlled by the government.



- Lower average standard of living, but wealth more equally shared.
- Based on the ideas of fairness and equality.

### Ideological differences

- The USA was a capitalist system and placed great emphasis on the 'American Dream' of individuals becoming successful and wealthy.
- The USSR was communist and its first leader, Vladimir Lenin, called for the overthrow of capitalism around the world.

### Propaganda

- In the West, governments and the media spread fear about the communist threat to people's way of life. The 'Red Scare' of the 1920s saw panic and arrests in the USA.
- In the USSR, Western governments were seen as a threat to the revolution and as the oppressors of workers worldwide.

### The First World War

- Russia had fought on the side of the Allies until the revolution in 1917, when its new leaders withdrew from the war. Britain and France would find it hard to trust the Russians in the future.

### The USA and the USSR: Why was there so much mistrust before the Second World War?

### The Russian Civil War

- Following the Russian Revolution of 1917, the Reds (communists) and the Whites (anti-communists) fought in a brutal civil war for control of the country. Western countries sent troops to support the Whites.

### Stalin's regime

- Lenin's successor, Joseph Stalin, was brutal and ruthless in his rule of the country. The secretive nature of the regime along with the disappearance, arrest and murder of high-profile figures led many in the West to mistrust Stalin's government.

### The Nazi-Soviet Pact

- Despite their total opposition to each other's political systems, Nazi Germany and the USSR signed a non-aggression pact in 1939.
- In return for avoiding an invasion and securing territory in Poland, Stalin entered into an agreement with a government that had persecuted communists. The West saw this as further evidence that the USSR could not be trusted.

### The Grand Alliance

- Despite the huge amount of mistrust, Hitler's invasion of the USSR in 1941 brought East and West together. The two sides united to fight their common enemy: Nazi Germany. By working together, East and West were able to defeat the Nazis in 1945.



## RECAP

### The Yalta Conference, February 1945

As the Second World War drew to a close and it became clear that Nazi Germany would be defeated, the Allies began to consider the post-war world.

#### The West's aims

- East-West co-operation should continue.
- Germany should be rebuilt as an independent, democratic country.
- Countries in Eastern Europe should have the right to **self-determination** and be free from outside influence.
- The **United Nations** should be formed to help avoid conflicts.
- There should be economic co-operation through the **World Bank** and the **International Monetary Fund (IMF)**.

#### The USSR's aims

- East-West co-operation should continue.
- Spheres of influence should be created to guarantee security.
- Germany should remain weak.
- German industry should pay for the rebuilding of the USSR.
- The World Bank and the IMF should have no authority over the USSR, but the USSR would be prepared to work within the United Nations (UN).

### Early discussions

- In December 1943, with the war still continuing, Stalin, Roosevelt and Churchill met in Tehran.
- In October 1944, Stalin and Churchill met in Moscow. Churchill wrote his idea about how to split Eastern Europe after the war on a table napkin, which Stalin ticked to show his approval. This became known as the '**percentages agreement**'.

# The aims of Stalin, Churchill and Roosevelt

## Winston Churchill

- Aware of Stalin's aims and wanted to protect British interests.
- Wanted a close relationship with the USA.
- Struggled to understand Stalin's point of view.
- As a strong anti-communist, he was naturally mistrustful of Stalin.



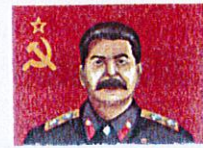
## Franklin D. Roosevelt

- Committed to working with the USSR and got on well with Stalin.
- Believed that only a capitalist Europe could prevent a future war.
- Some argue that he misunderstood Stalin's aims and assumed they wanted the same thing.



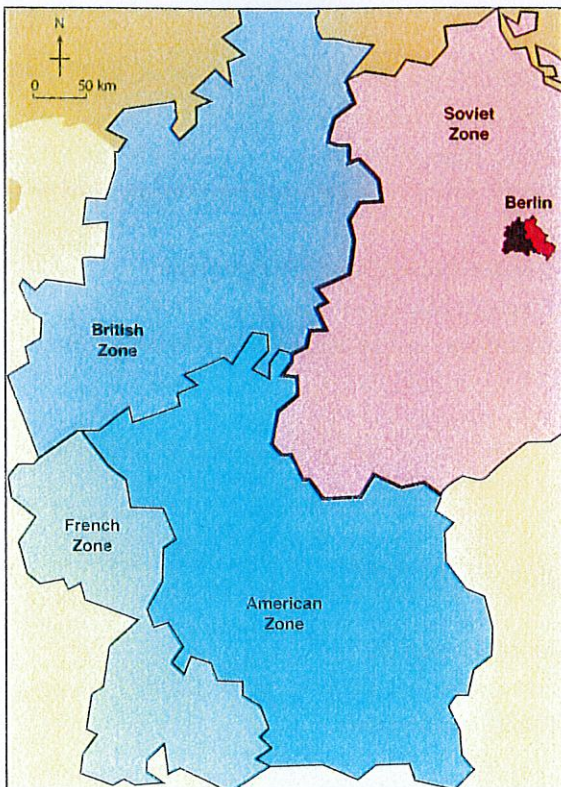
## Joseph Stalin

- Wanted to ensure that the total devastation suffered by the USSR during the war could never happen again.
- Believed that creating a sphere of influence around the USSR was the best way to ensure security.
- Recognised the need for co-operation with the West (although many of his ministers did not).



## The division of Germany

Germany was to be divided into four zones – one each for the USSR, the USA, Britain and France. Berlin, which was within the Soviet zone, would also be divided in the same way.



The liberated countries of Eastern Europe would be allowed to hold free elections.

### The key agreements made at Yalta

The UN would be formed to ensure future co-operation.

'The Declaration of Liberated Europe' was signed, although there were differences in how this document was interpreted by the three leaders, particularly when it came to Poland.



## The Potsdam Conference, July 1945

By the time of the next peace conference, in July 1945, Nazi Germany had been defeated and there had been a change in leadership for two of the Allies.

### The aims of Attlee, Truman and Stalin

#### The Grand Alliance dissolves

By the time of the Potsdam Conference the unity between East and West had begun to break down.

- Stalin's desire to make Germany pay reparations was totally opposed by Truman and Attlee.
- Truman and Attlee wanted independence and self-determination for the countries of Eastern Europe. Stalin wanted them to remain under Soviet influence.
- With the USSR's **Red Army** occupying most of Eastern Europe and the war against Japan still raging on, the West simply had to accept the situation as it was.

#### Clement Attlee

- Focused on domestic plans, e.g. the creation of the welfare state.
- Worried about Soviet expansion.
- Wanted a secure Germany.
- Saw Britain as weaker and needing American friendship.



#### Harry S. Truman

- Wanted self-determination for the countries of Europe.
- Distrusted Stalin and his intentions.
- Thought America had the upper hand because of the atomic bomb.



#### Joseph Stalin

- Saw America as a rival and wanted security for USSR.
- Thought he was in a powerful position with the Red Army occupying Eastern Europe.
- Distrusted America now it had the atomic bomb.



#### Potsdam: the key agreements

- The division of Germany was confirmed.
- The Nazi Party was banned and its leaders put on trial.
- Germans living in Poland, Hungary and Czechoslovakia were to be returned to Germany.
- Poland was to lose some territory to the USSR.

### The impact of the atomic bomb

- Truman's decision to drop atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August 1945 ended the war in the Pacific.
- Although Stalin had been informed by his spies of the bomb's existence, Truman did not inform him officially. This added to tension and distrust.
- The surrender of Japan removed the need for Soviet troops in the Pacific and therefore the need for the Grand Alliance to continue.

# The Iron Curtain and the evolution of East-West rivalry

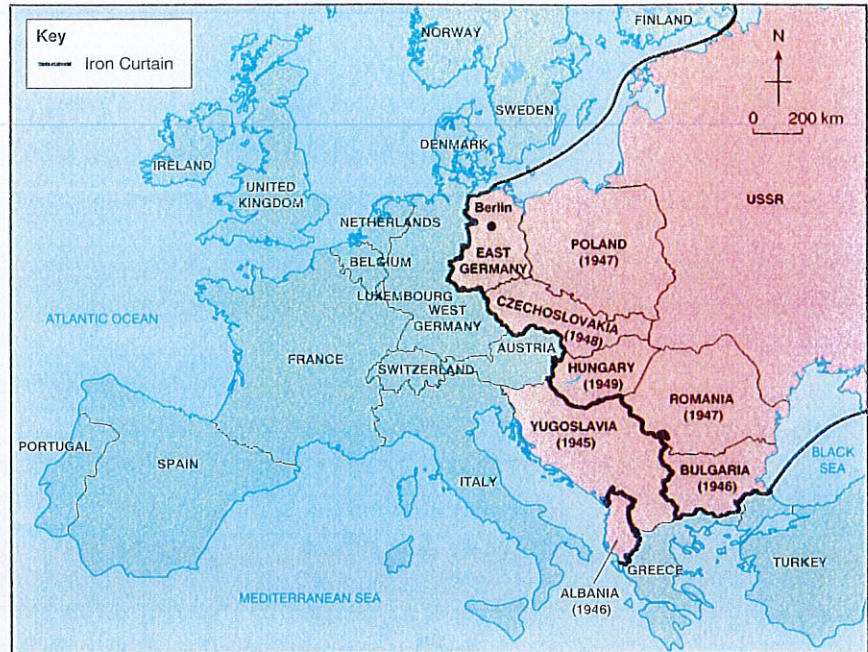


## RECAP

### Soviet expansion in Eastern Europe

At the end of the Second World War, the USSR effectively controlled most of Eastern Europe.

- The Red Army already occupied the land that they had taken from the Nazis, including Poland, Hungary and Yugoslavia.
- Communism was popular in Eastern Europe, after the horrors of Nazi occupation.
- The Soviets made it very difficult for non-communists to gain power in these countries by rigging elections and arresting and executing opponents.



### The Western response to Soviet expansion

#### 1. The Long Telegram

As tensions grew, the US embassy in Moscow began to report back on developments within the USSR.

On 22 February 1946, George Kennan, the well-respected second in command at the embassy, sent a report back to the USA. It said that:

- he believed that the Soviets wanted to spread the USSR's influence as widely as possible
- the USSR saw the USA as its enemy
- any attempt at co-operation between the USA and the USSR would fail.

'The Long Telegram' (8000 words) confirmed President Truman's own fears and had a large influence on his future approach towards the USSR.

#### 2. Churchill's Iron Curtain speech

On 6 March 1946, during a visit to the USA, Winston Churchill made a speech about the situation in Europe. As Britain's former prime minister and wartime leader, his views were to be taken seriously.

Churchill said:

- The USSR was attempting to spread its influence across the rest of Europe and increase its power.
- An invisible line had split Europe in two, between the East and the West. He called the line the **Iron Curtain**.

The term 'Iron Curtain' was widely used for the remainder of the Cold War. Truman, who was at Churchill's side when he made the speech, respected and shared Churchill's view. In Moscow, the speech was viewed as a deliberate misrepresentation of the USSR's aims.

# The Truman Doctrine, 1947

The Truman Doctrine refers to the American policy towards communism after the Second World War. President Truman outlined the policy in a speech to Congress in March 1947.

Truman said:

- Communism posed a serious threat to the USA and the rest of the world.
- The USA would support any country that was under threat from communism.
- The focus must be on 'containing communism' – keeping it within the countries where it was already established.

The purpose of Truman's speech was to make it clear to the USSR that its expansion into Europe had to end. It was also a response to the situation in Greece and Turkey, where it seemed likely that communism was about to take hold.

## The Marshall Plan

While the Truman Doctrine established the USA's policy, it was the European Recovery Program that put it into practice. Known as the Marshall Plan, after the USA Secretary of State, George Marshall, it put billions of dollars into rebuilding Europe.

### Purpose

The plan had three main aims:

- To aid economic recovery in Europe in order to stop people from turning to communism.
- To support the containment of communism within Eastern Europe.
- To create a market for American goods in order to build up the American economy.



### The Plan

- \$13.15 billion was divided among the countries that were willing to accept aid.
- Aid was offered to all the countries in Europe, east and west.
- Aid was supplied in the form of money or resources (e.g. machinery for farm work). All resources had to be bought from American suppliers.

▼ **A** The amount of Marshall aid given to each country that accepted it

Country	Amount of aid
UK	\$3.2b
France	\$2.7b
Italy	\$1.5b
West Germany	\$1.4b
Netherlands	\$1.1b
Greece	\$694m
Austria	\$677m
Belgium/Luxembourg	\$556m
Denmark	\$271m
Norway	\$254m
Turkey	\$221m
Ireland	\$146m
Sweden	\$107m
Portugal	\$50m
Trieste	\$32m
Iceland	\$29m



### The results

- Marshall aid was vital for the recovery of Western Europe. It allowed economies to be rebuilt and the standard of living to rise.
- The American economy also benefited.
- It demonstrated that the USA was committed to involvement in Europe for the long term.
- Communism became less popular in Western Europe.
- The division of East and West became even more firmly established, as Stalin forbade countries behind the Iron Curtain from accepting aid.



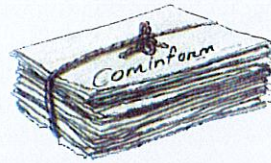
## RECAP

### Stalin's reaction: Cominform and Comecon

Stalin reacted negatively to American policies on communism and its activities in Europe after the Second World War.

#### Stalin's response to the Truman Doctrine: Cominform

- Stalin saw the Truman Doctrine as a direct threat to communism.
- He created the Communist Information Bureau (**Cominform**) to ensure unity in Eastern Europe.
- All Cominform member countries would meet regularly in Moscow to ensure that they were all following the same policies.



#### Stalin's response to the Marshall Plan: Comecon

- Stalin saw the Marshall Plan as an example of '**dollar imperialism**' by the USA. He thought that the USA gained power over countries that accepted their aid and was fearful that they were using this power for world domination.
- He made it clear that Eastern European countries should not accept any aid from the USA.
- In 1949, he created **Comecon**, a Soviet alternative to Marshall Aid. Countries who signed up to Comecon were agreeing to work together and share resources in what was officially a union of equal partners.
- In reality, all decisions were made in Moscow.



### Yugoslavia: a problem for Stalin

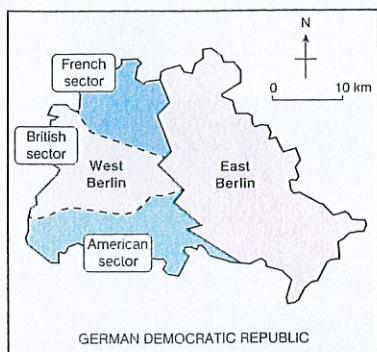
Unlike other communist countries in Eastern Europe, Yugoslavia did not owe its freedom from the Nazis to the Red Army. Its leader, Tito, therefore had no particular loyalty to Stalin. Although their relationship was good at first, things began to go wrong:

- Tito was unwilling to follow all of Stalin's instructions. He saw Yugoslavia as an independent country.
- In 1948, Tito accepted Marshall aid, something that Stalin had specifically forbidden. Yugoslavia was the only communist country to accept this aid from the USA.
- From this point, Yugoslavia's position was unique: a communist country that was not behind the Iron Curtain.



# The Berlin Blockade and Airlift, 1948-49

## Causes



- The division of Berlin had been agreed at Yalta and Potsdam and had been in place since the end of the Second World War. Initially, the Allies worked together to run Berlin through the **Allied Control Council (ACC)**. This became increasingly difficult as time went on.
- The Western Allies were keen for Germany to be rebuilt and unified, but Stalin opposed this as he saw Germany as a potential threat.
- In March 1948, the Western Allies agreed to unify their sectors of Germany and Berlin, and to introduce a new currency. Stalin did the same in the East.
- The USSR's ultimate aim was for the withdrawal of all Western officials from Berlin. From April 1948, the Soviets began to make life difficult for them.

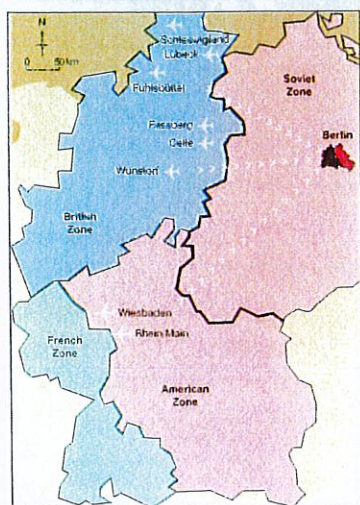
## The Blockade

- From April 1948, the '**mini-blockade**' began. It included blocking military supply routes, traffic restrictions and closing bridges for 'maintenance'.
- Tensions increased after a British and a Soviet plane collided on 5 April and violence broke out.
- On 24 June 1948, Stalin launched a full blockade. Transport links were blocked into West Berlin – no food, fuels or medical supplies could reach people in the non-Soviet part of the city. Electricity supplied from within the Soviet sector was cut.
- For the 2.5 million inhabitants of West Berlin, the situation quickly became very serious.

## The Western Response

- Truman and Atlee were both determined not to give in.
- The West's first response was a counter-blockade that stopped trains travelling out of West Berlin. This had a limited impact.
- On 26 June 1948, British and American planes began delivering supplies to West Berlin. At its peak, a plane was arriving every three minutes and around 4000 tonnes of supplies were delivered every day.
- On 15 April 1949, nearly 12,000 tonnes of coal were delivered in what became known as the 'Easter Parade'.
- Tensions remained high throughout this period and war seemed a real possibility – neither side was willing to back down.
- On 12 May, Stalin gave in and ended the blockade.

## The consequences



- The blockades and airlift had pushed the two sides to the brink of war and East-West relations were the worst they had ever been. Berlin remained a key location for the remainder of the Cold War.
- On 23 May 1949, West Germany became the **Federal Republic of Germany (FRG)**, an independent democratic country.
- In October 1949, the **German Democratic Republic (GDR)** was created as a Soviet-style communist state.
- In April 1949, the USA, Britain and 10 other non-communist countries formed the **North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO)**. The USA was committed to supporting and protecting Western Europe. A Soviet rival, the **Warsaw Pact**, was created six years later.



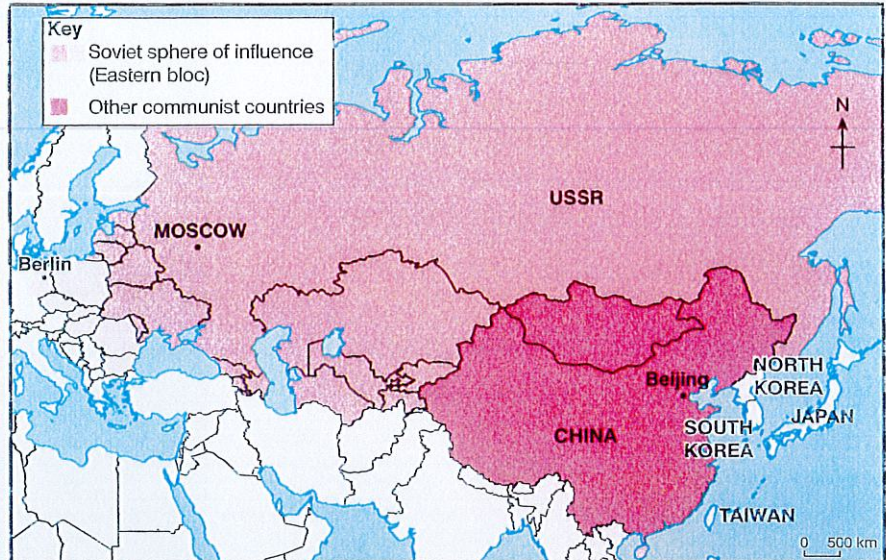
# The significance of events in Asia for superpower relations



## RECAP

### The Communist revolution in China, 1949

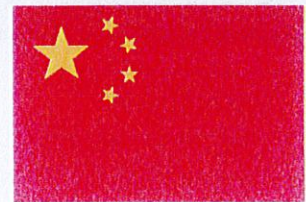
Having fought a brutal civil war, Mao Tse-tung declared the establishment of the People's Republic of China on 1 October 1949. The Nationalists, who had previously ruled the country, retreated to the island of Taiwan. The most populous country in the world had become communist.



### China and the USSR

Stalin immediately recognised Mao and the Communists as the rightful government of China and a **Treaty of Friendship** was signed by the two nations. It said:

- \$300 million in aid would be sent to China. 95 per cent of this would need to be repaid (at a high rate of interest) and most of it had to be spent on Soviet goods.
  - 8000 Chinese students could travel to the USSR to study science and technology.
  - 20,000 Soviet experts were sent to help the development of China. Much of their advice seemed to benefit the USSR, rather than China.
  - China agreed to give two of its major ports to the USSR and to give the Soviets the right to mine in its Xinjiang territory.
- Stalin saw himself as the leader of world communism, but China was not going to be like the communist countries of Eastern Europe. Unlike in the Russian Revolution, which had been led by factory workers in the cities, Chinese communists were largely peasant farmers. Although the relationship between the countries started well, it soon began to break down, particularly after Stalin's death.



### China and the West

In the West, the communist takeover was seen as a disaster. The West refused even to recognise the new government, arguing instead that the government in Taiwan should be seen as the rightful rulers. In Washington and other Western capitals, Mao's victory was seen as:

- a failure of the Truman Doctrine and the policy of containment
- a victory for Stalin, who now had influence over the most highly populated country in the world
- a threat to the rest of Asia, particularly Taiwan (the last part of China held by the Nationalists) and Japan (still recovering from the effects of the Second World War).

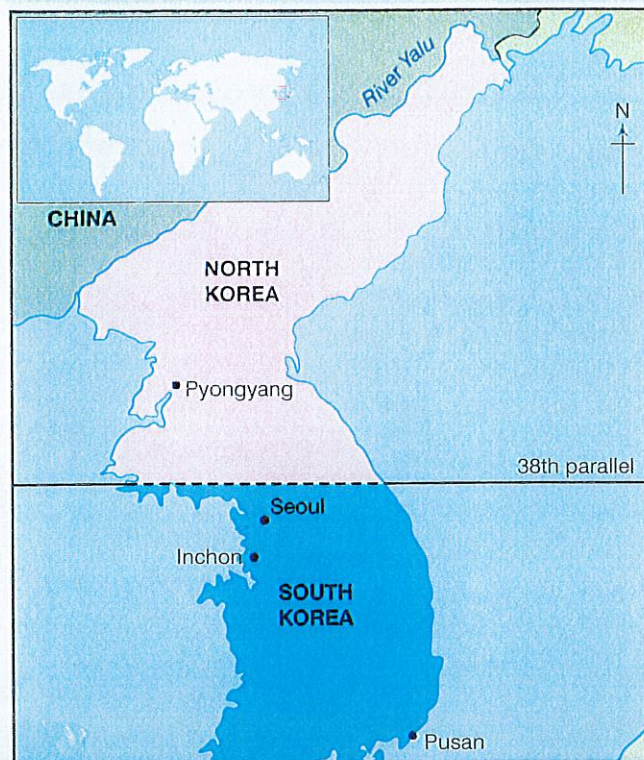
In response to Mao's victory, the USA dramatically increased funding to Japan, and other countries in Asia, to try to combat the threat of communism in those countries. In September 1949, the highly secret National Security Council Resolution 68 (**NSC-68**) allowed for a major build-up of the American military.



## The Korean War 1950–53

### Rising tensions

- The division of Korea, along the 38th Parallel, had been agreed at the Potsdam Conference.
- Communist North Korea was led by Kim Il Sung, a Soviet-trained politician.
- South Korea was led by the American-backed Syngman Rhee, a committed anti-communist.
- Both men hoped to unite Korea under their leadership. Rhee called for American support in overthrowing Kim. Kim sent raiding parties across the border to try to undermine the southern government.



### Invasion!

- In 1949, Kim asked Stalin to help him invade the South. In 1950, Stalin agreed to provide weapons and equipment, but not troops.
- The USA already had 7500 troops stationed in the South.
- In June 1950, North Korean troops invaded South Korea.

### The United Nations

- In response to the North's invasion, the USA asked the UN to call for a ceasefire.
- With the USSR **boycotting** the UN and therefore unable to oppose the motion, the UN voted for the immediate withdrawal of North Korean troops.
- The North's troops remained and so the UN sent troops to support Rhee's government.
- Although the vast majority of the troops were American, they were officially UN soldiers and the USA could not be accused of acting alone.

### The war

- In September 1950, USA-led forces, under the command of General MacArthur, landed at Incheon and drove the North Koreans back to the 38th Parallel.
- In October, Chinese troops helped to push the Americans back. They took control of the South Korean capital, Seoul.
- In April 1951, General MacArthur was dismissed after calling for the use of a nuclear weapon.
- By June, the war had reached stalemate and, in July, a final ceasefire was agreed, with North and South divided in almost exactly the same place as when the war started.

### The consequences

- The Korean War showed that the USA was willing to go to war in order to contain communism.
- It showed the power the USA had with the UN.
- It became the first **proxy war** of the Cold War, an indirect fight between the Soviets and the Americans (the Soviets provided most of the North's weapons).
- The dismissal of MacArthur showed the USA did not want direct conflict with the USSR or to use nuclear weapons.
- The USSR was equally keen to avoid direct conflict with the USA.



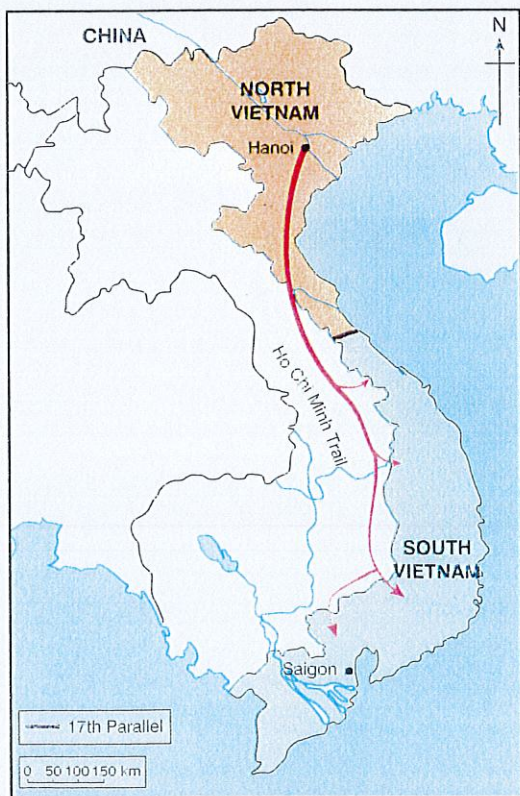
# The Vietnam War

Indochina was a French colony, but after the Second World War many of those who lived in Indochina did not want the French back to rule them.

## Indochina



- The most popular rebels in Vietnam (part of Indochina) were the **Viet Minh**, led by Ho Chi Minh.
- In 1945, he declared independence from France and established the Democratic Republic of Vietnam.
- France resisted but withdrew from Vietnam after defeat at the Battle of Dien Bien Phu in 1954.
- The new US president, Dwight D. Eisenhower, was concerned Vietnam could fall to communism.
- In July 1954, Vietnam was temporarily split in two until elections could be held: the French left the North and the Viet Minh left the South.



## American involvement in Vietnam



- In the early 1950s, the US government devised the **Domino Theory**. It thought that if South Vietnam fell to communism, the **ideology** would spread to nearby countries. This spread would continue until Asia was entirely communist. Countries would fall like dominoes.
- To avoid conflict and growing stocks of nuclear weapons, Eisenhower established the **New Look** policy. He sent money, equipment and military and political experts to South Vietnam to help the country become secure.
- Despite the corruption and brutality of South Vietnam's anti-communist leader, Ngo Dinh Diem, the USA supported him.



## The Vietcong and increasing US involvement

- In December 1960, the National Front for the Liberation of South Vietnam (the **Vietcong**) was established. Its aim was to overthrow Diem.
- The Ho Chi Minh trail was established to get weapons and equipment to the rebels from North Vietnam.
- In 1960, the new US president, John F. Kennedy, began sending over 16,000 advisors and experts to South Vietnam.
- The USA secretly backed the assassination of Diem by his opponents on 2 November 1963. It was hoped that a new leader would improve the situation.
- Kennedy himself was assassinated less than a month later. His successor, Lyndon B. Johnson, ordered full US military involvement in Vietnam. The Vietnam War would last for over a decade and cost thousands of lives.

## SUMMARY

- China became communist in 1949.
- The Korean War was the first proxy war and the first actual conflict of the Cold War.
- The Vietnam War demonstrated the USA's belief in the Domino Theory and its commitment to containing communism.
- The 1950s saw the focus on the Cold War move from Europe to Asia.

# Military rivalries



## RECAP

### NATO and the Warsaw Pact

After the Second World War, many countries wanted to secure their future against possible military conflict. Alliances and treaties were two ways of achieving this. The USA and its allies formed NATO – the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation – and the USSR created the Warsaw Pact.

	 <b>NATO</b>	 <b>The Warsaw Pact</b>
<b>Formed</b> 	April 1949, in response to the Berlin Blockade and Airlift.	1955, in response to West Germany being allowed to join NATO.
<b>Membership</b> 	12 original members: USA, Canada, Britain, France, Denmark, Italy, Norway, Belgium, the Netherlands, Portugal, Luxembourg and Iceland. West Germany joined in 1955.	8 members: USSR, Bulgaria, Romania, Albania, East Germany, Poland, Hungary, Czechoslovakia.
<b>Purpose</b> 	Collective defence and military strategy. The principle was that if one member came under attack, it would be seen as an attack on all members.	Formed as a counter-balance to the power of NATO and to protect the security and interests of countries behind the Iron Curtain.
<b>Capabilities</b> 	Approximately 50 divisions (of which 25 were active). In 1952, it was agreed to dramatically increase the strength of NATO forces.	Approximately 5.5 million personnel in 175 divisions, 35,000 tanks and at least 100,000 aircraft.
<b>Nuclear weapons</b> 	Held by the USA, Britain (from 1952) and France (from 1960).	Held by the USSR.
<b>Leadership</b> 	A collective leadership of the member countries. However, the USA provided the majority of funds and fire power and built bases across Western Europe.	Officially a collective organisation like NATO, but in reality all armed forces were controlled by the USSR and all decisions were made in Moscow.



## The space race

The period between the late 1950s and early 1970s saw rapid technological and scientific advancement in space exploration. In the context of the Cold War, it was a race for superiority between the USA and the USSR.

### Timeline: The space race



#### ▼ 4 October 1957



- The USSR sends the first manmade satellite to orbit Earth: **Sputnik**. The Americans had been working on the same thing and the Soviet victory was seen as a triumph for communism.

#### ▼ 3 November 1957



- The USSR sends the first animal into space, a dog named Laika. The Americans scramble to catch up.

#### ▼ 18 December 1958



- The USA launches the first communications satellite into space.

#### ▼ 12 April 1961



- The USSR wins the race to send a human into space with cosmonaut Yuri Gagarin.

#### ▼ 5 May 1961



- The first successful American space flight, controlled by the pilot, Alan Shepard.

#### ▼ 25 May 1961



- President Kennedy announces that, by the end of the decade, an American will land on the moon. His promise seems impossible at the time as technology was a long way from being able to achieve this.

#### ▼ 16 June 1963



- First woman in space: Valentina Tereshkova from the USSR.

#### ▼ 20 July 1969



- Kennedy's promise is fulfilled when Neil Armstrong becomes the first human being to walk on the moon.

#### ▼ 23 April 1971



- First human-crewed space station is launched by the USSR.

#### ▼ 15 July 1975



- The first joint space mission between the USA and the USSR: **Apollo-Soyuz**. It is seen as a symbol of a new age of co-operation between the superpowers.

### Why was there a space race?

The space race between the USSR and the USA developed for two main reasons:

- Propaganda – both countries were keen to show that they were superior and wanted to be seen as leading the world into the modern age.
- Weapons development – the Americans were concerned that nuclear missiles could be launched using the same system as the Soviets used to launch rockets into space. Their concern was justified: intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs) could be carried thousands of miles using rockets.



## RECAP

### The arms race

#### The development of nuclear weaponry

- The use of atomic bombs against Japan in 1945 led to an increase in tension between the superpowers and started a nuclear arms race between them.
- The Soviets successfully detonated their first A-bomb on 29 August 1949.
- The Americans responded by building the **hydrogen bomb** in 1952. The Soviets had built their own within a year.
- Defence budgets rose on both sides as more and more weapons were developed.

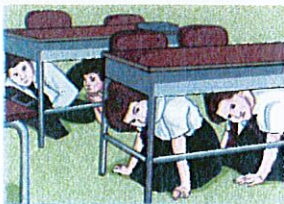


#### Mutually Assured Destruction and Brinkmanship

- Within a few years, both the USSR and the USA had the ability to totally obliterate the other.
- By 1960, the Americans had nuclear missiles that could be fired from land, sea and air, including Polaris, a missile that could be launched from a submarine.
- The knowledge that launching a weapon would lead to retaliation and therefore the destruction of both sides was known as **Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD)**. This is probably the main reason no nuclear weapons were ever launched.
- MAD did not mean that nuclear war did not come close on a number of occasions. From the 1950s onwards, any moment of tension brought the fear of nuclear war. Each side would push the other to the brink of using weapons, knowing that they would eventually back down. This was known as **brinkmanship**.
- The Berlin Blockade and the Korean War both raised the possibility of nuclear weapons being used, but it was during the Cuban Missile Crisis, in 1962, that the world came closest to destruction. After the crisis, the two sides began to discuss reducing their nuclear arsenals and a direct phonenumber between the White House and the Kremlin was created.

#### Preparation for nuclear attack

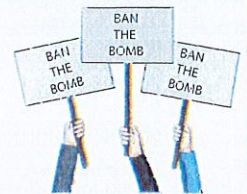
Governments on both sides made preparations for a nuclear war. These ranged from the construction of huge underground bunkers to campaigns to teach children to 'duck and cover' under their school desks. While the bunkers were a serious measure to ensure government could continue to operate, many of the public awareness campaigns were simply attempts to reassure people and prevent panic.



#### The impact of the arms race

#### 'Ban the bomb' movement

From the 1950s, some people questioned whether nuclear weapons were morally right. The Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament (CND) called for Britain to **unilaterally disarm**. Similar movements grew across the Western world.



#### The bomb in popular culture

The nuclear standoff between East and West inspired many works of literature, film and television. One of the most famous is the satirical film *Dr. Strangelove*, which tells the story of an accidental nuclear strike by the USA and the automatic retaliation by the USSR's doomsday machine. The film points out the danger and the absurdity of the situation.



# The Hungarian Uprising, 1956

## Hungary before the uprising

- After the Second World War, Hungary fell within the Soviet sphere of influence and elections were tightly controlled to ensure communists came to power.
- From 1949, the leader was Mátyás Rákosi, a hard-line Stalinist who did not tolerate any opposition. The secret police helped him to keep a firm grip on the country. Many Hungarians began to resent the brutality of Rákosi and the tight control of Moscow.
- Hungary was a strongly Catholic country and the arrest of Cardinal Mindszenty and other religious leaders caused particular anger.
- Following Stalin's death in February 1956, new Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev criticised Stalin's brutality and suggested a more open and peaceful approach from the government. This process was known as '**de-Stalinisation**'.
- Students in Hungary saw this as an opportunity to bring change to the country and gain greater independence from Moscow.



## The Uprising

- 23 October 1956, students took to the streets of the Hungarian capital, Budapest. They issued a list of demands that included:
  - greater freedoms and **civil rights**
  - the removal of Rákosi and the return of the exiled Imre Nagy, a communist who supported reform
  - the withdrawal of Soviet troops.
- The small protests grew quickly and violence began to spread. Soviet tanks were set alight and, in response, some fired on the protesters.
- Nagy called for calm and pledged support for the Hungarian Communist Party. Keen to avoid violence, Khrushchev ordered the withdrawal of Soviet troops from the country between 29 and 31 October, and the protesters celebrated a great victory.



## A new Hungary?

- With Soviet tanks gone, and Nagy as prime minister, it seemed that life in the country would improve.
- Protesters called for even greater reforms and Nagy agreed to withdraw from the Warsaw Pact. On 1 November 1956, he announced that Hungary was now an independent and **neutral** country.



## The Soviet response

- Although Khrushchev had been willing to give some ground, Nagy's decision to leave the Warsaw Pact went too far. He was worried that other members might be inspired to follow Hungary's example.
- On 4 November, Soviet tanks entered the country and quickly overpowered the Hungarians. The uprising was crushed.
- Nagy was forced from power and later tried and executed. He was replaced by János Kádár, who dealt brutally with any opposition and was totally loyal to Moscow.



## The West's response

- Although many Hungarians believed that the USA would come to their aid, President Eisenhower was clear: Hungary was within the **Soviet sphere of influence** and any American interference risked direct conflict with Moscow.
- The United Nations discussed the issue of Hungary on 4 November. The Security Council held a vote calling the USSR to withdraw, but the USSR simply **vetoed** it. Although the General Assembly condemned the USSR's actions, it could do nothing to stop them.
- For most countries, the Suez Crisis was of much more concern than events in Hungary.



# The U2 Crisis and the Paris Peace Summit, 1960

Fear of communism increased among ordinary US citizens and within US politics during the 1950s and 1960s. The thaw in relations between the USA and the USSR came to an abrupt end when the Soviets shot down an American spy plane.

- The U2 spy planes were the USA's most effective method of gathering intelligence. They flew at a height of 23,000 metres and were able to photograph weapons development without detection.
- This was until the plane flown by US pilot Gary Powers was shot down by the USSR's new, more powerful, anti-aircraft guns on 1 May 1960.
- The Americans claimed that it was simply a weather plane that had strayed into Soviet territory, but there was clear evidence that this was not the case.
- Powers was eventually put on trial and sentenced to ten years' imprisonment.



## The immediate consequences: a failed peace summit

- A day after claiming that it was a weather plane, the US government admitted that it was a spy plane. President Eisenhower refused to apologise.
- Eisenhower and Khrushchev were due to meet at the long-planned **Paris Peace Summit** in May 1960. The **U2 Crisis** completely overshadowed the event.
- Khrushchev was highly critical of Eisenhower, describing him as a 'thief caught red-handed in his theft'. He walked out of the summit before any discussions could take place.
- Khrushchev cancelled what was due to be a historic trip by the US president to the USSR in June.
- Eisenhower promised only to 'suspend' spy flights and Khrushchev refused to meet the president again.

## The wider consequences

- The Paris Peace Summit was supposed to represent a step towards improved relations and to build on Khrushchev's call for 'peaceful co-existence' between East and West. Eisenhower hoped to end his presidency by improving the USA's relationship with the USSR. Instead, tensions were higher than ever.
- On the surface, the growth in tension seemed to be entirely the fault of the Americans. However, some have argued that Khrushchev wanted the summit to fail to show his political opponents in Moscow that he was a tough leader on the world stage.

## The fear of spies in the USA

While tensions were running high abroad, the USA was itself in a growing state of fear about communism at home. Throughout the 1950s, Senator Joseph McCarthy led a campaign to root out communism in the USA, while the **House Un-American Activities Committee** (HUAC) investigated anyone with the slightest suspicion of links to communism. People began to believe that there were indeed 'reds under the bed'.

Most of those accused were innocent but, in 1950, a State Department official, Alger Hiss, was found to have passed secrets to the USSR. Julius and Ethel Rosenberg were also executed for being Soviet spies.



# The Berlin Wall



## RECAP

### The Berlin problem

- Berlin had been divided since 1945: the USSR controlled East Berlin while the West became an island of capitalism behind the Iron Curtain. The USSR saw West Berlin as an embarrassment, while the West saw it as a strategic and symbolic victory.
- The city had been at the centre of some of the Cold War's biggest moments of tension, most notably the blockade and airlift of 1948–49.
- While citizens of West Berlin enjoyed freedom and luxuries, their eastern neighbours lived in a tightly controlled state.
- Many East Berliners took the opportunity to defect to the West by crossing the border. Once in the western sector, they could travel freely to West Germany. By 1961, thousands were crossing every day.



### The Vienna Summit, 3–4 June 1961

When the new US president, John F. Kennedy, met with Khrushchev in Vienna, it was an opportunity to repair the relations damaged by the U2 Crisis and the Paris Peace Summit. Khrushchev dominated the discussions, and seemed not to take the young and inexperienced Kennedy seriously.

### The Berlin Wall.

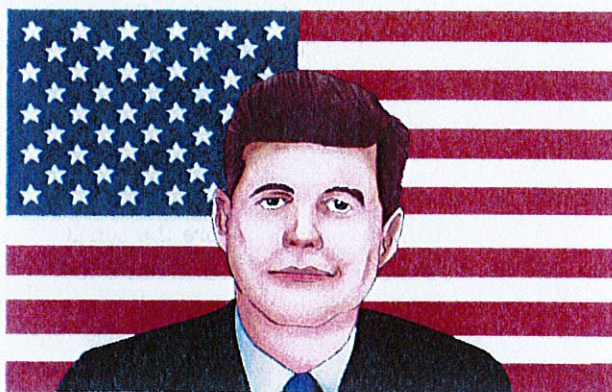
- With thousands defecting from East Berlin to West Berlin every day, something had to be done. On 13 August 1961, East German troops closed the border and stopped anyone from crossing.
- Within a few hours, barbed wire fences were put up and trains were stopped from crossing the border. The fences zigzagged through the middle of the city, dividing streets, and even buildings.
- Over the following week, the fence was replaced by a concrete wall that would remain in place for nearly 30 years.
- The official reason given for the wall was that it was to stop Western spies from entering Soviet territory but, in reality, it was to stop the many educated people who were leaving East Berlin. It also prevented East Berliners from seeing what life was like in West Berlin.



## Kennedy and Berlin

### A young president

When John F. Kennedy became US president in January 1961, he was 30 years younger than his predecessor. Many Americans saw him as a break with the past and as representing a more optimistic view of the future. His critics saw him as far too inexperienced on the world stage and the first few months of his presidency, with the Vienna Summit and the building of the Berlin Wall, seemed to confirm these fears.



### Another crisis in Berlin

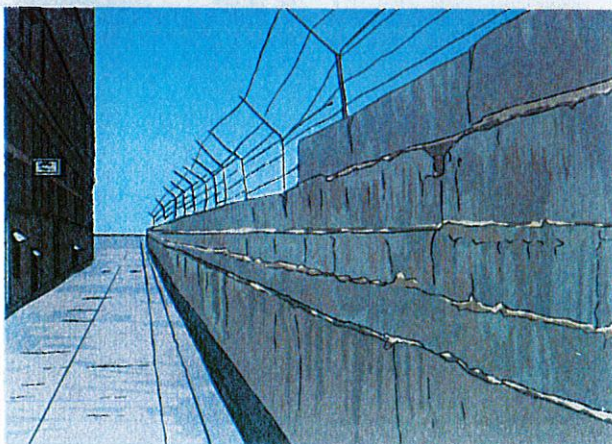
In October 1961, there was another moment of tension when an American diplomat was refused entry to East Berlin. The incident led to a stand off at the border, which included tanks. The crisis was averted when Kennedy and Khrushchev both agreed to withdraw. The two sides took turns reversing their tanks 5 metres at a time. The slightest error could have led to war.



### Kennedy's response to the wall

Kennedy was angered by the wall's construction, but he was also practical. As long as West Berlin remained free, East Berlin was not worth a war.

In June 1963, he travelled to West Berlin where he visited the wall and looked over into the East. It was a highly symbolic visit to the very centre of the Cold War. The speech he gave there made clear that the USA remained committed to fighting communism, using Berlin as an example and proclaiming, 'Ich bin ein Berliner' (I am a Berliner).



# Tensions over Cuba



## RECAP

### Castro's revolution

#### Batista vs Castro

- Between 1933 and 1959, Cuba was ruled by a corrupt and brutal government led by Batista.
- American investment had enabled many members of the Cuban government and US businessmen to become very wealthy, but life for ordinary Cubans was tough.
- By the 1950s, many Cubans were fed up with Batista's regime and a young lawyer named Fidel Castro called for a revolution. He was arrested and sent into exile.
- Castro returned to Cuba, with 81 supporters, in 1956 and began a two-year guerrilla war campaign against the government. His support grew.
- On 1 January 1959, Batista's government collapsed and Castro declared a new Cuba.

#### Castro's Cuba

- Although he and his supporters were left wing, Castro never referred to communism. Instead he talked of a fight by ordinary Cubans for a fairer and freer society.
- Castro visited the USA shortly after coming to power. He said he was willing to work with the Americans, but President Eisenhower refused to meet with him.
- In Cuba, Castro began reorganising the way the country worked, taking businesses and industry into state ownership (including a number of American businesses).
- With the USA unwilling to work with him, Castro turned to the USSR for help in building Cuba's economy. In response, the USA placed an **embargo** on the country (a total ban on trade). Cuba was now totally reliant on the USSR.

### The Bay of Pigs, 1961

With an ally of the USSR on the USA's doorstep, the CIA (America's foreign intelligence service) began to draw up a plan to help Castro's exiled opponents retake Cuba. When Kennedy took office in January 1961, he gave the plan the go ahead.

#### The plan

A large group of Cuban exiles, trained by the CIA, would take control of Cuba. The US Air Force would give them support. The assumption was that the invasion would inspire other Cubans to take up arms against Castro.

#### The problems begin

Shortly before the plan was put into action, it became clear that most Cubans supported Castro and would not join the invasion. A number of senior figures in the US government also felt that their involvement was illegal under international law. However having spent \$5 million on preparations it was decided that the plan was worth the risk.

#### The consequences

Despite Kennedy's late decision, it was still obvious that the USA was involved. The USA had broken international law and been completely humiliated. Kennedy, just months into his presidency, looked weak and incompetent.

Although victorious, Castro knew that the Americans would not give up and this pushed him further into his alliance with the USSR.

#### The invasion

On 17 April 1961, the Cuban exiles landed on the beach in the Bay of Pigs. It was a total disaster. At the last moment, Kennedy withdrew the support of the US Air Force and the exiles were left totally exposed. 200 were killed and 1197 were taken prisoner by Castro's forces. No one in Cuba came to their aid.





## RECAP

# The Cuban Missile Crisis, 1962

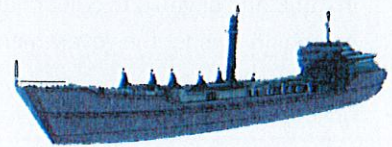
### Soviet missiles in Cuba

- After the Bay of Pigs incident, Castro became closer to Moscow. For Khrushchev, having an ally a few miles from the American coast was an opportunity not to be missed, especially with US bases and nuclear weapons in Turkey near the Soviet border.
- The first nuclear weapons arrived in Cuba in the summer of 1962 but it was not until **14 October** that the US realised what was going on.
- After a week of discussions with his advisors, Kennedy revealed the missiles' existence to the American people. He also ordered a blockade of Cuba, beginning on **21 October**, saying that the US Navy would fire on any ship that tried to reach the island. The following day, he placed the USA on **DEFCON 3**.



### Tensions rise

- Convinced that Kennedy would invade Cuba, Khrushchev prepared for a fight.
- On **23 October**, Soviet ships approached Cuba, carrying more missiles. It was now a game of brinkmanship.
- On **24 October**, the UN Secretary General, U Thant, called for a compromise and the ships faced each other waiting for the other side to back down. The US declared DEFCON 2.



### On the brink of war

- At 7:15am, on **25 October**, a Soviet ship entered the quarantine zone. It was stopped by the Americans, but allowed to pass once it was established it was an oil tanker.
- Kennedy assembled 120,000 US troops in Florida, ready for an invasion of Cuba.
- On **26 October**, Kennedy received a letter from Khrushchev saying that he would remove the missiles.

President Kennedy,  
The White House,  
Washington DC,  
USA



### Danger increases

A number of events, beyond the control of the leaders, made nuclear war seem increasingly likely:

- On **27 October**, the US Navy detected a Soviet submarine close to Cuba. When the Americans sent depth charges to force the submarine to surface, it became clear that the Soviet vessel had not had any contact with the outside world. Believing that a war had begun, the captain almost launched a nuclear torpedo.
- On the same morning, the Cubans shot down a Soviet spy plane.
- Later in the day, another American plane drifted into Soviet airspace.



### Crisis averted

- Later on **27 October**, Khrushchev sent a second letter to Kennedy. Once again he promised to remove the missiles but this time also demanded the removal of US missiles from Turkey and Italy.
- Kennedy agreed on the basis that the removal of US missiles would be kept secret. The crisis was over.

President Kennedy,  
The White House,  
Washington DC,  
USA





# The consequences of the Cuban Missile Crisis

There were positive and negative consequences of the Cuban Missile Crisis, for both the USSR and the USA.

## Khrushchev and the USSR



- ✓ Publicly, Khrushchev claimed that he had agreed to remove the missiles to encourage world peace.
- ✓ He believed that his actions showed that the USSR was willing to support smaller countries against the USA.
- ✓ Cuba remained a close ally of the USSR for the remainder of the Cold War, much to the USA's frustration.
- ✓ The removal of American weapons from Turkey and Italy was also a major victory for Khrushchev, albeit a secret one.

- ✗ Senior figures within the Communist Party felt that Khrushchev had been reckless during the crisis. They also felt that he backed down just as he seemed to be gaining an advantage.
- ✗ Concerns over Khrushchev's handling of the crisis was one of the issues that led to his removal from power on 14 October 1964.

Results of the Cuban Missile Crisis

## Superpower relations after the crisis



## Kennedy and the USA



- ✓ Kennedy had shown that he could stand up to Khrushchev and that he was not a weak leader, silencing many of his critics.
- ✓ The removal of missiles from Cuba meant that there was no direct nuclear threat to the USA. Missiles were not yet powerful enough to reach the USA from the USSR.

- ✗ The removal of American weapons from Turkey and Italy, had it been public knowledge, would have been seen as a major retreat from Europe by the USA.

- The Cuban Missile Crisis drew attention to the risks of brinkmanship and the lack of control that the leaders actually had over events.
- The crisis was only resolved when Kennedy and Khrushchev communicated directly.
- In order to avoid a similar crisis in the future, a special phone 'hotline' was introduced between the White House and the **Kremlin**.
- The **Partial Test Ban Treaty** of 1963 banned the testing of nuclear weapons, except underground.
- Both sides maintained their heavy nuclear arsenals [collection of weapons] but it was recognised that the arms race could not continue in the same way.

# Czechoslovakia



## RECAP

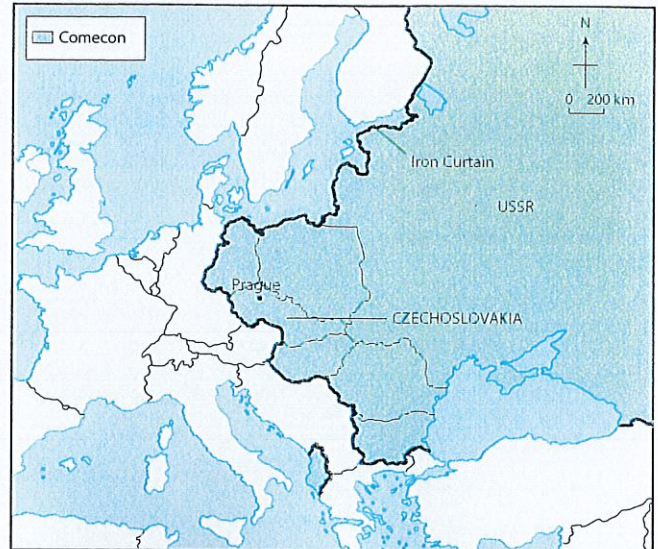
### Dubček and the Prague Spring' movement, 1968

As with other countries behind the Iron Curtain, Czechoslovakia was tightly controlled by Moscow:

- It was a one-party communist state.
- As a member of the Warsaw Pact it answered to Moscow.
- The press and media were tightly controlled and opposition was banned.
- There were almost no opportunities to see what life was like outside the country.

However, by the 1960s:

- Economic problems were mounting.
- The country's leader, Antonín Novotný, was corrupt and unpopular. Calls for reform were growing, most notably by the respected economist Ota Šik, who argued that ordinary people should have more power and that the ban on private businesses should be lifted.
- Moscow rejected the calls for change.



#### 'Socialism with a human face'

In January 1968, Novotný was forced to resign by the Soviet government. He was replaced by Alexander Dubček, whom Moscow believed would calm the situation. Much to their surprise, he began introducing reforms, including:

- the removal of state controls on industry, allowing Czechs to run their own businesses
- allowing public meetings and freedom of speech
- ending press censorship
- giving Czechs the right to visit non-communist countries
- allowing the formation of **trade unions**.

Although very unhappy, Moscow allowed the reforms to stand. Moscow's acceptance of the changes encouraged Dubček to go further. He announced plans to open the borders with Western countries and remove all remaining censorship of the press. The changes in Czechoslovakia became known as the **Prague Spring**.

### The challenge for Brezhnev

The Prague Spring was the first major challenge for Leonid Brezhnev, the new Soviet leader. He needed to maintain control of Czechoslovakia, without causing more problems. The situation was made worse by students in Poland calling for reform to be allowed in their country. Other Warsaw Pact leaders were concerned.

As Dubček's reforms became bolder, the Warsaw Pact demanded action.

- The Pact met in June 1968. The decision was made to carry out military exercises along the Czech border. This sent a clear message to Dubček.
- In July, the Warsaw Pact met again, this time without Czechoslovakia, and issued the Warsaw Letter. This was a final warning to Dubček to back down on his reforms. The Czech leader did not listen, and the Warsaw Pact used force to solve the problem.



## The Soviet invasion and its effects on East-West relations

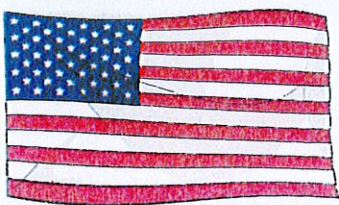
On 20 August 1968, Soviet forces entered Czechoslovakia and seized control of Prague. Although there was some civilian resistance, Dubček ordered the Czech army not to resist. A hundred protesters were killed and 500 were wounded. The Prague Spring was over and a new hard-line government was installed by Moscow.

The global communist response	The Western response
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Communists around the world were outraged by the USSR's actions.</li> <li>• Many communists in the West saw the invasion as a betrayal of communist principles and an act of imperialism.</li> <li>• There were protests in Yugoslavia and China – communist countries that were not part of the Soviet sphere of influence.</li> <li>• There was even a small protest in Red Square, Moscow.</li> <li>• The biggest threat to Soviet leaders came from the Red Army. The soldiers had been told that the invasion was at the request of the Czech people. When they arrived, it was clear that this was a lie. Returning soldiers shared their experiences and this damaged the reputation of the Soviet leadership.</li> <li>• For many, events in Czechoslovakia destroyed their faith in communism.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The USA condemned the invasion and cancelled a meeting between Brezhnev and President Johnson. However, the American government was much more concerned with the situation in Vietnam and wanted to avoid increased tensions with Moscow.</li> <li>• Other Western governments condemned the invasion and there was an attempt to pass a Resolution, or statement, at the United Nations condemning the violence. The USSR's veto made this impossible.</li> <li>• It had been established in Hungary, in 1956, that the West would not interfere with Soviet action behind the Iron Curtain.</li> </ul>

## The Brezhnev Doctrine

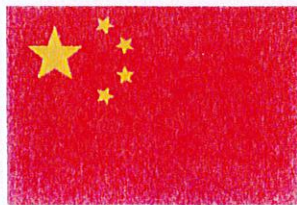
In November 1968, Brezhnev made a speech in which he made clear that if any other Warsaw Pact country behaved in the same way as Czechoslovakia had done, it would face the same consequences.

### Impact in the West



At first the USA ended talks intended to improve relations with the USSR. However, it quickly decided to take a different view of the policy in order to save the progress that had been made.

### Impact in the East



China regarded the Brezhnev Doctrine with suspicion; the Chinese were worried that it suggested the USSR might interfere in China, which was undergoing a cultural revolution.

# An easing of tension



## RECAP

### Sources of tension

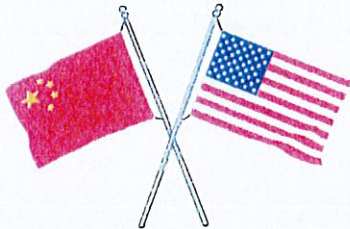
By the late 1960s, both sides were keen to avoid the high levels of tension that had almost led to nuclear war. However, there remained two main issues between the superpowers:

1. **Vietnam:** The USA involvement in Vietnam had grown significantly by the end of the 1960s. The Soviets saw the USA's actions as an attempt to force its political system on an area that was embracing communism. The war finally ended in 1973. By 1975, Vietnam was entirely communist
2. **Human rights:** The lack of free speech and other human rights within the USSR and the rest of the Warsaw Pact was a source of concern for the USA. Many saw the Cold War as a struggle between freedom and oppression. Although the issue did not disappear, American leaders did not want it to stop progress when it came to peace talks and so chose not to push the issue

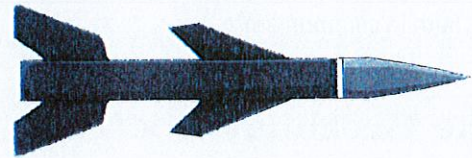
### Détente

The period from the late 1960s to the early 1970s saw an improved relationship between the USSR and the USA. There was much more dialogue between the leaders and the threat of war decreased – there was even a joint space mission!

There were four main reasons for **détente**:



**The China-Soviet split:** As relations between Moscow and Beijing deteriorated, the USA seized the opportunity to build a relationship with the world's second communist power. In February 1972, Richard Nixon became the first US president to visit China.



**The nuclear issue:** The Cuban Missile Crisis had shown that neither side was willing to use nuclear weapons and bring about their own destruction. There was also concern that other less stable countries could develop nuclear bombs. Co-operation could help limit the spread of the technology.

#### Reasons for détente



**The lessons of conflict:** The war in Vietnam had shown that nuclear weapons did not help win conventional wars. Neither side wanted war with the other and so talking made sense.



**The economic issue:** Both countries were spending billions of dollars fighting the Cold War. Continuing the arms race would have bankrupted the USSR.



## SALT I

The **Strategic Arms Limitation Talks** (SALT), which began in 1969, were the most serious talks that have ever taken place between the two superpowers. A number of treaties were signed that included:

- banning new ballistic missiles
- reducing the number of anti-ballistic missile defence systems that could be built.

SALT I was officially signed by Brezhnev and Nixon at the Moscow Summit of May 1972. Talks for SALT II began immediately. The improved relations did not last, however, and the Cold War continued for another 20 years with significant moments of tension, most notably in Africa, the Middle East and Central America.

## Cold War warriors to peacemakers: Nixon and Brezhnev

Nixon and Brezhnev were unlikely peace makers. Nixon had built his career as an anti-communist in the US Senate and as Eisenhower's vice president. Brezhnev had been a senior figure in Moscow since the days of Stalin. Some have argued that their experiences helped them to understand what was at stake if tensions were allowed to increase once again.

## SUMMARY

- By the late 1960s, tensions still remained between the superpowers, particularly over the issues of Vietnam and human rights.
- Détente was the result of a number of factors, including a desire to avoid a return to the brinkmanship of the first half of the decade.
- SALT I represented the most serious peace talks of the Cold War.

**boycotting** refusing to buy goods or services from someone for political reasons

**de-Stalinisation** the period after Stalin's death in which Khrushchev tried to make changes to the USSR

**détente** improving relations between the USSR and the USA during the 1970s

**dollar imperialism** the idea that the USA spreads its influence and power around the world using money

**Domino Theory** the theory followed in the USA from Eisenhower onwards that communism would make countries fall like dominoes; when one country becomes communist, its neighbours would soon fall too

### House Un-American Activities

**Committee (HUAC)** the committee in the US House of Representatives that pursued and investigated those suspected of being involved in 'Un-American' (communist) activity

**ideology** a guiding political belief, e.g. communism

**International Monetary Fund (IMF)** an organisation that oversees the world's economies

**Kremlin** the headquarters of the Soviet government in Moscow during the Cold War; previously the palace of the tsar, now the residence of the Russian president

**Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD)** the idea that the full-scale use of nuclear weapons by opposing sides will cause the complete destruction of all involved

**New Look** the defence policy followed by US President Eisenhower

**proxy war** an indirect war between the superpowers where the USA or USSR fund the other enemy; examples include Korea, Vietnam and Angola

**Red Scare** the widespread fear of communism; it usually refers to the 1920s in the USA but can also refer to other points in the Cold War such as during the McCarthy era of the 1950s

**Secretary of State** the US chief diplomat – the equivalent of the UK's Foreign Secretary

**self-determination** the right for people to choose how their country should be governed

**sphere of influence** the idea that the USSR and the USA would have

countries or regions that were under their 'influence' after the Second World War; for Stalin, this was a way of guaranteeing security

**trade union** an organisation of workers, usually in a particular industry, that protects their interests, negotiates pay rates and improves working conditions

**Treaty of Friendship** an agreement made between the USSR and China in 1950

**unilateral disarmament** the policy of giving up nuclear weapons without an agreement from other countries to do the same

**United Nations** an international organisation that aims to stop conflict and encourage cooperation between countries; it was formed after the Second World War

**veto** the right to overrule a decision

**Vietcong** the communist guerrilla fighters in Vietnam

**Viet Minh** Vietnamese communists, supporters of Ho Chi Minh

**World Bank** an international organisation that provides loans to help countries to develop