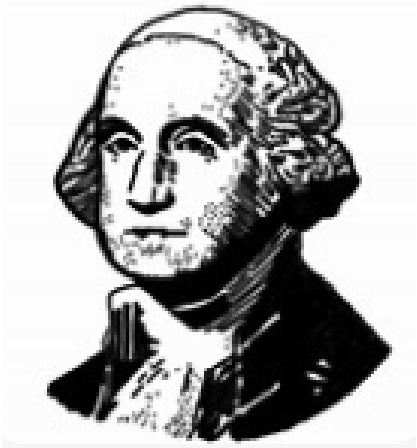
ST MICHAEL'S CATHOLIC SCHOOL

Welcome to History A Level



ACHIEVING IN FAITH, WITH LOVE, AS A COMMUNITY

Weimar, Nazi & West Germany 1918-1989

1. Read the summaries of the three German governments below.

2. Highlight, in different colours, examples of:
   - ❑ The structure of government
   - ❑ Opposition to the government
   - ❑ Support form/control of the people
   - ❑ Economic policies
   - ❑ Culture, education & attitudes towards women.
   - ❑ Attitudes towards the minorities

3. Write a paragraph explaining the biggest change during the three periods.

A Brief Overview of Germany 1918-1989

Weimar Germany

In March 1918 Germany launched a series of assaults on the British and French lines. However they failed to break through and on 8 August 1918 the British counter-attacked with tanks. Furthermore in September the Americans began an offensive against the Germans. Slowly the allies advanced and on 29 September 1918 General Hindenburg advised the government that the war could not be won. The Kaiser abdicated on 9 November and the Social Democrats formed a new government. On 11 November they were forced to sign an armistice with the allies.

However although the Kaiser went the 'pillars' of the old regime, the generals, civil servants and judges remained. A new constitution was drawn up but it had a fatal weakness. It used a system of complete proportional representation. So if a party won 2% of the vote it got 2% of the seats in the Reichstag. This meant there was a huge number of parties in the Reichstag, none of them ever had a majority of seats and Germany was ruled by weak coalition governments. Worse, under Article 48 the President could ignore the Reichstag and pass laws of his own choosing. This was called rule by decree.

In 1919 the German government were forced to sign the Versailles Treaty. However the vast majority of Germans bitterly resented the Versailles Treaty. Firstly the Germans were not consulted on the treaty and they resented being dictated to. They also resented the 'war guilt' clause, which blamed Germany and its allies for causing the war. Worse under the treaty Germany lost a significant part of its territory and its population. A section of land called the Polish corridor was given to Poland so East Prussia was cut off from the main part of Germany. Also Memel was given to Lithuania. After a referendum Eupen-Malmedy was given to Belgium. After another referendum North Schleswig joined Denmark. Alsace-Lorraine was returned to France. Furthermore the Rhineland was demilitarized (no German soldiers were allowed there). In any case Germany was not allowed more than 100,000 soldiers. The Germans were not allowed submarines or battleships. They were not allowed an air force either. Worse still Germany was made to pay 'reparations' (a form of compensation for damage done by the war). The amount was set in 1921. It was the colossal figure of 6,600 million marks and Germany was forced to start paying.

From the start there were attempts to overthrow the government. In January 1919 a group of Communists called Spartacists led a rebellion in Berlin. The government fled to Weimar. As a result the new regime was called the Weimar Republic. (Even though it soon returned to Berlin). The Communist uprising in Berlin was crushed by the Freikorps (free corps). They were ex-soldiers bearing arms. In April 1919 more communists seized power in Bavaria. Again the Freikorps crushed

them. Then in March 1920 a group of Freikorps led by Dr Kapp tried to take control of Berlin. The army refused to put down the rebellion but the trade unions in Berlin ordered a general strike. As a result the Kapp putsch was defeated.

The early 1920s were years of hardship and near-starvation for many people in Germany. Worse a myth began that Germany had been 'stabbed in the back' in 1918. Some people said that Germany could have fought on and won the war. That was nonsense but it was a powerful myth. The people who agreed to the armistice in 1918 were called 'November criminals'. Extreme right-wingers assassinated some of the so-called November criminals. Matthias Erzberger, who signed the armistice was shot in 1921. Walter Rathenau the foreign minister was shot in 1922.

Meanwhile in January 1919 Anton Drexler formed the German Workers Party in Munich. In September 1919 an Austrian named Adolf Hitler joined. (He did not become a German citizen until 1932). The party believed the myth that Germany was stabbed in the back in 1918. They also wanted all Germans to live together in one Greater Germany. The party was also unashamedly racist and anti-Semitic. In 1920 the party's name was changed to the National Socialist German Workers Party or NAZI party. In 1921 Adolf Hitler became its leader. In 1921 Hitler formed a paramilitary organisation called the Sturmabteilung or SA. They were also called brown shirts because of their brown uniforms. In 1923 Hitler and his tiny party tried to take control of Germany. On 8 November a politician named Gustav von Kahr was the speaker at a beer hall in Bavaria. With him was General von Lossow. At 8.30 pm the SA surrounded the beer hall and Hitler entered with armed men. Kahr and the general were told they were under arrest. However Kahr agreed to lead Hitler's attempt to take over Germany and the two men were allowed to go. As soon as they went they took steps to stop Hitler. When Hitler and his supporters marched through Munich they were met by state troopers in the Odeonsplatz. In the skirmish that followed 4 troopers and 16 Nazis were killed. The Munich putsch promptly collapsed and Hitler fled the scene. He was arrested two days later.

The year 1923 was a very bad one for Weimar Germany. By then Germany had fallen behind with her reparations payments. In response in January 1923 French and Belgian troops occupied the Ruhr, Germany's industrial heartland. German workers in the Ruhr went on strike. They also held huge demonstrations. The striking workers became heroes in Germany and the government printed money to pay them, which led to rapidly increasing inflation. Furthermore production of goods in Germany fell drastically. As a result the price of goods rose very quickly. These two factors, the printed money and the shortage of foods caused inflation in Germany to go through the roof. Inflation became hyperinflation. In January 1923 a loaf of bread cost 250 marks but by September it cost 1.5 million marks. Prices rose so fast that workers had to be paid twice a day and they had to bring baskets or suitcases to take their money home in. As a result of the hyperinflation people lost

their life savings. Money they had in the bank became virtually worthless. On the other hand anyone in debt saw their debts virtually disappear.

Finally in August 1923 Gustav Stresemann became chancellor of Germany. He issued a new currency the Rentenmark to replace the mark, which had become almost worthless. Stresemann lost the post of Chancellor in November 1923 but he became foreign minister instead. Germany began paying reparations again and in 1924 Stresemann negotiated the Dawes plan. Germany's annual repayments were reduced and the USA agreed to lend Germany a huge sum of money to rebuild its economy. In 1925 the French and Belgian troops left the Ruhr and the years from 1925 to 1929 were ones of relative prosperity for Germany. In 1929 Stresemann negotiated the Strong Plan. The amount of reparations was reduced to 1,850 million. Unfortunately the good times in Germany ended with the Wall Street Crash in the USA in 1929.

The depression of the early 1930s was a disaster for Germany. Unemployment was already high in Germany in the 1920s. Even in the peak year of 1928 it was 8.4%. However it soared from the end of 1929. By 1933 unemployment in Germany had risen to 33%. One effect of the depression was that the democratic parties lost support. Instead people turned to radical parties like the Communists or the Nazis. In 1928 the Nazis only gained 2.6% of the vote. By September 1930 they gained 18.3% of the vote. By 1932 they were the largest party in the Reichstag. On January 30 1933 President Hindenburg asked Hitler to become Chancellor of Germany.

Nazi Germany

On 27 February the Reichstag burned down. A Dutchman called Marinus van der Lubbe was arrested and confessed to the crime. Hitler claimed that van der Lubbe did not act alone and that it was a Communist plot. The next day President Hindenburg was persuaded to sign 'Presidential Decree for the Protection of the People and the State', which allowed arbitrary arrest. As a result all the leading Communists were arrested. The last election in Weimar Germany was held on 5 March 1933. The Nazi's still failed to gain a majority of the vote. However on 23 March 1933 Hitler persuaded the Reichstag to pass the enabling law. This would give Hitler the power to pass new laws without the consent of the Reichstag. The new law meant changing Germany's constitution and that would require votes by two thirds of the Reichstags members. Some 80% of the Reichstag voted in favor of the law, only the Social Democrats voted against it.

Hitler wasted no time in introducing a tyrannical regime in Germany. After 1871 Germany was a federal state. It was made up of units called Lander, which had once been independent countries. A governor ruled each. However in April 1933 Hitler replace them with Reich governors, all of who were loyal Nazis. This helped to bring the country even more under Hitler's control. In May Hitler

banned trade unions. To replace them he created the Deutsche Arbeitsfront (German Labour Front) under Robert Ley. It set levels of pay and hours of work. The Social Democratic Party was banned in June 1933. Later that summer other parties dissolved themselves, under pressure from the Nazis. On 14 July 1933 Hitler banned all parties except the Nazi party.

Finally Hitler consolidated his grip on power with a purge called the Night of the Long Knives on 30 June 1934. In 1934 the SA or brown shirts wanted to take over the army. The army was appalled by this idea and Hitler needed the army's support. Moreover the SA had other enemies. In 1925 Hitler created the Schutzstaffel (protection squad) of SS as his bodyguard. Heinrich Himmler the head of the SS resented the fact that the SS was officially part of the SA. He wanted the SS to be a separate organisation. He also wanted more power for himself. Himmler told Hitler that the SA were planning to overthrow him. Hitler himself arrested Rohm the leader of the SA. The SS arrested other important figures in the SA and other prominent critics of the regime. All of them were shot. Then on 2 August 1934 President Hindenburg died. Hitler, the Chancellor took over the President's powers and called himself Fuhrer (leader). The army were made to swear an oath of loyalty of Hitler. (Previously they swore an oath of loyalty to Germany). Furthermore any opponents of the regime (mostly communists and socialists) could be arrested and sent to a concentration camp without trial. (At first although prisoners were beaten and tortured concentration camps were designed as prisons rather than extermination camps).

The Nazis managed to eliminate unemployment in Germany. Partly they did this by rearming (even though this meant breaking the Versailles Treaty). In 1935 Hitler announced that Germany had an air force. He also introduced conscription. In 1936 German troops entered the demilitarized zone of the Rhineland. Britain and France did nothing. Hitler also built roads called autobahns across Germany and he built great public buildings such as the Olympic Stadium for the 1936 Berlin Olympics. All this helped to reduce unemployment. Although there was full employment workers were paid low wages (to keep the German industrialists happy). They also worked long hours. In the 1930s they worked an average of 49 hours a week. During the Second World War this was increased to 60 hours a week or more. To try and keep the workers happy an organisation was formed called (Strength Through Joy). Some workers went on cheap holidays to places like Norway and Italy. However, more often they organised cheap concerts and trips to the theatre.

Hitler's attitude to women was simple. They were to be mothers and housewives. Their role was summed up in the phrase kinder, kuche and kirche (children, kitchen and church). In Nazi Germany married women were encouraged to give up their jobs and they were encouraged to have children. Women who had four children were given a bronze medal. Women who had six were given a silver

medal and women who had eight were given a gold medal. During the Second World War other nations conscripted women to work in industry but Hitler refused to do that.

Hitler hated Jews. In April 1933 he ordered a boycott of Jewish shops. Also in 1933 a law called 'The Law for the Restoration of the Professional Civil Service' banned Jews from working in government jobs. Then in 1935 Hitler passed the Nuremberg laws. The Law for the Protection of German Blood and Honour made it illegal for Jews to marry 'Aryans' (people of Germanic descent). The Reich Citizenship Law stated that Jews could not be German citizens. Worse was to come. On 7 November 1938 a Polish Jew called Herschel Grynszpan shot a German official called Ernst vom Rath at the German embassy in Paris. In response the Germans attacked Jews and Jewish property on 9 November 1938. Jewish homes and shops were attacked and so many windows were broken it was called Kristallnacht (crystal night). Thousands of Jews were sent to concentration camps. The Nazis also decided that the rest of the Jews must pay a fine of 1,000 million marks and they were not eligible for insurance payments. The Nazis also detested Gypsies. In 1935 they were forbidden to marry 'Aryans'. From 1939 onward German Gypsies were deported to Poland. Later, like the Jews they were murdered in concentration camps.

In 1933 Josef Goebbels was made head of the 'Reich Ministry of Popular Enlightenment and Propaganda'. Afterwards newspapers and books were strictly controlled. Nothing critical of the Nazis could be published. The Nazis also arranged for cheap radios to be made so as many people as possible could afford one. The Nazis realized that radio was an effective medium for propaganda. The Nazis also used the cinema. Many Nazi propaganda films were made. The Nazis attacked modern art, which they called degenerate. They also banned music by Jewish composers. The Nazis also disliked jazz music, which they regarded as decadent. In 1933 the Nazis organised a book burning. They seized books in libraries they disapproved of and burned them on bonfires. Furthermore many writers, artists, film directors and musicians fled from Nazi Germany.

The Nazis also controlled education. Children were indoctrinated with Nazi ideas at school. The Nazi version of history was taught and children were taught Nazi racial theories. To further influence young people the Nazis created the Hitler-Jugend (Hitler Youth), which was an organisation boys could join at the age of 14. They went camping and hiking but also learned Nazi ideas. In 1936 membership was effectively made compulsory. For girls the Nazis created the Bund Deutscher Madel (League of German Girls). However not all German youth conformed to Nazi ideas. By the late 1930s groups called Edelweiss Pirates emerged in western Germany (so called because they wore an edelweiss flower). They often beat up members of the Hitler Youth. There were also the Swing-Jugend (Swing Youth). They liked jazz music (which the Nazis disapproved of).

On 1 September 1939 the German Army invaded Poland. On 3 September Britain and France declared war on Germany. However Poland was soon overrun.

Hitler's tyranny did not long outlast him Germany surrendered unconditionally at 11.01 pm on 8 May 1945. The Nazis brought Germany to ruins, its cities reduced to rubble, its industry mostly destroyed. Furthermore Hitler's was cost millions of German lives. This was the legacy of Nazism. The Nazis were, of course, responsible for murdering millions of innocent people. From 1940 Polish Jews were confined in ghettos. When the Germans invaded Russia in 1941 the mass murder of Jews in the east began. At first they were shot. Then at the Wannsee Conference in January 1942 Nazi leaders decided to exterminate all Jews. So they were rounded up and deported to death camps. When they arrived some were selected for work (and worked to death), while others were gassed. Afterwards the bodies were burned. By the end of World War II some 6 million Jews had been murdered.

FRG (West) Germany

The Federal Republic of Germany (FRG), established in 1949, was a democratic and federal parliamentary republic. Its political system was based on the 'Basic Law', which served as its constitution. The FRG had a bicameral legislature consisting of the *Bundestag* (lower house), elected directly by the people through a mixed-member proportional system, and the *Bundesrat* (upper house), which represented the interests of the 16 federal states (Länder). The Chancellor was the head of government and held executive power, while the President served a largely ceremonial role as head of state. The system was designed to prevent authoritarian rule, with strong protections for individual rights and an independent judiciary, including a powerful Constitutional Court to uphold democratic principles and the rule of law.

The Chancellors of the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) played a central role in shaping the country's post-war development. Konrad Adenauer (1949–1963), the first Chancellor, focused on Western integration, economic recovery, and aligning West Germany with NATO and the West. He was followed by Ludwig Erhard (1963–1966), known for promoting the "economic miracle" through his support of the social market economy. Kurt Georg Kiesinger (1966–1969) led a grand coalition but faced growing social unrest. Willy Brandt (1969–1974) introduced Ostpolitik, a policy of improving relations with East Germany and Eastern Europe, and promoted social reforms. Helmut Schmidt (1974–1982) managed economic challenges and strengthened ties with NATO. Finally, Helmut Kohl (1982–1990) oversaw the final years of the FRG and was instrumental in German reunification. Each Chancellor contributed significantly to the FRG's stability, democratic consolidation, and international standing.

Opposition to the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) came from both left-wing and right-wing groups, particularly during the 1960s and 1970s. One of the most prominent left-wing opposition groups was the Socialist German Student Union (SDS), which emerged from the student protest movement. The SDS criticized the FRG's perceived authoritarianism, the lingering influence of former Nazis in government, and the country's support for U.S. foreign policy, especially in Vietnam. As some activists became disillusioned with peaceful protest, more radical groups formed, including the Red Army Faction (RAF), also known as the Baader-Meinhof Group. The RAF engaged in violent acts such as bombings, kidnappings, and assassinations, aiming to overthrow the capitalist system they believed was oppressive and unjust. Their actions prompted a strong state response and widespread public condemnation. Although less prominent, neo-Nazi and right-wing extremist groups also opposed the FRG, but were generally marginalised and often banned.

The economy of the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) experienced rapid growth and transformation after World War II, becoming known as the "Wirtschaftswunder" or economic miracle. This recovery was driven by a combination of Marshall Plan aid, currency reform, and the adoption of the social market economy, which balanced free-market principles with social welfare protections. Under the leadership of figures like Economics Minister Ludwig Erhard, West Germany rebuilt its industrial base, modernised its infrastructure, and became one of the world's leading exporters, especially in cars, chemicals, and machinery. High employment, rising wages, and strong trade unions contributed to a growing middle class and improved living standards. By the 1960s, the FRG had become an economic powerhouse in Europe, with a stable economy that played a key role in its political legitimacy and international influence.

The education system of the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) was structured and largely controlled by the individual federal states (Länder), reflecting the country's federal nature. After four years of primary education (Grundschule), students were directed into one of three secondary school tracks based on academic ability: the Gymnasium for academic study leading to university, the Realschule for technical or mid-level careers, and the Hauptschule for vocational training and manual work. This tripartite system was criticised for reinforcing social divisions, but it aimed to provide tailored education paths. Universities emphasized academic freedom, and educational reforms from the 1960s onwards sought to modernise curricula and expand access to higher education. The system evolved gradually, particularly in response to growing demands for equality, democratic values, and reflection on Germany's Nazi past.

In the early years of the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG), attitudes towards women were largely traditional, with an emphasis on their roles as wives, mothers, and homemakers. The Basic Law guaranteed equality, but in practice, women faced legal and social restrictions—for example, until

1957, married women needed their husband's permission to work. Over time, particularly from the 1970s onwards, women's rights advanced through legal reforms that promoted gender equality in marriage, employment, and education. The women's movement gained momentum, demanding reproductive rights, equal pay, and better childcare provisions. Despite these improvements, women remained underrepresented in politics and senior positions, and a significant gender pay gap persisted. Overall, the FRG saw a gradual shift towards greater gender equality, though traditional expectations continued to influence societal attitudes.

The attitude towards minorities in the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) was initially shaped by the belief that West Germany was a homogenous, ethnic German society. This began to change in the 1950s and 1960s with the arrival of Gastarbeiter (guest workers), primarily from Turkey, Italy, and Southern Europe, who were invited to fill labour shortages during the economic boom. These workers were expected to stay temporarily, and as a result, integration policies were minimal. Over time, many settled permanently, leading to challenges around cultural integration, citizenship rights, and social acceptance. Discrimination and exclusion were common, especially in housing, employment, and education. It wasn't until the 1980s that more active discussions and policies around multiculturalism and minority rights began to emerge. While the FRG officially promoted democratic values and human rights, in practice, minorities often struggled for full social and legal recognition within West German society.

Italian Unification (1848-1870)

Read this document and summarise the story of Italian Unification on one page of A4.

You must:

- ❑ **State the main reasons for unification**
- ❑ **Suggest the problems faced when unifying Italy**
- ❑ **Write a description of the key people involved in unification**
- ❑ **Was it a smooth transition from individual states to a unified country**
- ❑ **Define the words: Risorgimento, Realpolitik, Irredentism and Unification**

Summary

The movement to unite Italy into one cultural and political entity was known as the Risorgimento (literally, "resurgence"). Giuseppe Mazzini and his leading pupil, Giuseppe Garibaldi, failed in their attempt to create an Italy united by democracy. Garibaldi, supported by his legion of Red Shirts--mostly young Italian democrats who used the 1848 revolutions as a opportunity for democratic uprising--failed in the face of the resurgence of conservative power in Europe. However, it was the aristocratic politician named Camillo di Cavour who finally, using the tools of realpolitik, united Italy under the crown of Sardinia.

"Realpolitik" is the notion that politics must be conducted in terms of the realistic assessment of power and the self-interest of individual nation-states (and the pursuit of those interests by any means, often ruthless and violent ones) and Cavour used it superbly. In 1855, as prime minister of Sardinia, he involved the kingdom on the British and French side of the Crimean War, using the peace conference to give international publicity to the cause of Italian unification. In 1858, he formed an alliance with France, one that included a pledge of military support if necessary, against Austria, Italy's major obstacle to unification. After a planned provocation of Vienna, Austria declared war against Sardinia in 1859 and was easily defeated by the French army. The peace, signed in November 1959 in Zurich, Switzerland, joined Lombardy, a formerly Austrian province, with Sardinia. In return, France received Savoy and Nice from Italy--a small price to pay for paving the way to unification.

Inspired by Cavour's success against Austria, revolutionary assemblies in the central Italian provinces of Tuscany, Parma, Modena, and Romagna voted in favor of unification with Sardinia in the summer of 1859. In the spring of 1860, Garibaldi came out of his self-imposed exile to lead a latter day Red Shirt army, known as the Thousand, in southern Italy. By the end of the year, Garibaldi had liberated Sicily and Naples, which together made up the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies. Cavour, however, worried that Garibaldi, a democrat, was replacing Sardinia, a constitutional monarchy, as the unifier of Italy. To put an end to Garibaldi's offensive, Cavour ordered Sardinian troops into the Papal States and the Kingdom of Naples. After securing important victories in these regions, Cavour organized plebiscites, or popular votes, to annex Naples to Sardinia. Garibaldi, outmaneuvered by the experienced realist Cavour, yielded his territories to Cavour in the name of Italian unification. In 1861, Italy was declared a united nation-state under the Sardinian king Victor Immanuel II.

Reapolitik continued to work for the new Italian nation. When Prussia defeated Austria in a war in 1866, Italy struck a deal with Berlin, forcing Vienna to turn over Venetia. In addition, when France lost a war to Prussia in 1870, Victor Immanuel II took over Rome when French troops left. The entire boot of Italy was united under one crown.

Commentary

Why did Cavour succeed and Garibaldi fail? Was it really only a matter of speed? If Garibaldi had started his crusade earlier and had time to conquer the Papal State before Cavour sent his troops to do so, would Cavour have been forced to give up his territory in the name of a united Italy? Doubtful. But is speed really the only issue? That, too, is doubtful. It seems that of the two, Cavour alone understood the relationship between national and international events, and was thus able to manipulate foreign policy for his own ends. Garibaldi, a democrat, a warrior, and an anti-Catholic, was without question on the road to conflict with the monarchies of Europe. Cavour, with the added credibility of representing a monarch, blended perfectly with the political situation in Europe at the time.

Cavour was a realist who practice realistic politics. He allied with France when necessary and with France's key enemy, Prussia, was necessary. By keeping the goal in mind, Cavour used international power to achieve his domestic goals. Garibaldi was forced to use his own grassroots strength, empowered by young Italian democrats interested in an idealistic future for their nation. In that manner, it is quite doubtful that Garibaldi would have ever been able to gain the upper hand in Italy, relative to Cavour.

Another important element of unification, especially in Italy's case, was how to deal with various cultural differences. Cavour, despite his leadership in introducing constitutional and liberal reforms in Sardinia, had no patience for such regionalism when his goal was Italian unification. He crushed regional and cultural differences with moderately conservative policies on social and political matters. In doing so, he began to alienate southern peasants and nobles, creating a regional gulf that would come back to haunt Italy in future years.

Creation of the Italian State

The War of 1859 and its aftermath

Victor Emmanuel II

Although Charles Albert had been crushingly defeated in his bid to drive the Austrians from Italy, the Piedmontese did not abandon all hope of aggrandizement. Camillo di Cavour, who became president of the Council of Ministers in 1852, also had expansionist ambitions. Cavour, however, saw that Piedmont would not be able to singlehandedly add to its territory. Instead, he hoped to secure aid from Britain and France in expelling the Austrians from the Italian peninsula. An attempt to gain British and French favor by supporting them in the Crimean War, which Piedmont entered in 1855, was unsuccessful, as Italian matters were ignored at the Congress of Paris. Nevertheless, the war achieved a useful objective—it left Austria, which had uncomfortably tried to balance between the two sides during the war, dangerously isolated.

On January 14, 1858, an Italian nationalist Felice Orsini attempted to assassinate Napoleon III, the French Emperor. Writing from his prison cell, Orsini did not plea for his life, accepting death for his role in the failed assassination attempt, but rather appealed to Napoleon III to fulfill his destiny by aiding the forces of Italian nationalism. Napoleon, who had belonged to the Carbonari in his youth, and who saw himself as an advanced thinker, in tune with the ideas of the day, became convinced that it was his destiny to do something for Italy. In the summer of 1858, Cavour met with Napoleon III at Plombières and the two signed a secret agreement, which was known as the *Patto di Plombières* ("Pact of Plombières"). Cavour and Napoleon III agreed to a joint war against Austria. Piedmont would gain the Austrian territories in Italy (Lombardy and Venetia), as well as the Duchies of Parma and Modena, while France would be rewarded with Piedmont's transalpine territories of Savoy and Nice. Central and Southern Italy would remain largely as it was, although there was some talk that the Emperor's cousin Prince Napoleon would replace the Habsburgs in Tuscany. In order to allow the French to intervene without appearing as the aggressors, Cavour was to provoke the Austrians into aggression by encouraging revolutionary activity in Lombardy.

At first, things did not work out as planned. The Austrians, ignorant of the secret agreement signed at Plombières, were surprisingly patient in dealing with the Piedmontese-inspired insurrections. The Piedmontese mobilization in March 1859 was then something of an admission of defeat, as it appeared that the strategy of provoking the Austrians into aggression had failed. Without Austrian

aggression, the French could not intervene, and without French support, Cavour was unwilling to risk war. At this time however, the Austrians conveniently made their opponents' task easier by sending an ultimatum to the Piedmontese demanding demobilization. This the Piedmontese could conveniently reject and, by making Austria seem the aggressor, allowed the French to intervene.

The war itself was quite short. The Austrian advance into Piedmont was incompetent, and they were unable to secure the Alpine passes before the arrival of the French army, led personally by Napoleon. At the Battle of Magenta on June 4, the French and Sardinians were victorious over the Austrian army of Count Gyulai, leading to Austrian withdrawal from most of Lombardy and a triumphal entry by Napoleon and Victor Emmanuel into Milan. On June 24, a second battle was fought between the two armies at Solferino. This bloody engagement, at which the Austrian Emperor Franz Joseph had also taken personal command of his troops, saw little skill demonstrated by the leaders on either side, but the French were again victorious. The Austrians withdrew behind the Quadrilateral of fortresses on the borders of Venetia.

There were many reasons Napoleon III sought peace at this point. Fear that a long and bloody campaign would be necessary to conquer Venetia, fear for his position at home, worry at the intervention of German states, and fear of a too-powerful Piedmont-Sardinia led him to look for a way out. On July 11, he met privately with Franz Joseph at Villafranca, without the knowledge of his Piedmontese allies. Together, the two agreed on the outlines of a settlement to the conflict. The Austrians would retain Venetia, but would cede Lombardy to the French, who would then immediately cede it to Piedmont (the Austrians were unwilling to themselves cede the area to Piedmont). Otherwise, the Italian borders would remain unchanged. In Central Italy, where the authorities had universally been expelled following the outbreak of war, the rulers of Tuscany, Modena, and Parma, who had fled to Austria, would be restored, while Papal control of the Legations would be resumed. Because Napoleon had not fulfilled the terms of his agreement with Piedmont, he would not gain Savoy and Nice.

The Sardinians were outraged at this betrayal by their ally. Cavour demanded that the war be carried on regardless, and resigned when the more realistic Victor Emmanuel determined that acquiescence was the only realistic option. But the Villafranca agreement would prove a dead letter long before it was formalized into the Treaty of Zurich in November. Piedmontese troops occupied the smaller Italian states and the Legations, and the French proved unwilling to pressure them to withdraw and allow the restoration of the old order, while the Austrians no longer had the power to compel it. In December, Tuscany, Parma, Modena, and the Legations were unified into the United Provinces of Central Italy, and, encouraged by the British, were seeking annexation by the Kingdom of Sardinia.

Cavour, who triumphantly returned to power in January 1860, wished to annex the territories, but realized that French acquiescence was necessary. Napoleon III agreed to recognize the Piedmontese

annexation in exchange for Savoy and Nice. On March 20, 1860, the annexations occurred. Now the Kingdom of Sardinia encompassed most of Northern and Central Italy.

Risorgimento in the Modern era

The process of unification of the Italian people in a national State was not completed in the nineteenth century. Many Italians remained outside the borders of the Kingdom of Italy and this situation created the Italian irredentism.

Dialects of the Italians during the unification of Italy

Italia irredenta (Unredeemed Italy) was an Italian nationalist opinion movement that emerged after Italian unification. It advocated irredentism among the Italian people as well as other nationalities who were willing to become Italian and as a movement; it is also known as "Italian irredentism." Not a formal organization, it was just an opinion movement that claimed that Italy had to reach its "natural borders." Similar patriotic and nationalistic ideas were common in Europe in the 19th century.

How Italy Was Unified - GARIBALDI and the UNIFICATION of ITALY

In early 1861 a national parliament convened and proclaimed the Kingdom of Italy, with Victor Emmanuel II as its king. At this point, there were only two major territories outside of the parameters of the new Kingdom of Italy: Rome and Venetia.

Venice (Venetia) was still controlled by Austria. How would the new Kingdom of Italy wrest control of Venice from Austria?

The short answer ... go to war.

The U.S. State Department provides an overview of those efforts:

In 1866, Italy joined Prussia in a campaign against Austria (the 1866 Austro-Prussian War) and thus won Venetia.

That left Rome—the place where the Pope was living—as the only place on the Italian peninsula which was not-yet unified with the rest of the Kingdom. How would Italian forces add Rome to the newly unified kingdom?

At the time—in 1870—French forces were responsible for guarding the Pope. France, however, was distracted by another war—the Franco-Prussian War (1870-71)—which gave the Italian army an opening.

Italian forces marched into Rome, in 1870, and took over. That year both Rome and the Papal States were incorporated into the Kingdom of Italy.

The goal of *Risorgimento*—at least for some individuals, but not for all (such as Mazzini who still wanted his country to be a Republic)—was complete. And ... now that Rome was part of a unified Italy ... the "Eternal City" could become the country's capital.

That happened during 1871.

The process of unifying Italy, into a single country, was one of the great events of the 19th century. However, it was neither a quick nor simple process. And ... it took even more years for people living in Italy to speak a common language.

Why was that?

Because Italian—a language stemming from the Tuscan dialect, used by poets such as Dante (who mixed southern Italian dialects and languages, especially Sicilian, with his native Tuscan), Boccaccio and Petrarca—was definitely not the country's most-predominant language in 1871.

In fact:

- Today's "Italian" was such a little-known language that it was only spoken (and understood) by roughly 3-5% of all people who were living in the newly unified country.
- It wasn't until the advent of television, during the second half of the 20th century, that Italy's "official" language became widely understood throughout the Italian peninsula.
- The Italian parliament didn't approve a Constitutional resolution—stating that "The Italian language is the official language of the Republic"—until 2007 (when the vote passed by 361 votes to 75).

Why did 75 Members of Parliament oppose this Constitutional recognition of Italian as the country's official language? Because people throughout Italy still speak their own regional dialects (just like they favor regional foods and cultural traditions).

Poverty & Public Health 1780-1939

The last unit looks at poverty and public health and the changes that happened to bring us to our modern ways of dealing with these areas.

Below are a number of sources that give you some information about why these changes took place and what they changed.

1. For each source you need to annotate and decide what it tells you about poverty & public health.
2. Decide which source is MOST valuable for finding out wat changed and why changes were made

SOURCE 2

A letter sent by Robert Fitch to the overseers of Royston, Hertfordshire, early in the 19th century, while he and his family were living in Kent. The exact year in which the letter was written is not known, but the letter is dated 21 February. The 'examination' to which he refers is his Certificate of Settlement.

Sir

I have sent you my examination in a letter. But you have sent me no word about it as to whether you mean to relieve me or not. But if you don't believe me, I shall send my wife and five children home to your parish anyway. I have enquired into the law and you can't take only the two of my children into the House [workhouse] which are above seven years old for you can't take the others away from her until they are seven years old. So if you don't think it proper to relieve me I shall sell my things to pay my debts. Then I shall go to sea or for a soldier. So then you will have to keep them all. It seems to me that you mean to drive me to it for I can't maintain them with my pay. And if you will get me a house to live in and find me work at my trade I will come home. And then I must have things to put in, for I am sure that I shan't have any money to buy goods with. So I will be glad if you will send me an answer about it.

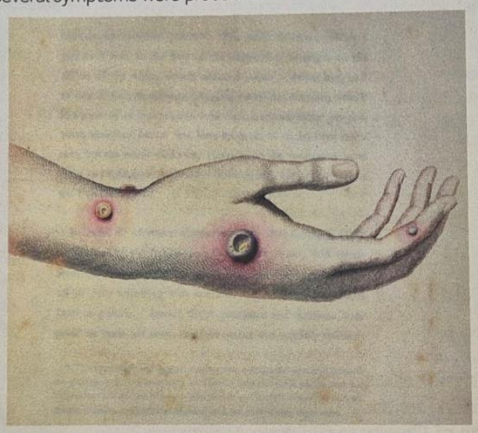
From
Yours truly, Robt Fitch
(Brasted, Kent)

SOURCE 6

From Edward Jenner *An Enquiry into the causes and effects of Variola Vaccinae, known by the name of cowpox*, published in 1798. Jenner gave details of 23 cases before reaching his conclusion.

CASE 16

Sarah Nelmes, a dairymaid near this place, was infected with the cowpox from her master's cows in May 1796. A large sore and several symptoms were produced.



CASE 17

James Phipps. I selected a healthy boy, about eight years old. The matter was taken from the sore on the hand of Sarah Nelmes and it was inserted on 14th May 1796 into the arm of the boy by two cuts each about half an inch long. On the seventh day he complained of uneasiness, on the ninth he became a little chilly, lost his appetite and had a slight headache and spent the night with some degree of restlessness, but on the day following he was perfectly well.

In order to ascertain whether the boy was secure from the contagion of smallpox, he was inoculated with smallpox matter, but no disease followed. Several months later he was again inoculated with smallpox matter, but again no disease followed...

I conclude that the cowpox protects the human constitution from the infection of the smallpox.

SOURCE 7 From Edwin Chadwick's *Report on the Sanitary Condition of the Labouring Population of Great Britain*, published in 1842.

The annual loss of life from filth and bad ventilation are greater than the loss from death or wounds in any wars in which the country has been engaged in modern times.

The various forms of epidemic, endemic and other diseases caused, or aggravated, or propagated chiefly amongst the labouring classes by atmospheric impurities produced by decomposing animal and vegetable substances, by damp and filth, and close and overcrowded dwellings prevail amongst the population in every part of the kingdom. That such disease, wherever its attacks are frequent, is always found in connection with the physical circumstances above specified, and that where those circumstances are removed by drainage, proper cleansing, better ventilation, and other means of diminishing atmospheric impurity, the frequency and intensity of such disease is abated; and where the removal of the noxious agencies appears to be complete, such disease almost entirely disappears...

Of the 43,000 cases of widowhood, and the 112,000 cases of destitute orphans relieved by the poor rates in England and Wales alone, it appears that the greatest proportion of deaths of the heads of families occurred as a result of the above specified and other removable causes.

The primary and most important measures, and at the same time, the most practicable, and within the recognised province of public administration, are drainage, the removal of all refuse from habitations, streets and roads.

The chief obstacles to the immediate removal of decomposing refuse in towns and habitations have been the expense and annoyance of the labour and cartage required

This expense may be reduced to one-twentieth or to one-thirtieth, by the use of water and removal by improved and cheaper sewers and drains.

For all these purposes, as well as for domestic use, better supplies of water are absolutely necessary.

SOURCE 1

The death certificate of Maria Woolf, dated 18 June 1849.

CERTIFIED COPY OF AN ENTRY OF DEATH

Given at the GENERAL REGISTER OFFICE, SOMERSET HOUSE, LONDON.

The fee for this certificate is 8s. 0d. When application is made by post a handling fee is payable in addition.

Application Number RAS 9254/2/71

REGISTRATION DISTRICT West London

1849. DEATH in the Sub-district of West London in the City of London

Columns:—	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
No.	When and where died	Name and surname	Sex	Age	Occupation	Cause of death	Signature, description, and residence of informant	When registered	Signature of registrar
100	Eighteenth June 1849 106 Shoe Lane St. Brides	Maria Woolf	Female	32 years.	Wife of George Woolf Accountant	Diarrhoea 8 days Cholera 4 days Premature Labour 32 hours Exaustion. Certified.	G. Woolf Present at the Death 106 Shoe Lane London.	Nineteenth June 1849	William Nason Registrar

CERTIFIED to be a true copy of an entry in the certified copy of a Register of Deaths in the District above mentioned.
Given at the General Register Office, Somerset House, London, under the Seal of the said Office, the 17th day of March 1971

This certificate is issued in pursuance of the Births and Deaths Registration Act 1953.
Section 34 provides that any certified copy of an entry purporting to be sealed or stamped with the seal of the General Register Office shall be received as evidence of the birth or death to which it relates without any further or other proof of the entry, and no certified copy purporting to have been given in the said Office shall be of any force or effect unless it is sealed or stamped as aforesaid.
CAUTION.—Any person who (1) falsifies any of the particulars on this certificate, or (2) uses a falsified certificate as true, knowing it to be false, is liable to prosecution.

DA 571745

GENERAL REGISTER OFFICE ENGLAND

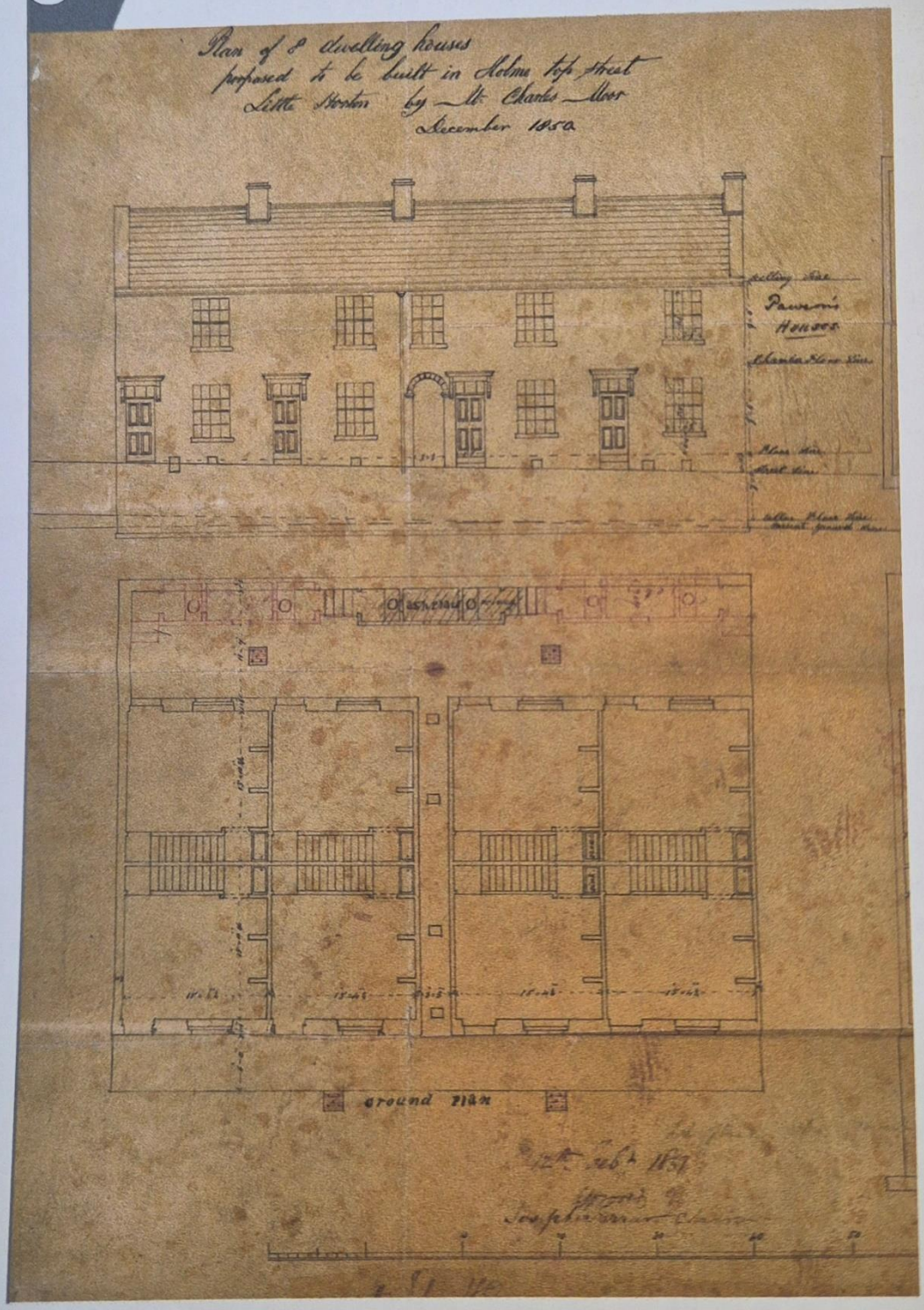
SOURCE 3

Part of a letter from William Martin to the Poor Law Board written in 1850. He is complaining about his treatment by the Clitheroe Union. Across the letter is written 'State that the Board have no power to order relief, but will make enquiry of guardians as to his case'.

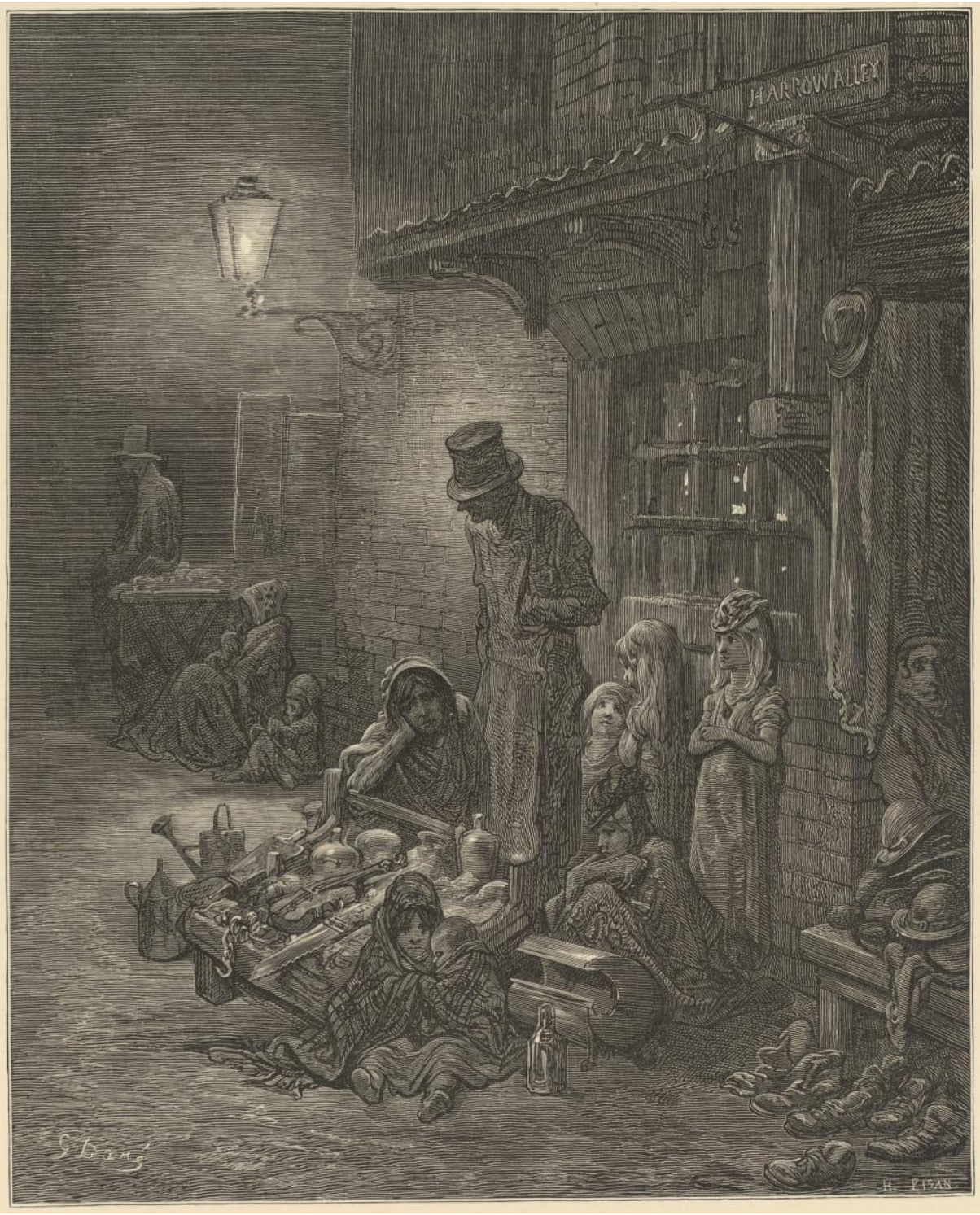
I beg permission to lay a case before you of one name of Wm Martin hawker by occupation; which has a wife and five children... who is reduced by five months sickness of his wife. The surgeon stated that she was in danger of losing her eyesight if she be not cautious. She asked him if moving to the seashore would help and he replied that he thought it would. So I appeared at the Board of Guardians the Tuesday following and I asked them if they would be so kind as to grant me a trifle of money to take her to the seashore. They asked me if I had got a certificate from the surgeon, I answered no sir, they answered if I had brought one they could have done better with me. So I prolonged the time one more week and I got a certificate from Mr Patchett the surgeon. So I appeared again at the Board, on the Tuesday following and they would not grant me one penny. So I resolved before she should lose her eyesight I would sell all my chattels. So on Sunday following I contrived for her to go down to Blackpool, and she remained there a few days, and returned home again much the better. And in a few days afterwards she was struck with the cholera.

On 13th December 1849 she went to the Relieving Officer and he gave her an order for the workhouse and she asked him for a horse and cart for it is twelve miles from my cottage and I am sure my children cannot walk such a distance, but he answered he would not.

SOURCE 3 A plan of eight houses to be built in Holme Top Street, Little Horton, Bradford, dated 1852.



Artwork by Gustav Dore of a London Street, from his commissioned work called *Pilgrimage* which looked at the streets of London.



SOURCE 11 From an article 'The Fabian Society and the Insurance Bill' published in the *Clarion*, a weekly socialist newspaper, on 10 November 1911.

Why the Fabian Society is Opposed to the Bill

First and foremost because it imposes upon the wage-earners what is in effect a poll-tax (ie a tax levied irrespective of ability to pay). To put the case in a nutshell, if Mr Lloyd George is not prepared to increase the super-tax, then he may as well give up at once all his great schemes of 'social reform', for it is the most elementary of economic truths that you cannot mitigate the evils of poverty at the expense of the poor.

If, as this Bill proposes, you deduct 4d a week from wages which are at present below the minimum necessary to maintain a family in mere physical efficiency, you are deliberately reducing their already insufficient nourishment, and therefore their power to resist disease.

In its sub-title the Bill is described as a measure for the 'prevention of sickness', but the mere fact that it excludes all non-wage-earning women and children is enough to deprive it of any claim to be taken seriously as a preventive scheme.

The Chancellor claims that he is giving 9d for 4d to every male contributor; but the truth is that the scale of 'minimum' benefits to be provided, although generous enough to the elderly, is only equivalent to what any well-managed friendly society can now offer to any young man or woman for 5d. 'But', it may be asked, 'is not this Bill after all better than nothing?' The answer to this question is, that as far as the better-off workers, who are already members of friendly societies or of strong trade unions are concerned, this bill is certainly better than nothing. It offers them solid financial advantages which the organised section will probably be able to retain. But for the others, the comparatively underpaid, underemployed, and unorganised, the equally emphatic answer is that the Bill is not worth having. From their insufficient incomes it will take 4d a week and in return it will give them no benefits worthy of the name.

If and when the bill comes into force, the problem of low wages will not only remain but will be intensified. Mr Lloyd George is the first Chancellor of the Exchequer who has conceived the plan of making the working classes themselves finance his measure of social reform. If he is successful, he will not be the last.

SOURCE 3 From B.S. Rowntree *Poverty: A Study of Town Life*, published in 1901.

Let us clearly understand what 'mere physical efficiency' means. A family living upon the scale allowed for in this estimate must never spend a penny on railway fare or bus. They must never go into the country unless they walk. They must never purchase a halfpenny newspaper or spend a penny to buy a ticket for a popular concert. They must write no letters to absent children, for they cannot afford to pay the postage. They must never contribute to their church or chapel, or give any help to a neighbour, which costs them money. They cannot save, nor can they join a sick club or Trade Union, because they cannot pay the necessary subscriptions. The children must have no pocket money for dolls, marbles, or sweets. The father must smoke no tobacco, and must drink no beer. The mother must never buy any pretty clothes for herself or for her children, the character of the family wardrobe as for the family diet, being governed by the regulation, 'nothing must be bought but that which is absolutely necessary for the maintenance of physical health, and what is bought must be of the plainest and most economical description'. Should a child fall ill, it must be attended by the parish doctor; should it die, it must be buried by the parish. Finally, the wage-earner must never be absent from his work for a single day.

SOURCE 6 A cartoon, published in 1840, comparing meals under the old and the new poor laws.

SOURCE 5 From James Hole *Homes of the Working Classes*, published in 1866. James Hole was active in the development of mechanics institutes and wrote a large number of books and articles that focused on improving the lives of working people. Mechanics institutes were founded to provide adult education in technical subjects for working men.

They, and those who elect them, are the lower middle class, the owners, generally speaking, of the very property which requires improvement. To ask them to close the cellar dwellings is to ask them to forfeit a portion of their incomes. Every pound they vote for drainage, or other sanitary improvement, is something taken out of their own pocket. To the ratepayers themselves, a little claptrap about centralisation, and still more an appeal to their pockets, is sufficient to cause the rejection of the most useful measures. When contemplating an ugly, ill-built town, where every little freeholder asserts his independent right as a Briton to do what he likes with his own; to inflict his own selfishness, ignorance and obstinacy upon his neighbours, and on posterity for generations to come; and where local self-government means merely mis-government – we are apt to wish for a little wholesome despotism to curb such vagaries.

SOURCE 12 From Charles Dickens' *Oliver Twist*, published in 1838. When he was a boy, Dickens and his family lived in lodgings in Norfolk Street, London. This was close to a workhouse.

'Boy', said the gentleman in the high chair, 'listen to me. You know you're an orphan, I suppose? Well! You have come here to be educated, and taught a useful trade. So you'll begin to pick oakum, tomorrow morning at six o'clock.'

The members of the Board were very wise men. So they established the rule, that all poor people should have the alternative of being starved by a gradual process in the house, or by a quick one out of it. With this view, they contracted with the waterworks to lay on an unlimited supply of water; and with a corn factor to supply the periodically small quantities of oatmeal; and issued three meals of thin gruel a day, with an onion twice a week and half a roll on Sundays. They made a great many other wise and humane regulations, kindly undertook to divorce poor people, and instead of compelling a man to support his family, took his family away from him and made him a bachelor!

The system was rather expensive at first, in consequence of the increase in the undertaker's bill, and the necessity of taking in [altering] the clothes of all the paupers, which fluttered loosely on their wasted, shrunken forms, after a week or two's gruel.

The room in which the boys were fed was a large stone hall, with a copper [stove] at one end, out of which the master, dressed in an apron for the purpose and assisted by one or two women, ladled the gruel at meal-times. Each boy had one porringer [bowl] and no more – except on occasions of great public rejoicing, when he had two ounces and a quarter of bread besides. The bowls never wanted washing. The boys polished them with their spoons till they shone again. Oliver Twist and his companions suffered the tortures of slow starvation for three months.

Oliver remained a close prisoner in the dark and solitary room to which he had been consigned by the wisdom and mercy of the Board. 'If the parish would like him to learn a right pleasant trade, in a good 'spectable chimbley-sweepin bisness,' said Mr Gamfield, 'I wants a 'prentis, and I am ready to take him.'

SOURCE 5 The Jarrow marchers on their way to London, October 1936. The photograph was printed in the *Daily Express* newspaper.

SOURCE 5

An advertising hand bill issued by the South London branch of the Odd Fellows' Friendly Society, c1885. The advertisement shows that the contribution required from members amounted to 7s per quarter, in addition to entrance fees. Hence, it would be unlikely to attract poorer workers.

IMPORTANT NOTICE TO WORKING MEN!

INDEPENDENT ORDER OF

Odd Fellows' Friendly Society

SOUTH LONDON UNITY.;

REGISTERED UNDER THE FRIENDLY SOCIETIES ACT, 1876.

THE

STAR OF TEMPERANCE LODGE

HELD AT

LOCKHART'S COCOA ROOMS,

161, WESTMINSTER BRIDGE ROAD,

EVERY THURSDAY EVENING.

Healthy Men under 40 years of age, who prudently desire to make a provision in case of affliction, and wish to join a really substantial Society, are invited to join this Lodge, which, although not confined to Teetotalers, is opened under Temperance principles and not held at a Public House, which is often a temptation to Members, sometimes causing them to spend more money in attending the Lodge than the actual amount of their contributions; it is also a branch of a vast and flourishing Unity having an accumulated capital as a guarantee of its stability. Particular attention is called to the following low scale of ENTRANCE FEES:—

18 to 21 Years of Age, 2s. 6d.; 21 to 25, 4s.; 25 to 30, 6s.; 30 to 35, 8s. 35 and under 40, 10s.

Not less than 2s. 6d. must be paid on or before Initiation, the balance (if any) within three months.

CONTRIBUTIONS, 7s. PER QUARTER,

Which may be paid weekly or otherwise, to suit the convenience of Members.

No Fines for Stewards. No Levies or any other Extras.

BENEFITS IN SICKNESS—

12s. for 26 Weeks and 6s. for 26 Weeks, and 3s. as long as illness lasts,

With Medical Attendance and Medicine.

Member's Death, £15. **Wife's Death, £7 10s.**

Members travelling in search of employment will receive travelling checks. FREE IMMEDIATELY to Medical Attendance and Medicine; Funeral Benefit in Six Months; to Sick and Travelling Benefits in Twelve Months.

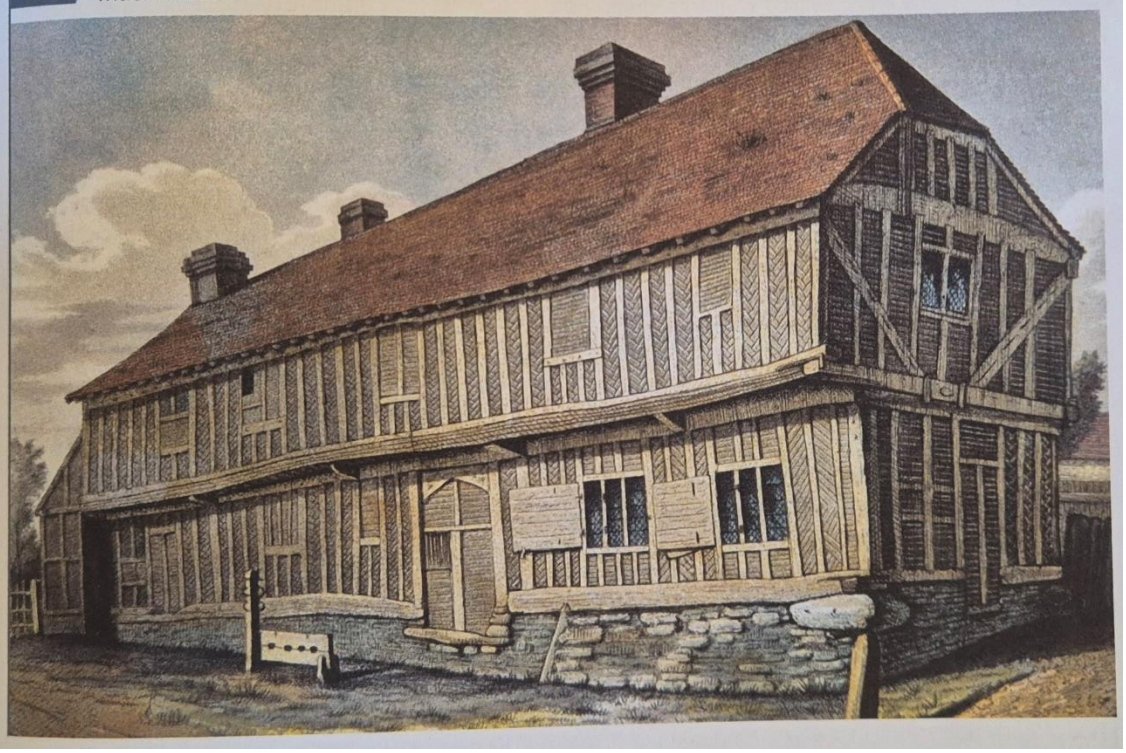
Medical Attendant—Dr. COPPIN, 138, Westminster Bridge Road.

Any further information can be obtained at the above Cocoa Rooms any evening in the week; or of the Secretary, P.G.P. ARTHUR IMHOFE, 39, Auckland Street, Vauxhall.

WILKES & Co., Printers, 63, Newington Butts, S.E.

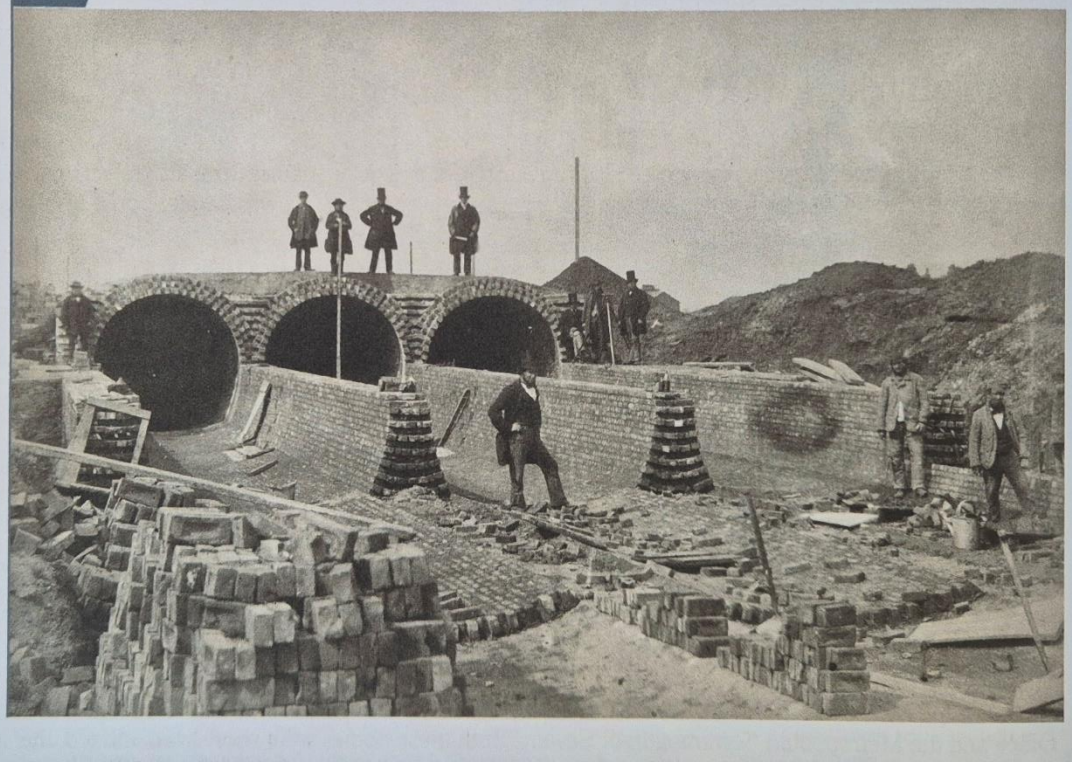
SOURCE 8

The workhouse in Eversholt, Bedfordshire. The print is entitled 'A house near the church, the property of the Poor.' It was drawn in 1815 by Thomas Fisher, but was clearly built much earlier.



SOURCE 12

Joseph Bazalgette inspecting a sewer being dug at Abbey Mills pumping station, east London, in 1862.



A painting titled ‘Mob Burns Hayricks in Kent’ produced in 1830. It looks at the Swing Riots that occurred at this time

The source that is most useful for learning about poverty & public health is…

Because…_____

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