Year 11 Curriculum Overview History 2023-24

	Term 1			Term 2			Term 3
Unit Title	**Paper 1 – Depth Study Conflict and Tension:** **What caused the First World War to happen?**	**Paper 1 - Depth Study Conflict and Tension:** **Why did fighting on the Western Front turn to stalemate?**	**Paper 2 – British Depth Study Normans: 1066-1100** **Conquest and Control**	**Paper 1 - Depth Study Conflict and Tension:** **What led to the end of the First World War?**	**Paper 2 – British Depth Study Normans: 1066-1100** **Life under the Normans**	**Paper 2 – British Depth Study Normans: 1066-1100** **The Norman Church and Monasticism**	**Revision of Paper 1 and Paper 2**
Approximate Number of Lessons	10	10	Weekly master class session	8	6	4	
Curriculum Content	Student will study the long-term causes of the war, including militarism, alliances, imperialism and nationalism, as well as the short-term and trigger causes that sparked the conflict.	Students will study why the trenches were dug on the Western Front, the battles of the Somme and Passchendaele, the conditions on the Western Front and some key battles that took place away from the Western Front.	Students will study how and why the Normans succeeded in conquering and controlling England.	Students will study the impact of the Russian Revolution on the Western Front, America's entry into the war and events in 1918 that led to the Armistice.	Students will study how the Normans used the feudal system to govern Norman England and what life was like for ordinary people in towns and villages.	Students will study how the Norman Conquest affected the English Church and monasteries.	Students will identify gaps in their learning and focus on key content and skills that need revisiting before the final examinations. Structured revision tasks will assist in closing these gaps.

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Links to Prior Learning	KS3: British Empire; First World War		KS3: The Norman Conquest; Medieval Monarchs		
Cultural Capital Opportunities			**Read** Marc Morris' *The Norman Conquest*		
Assessment Focus	Essay	Extended knowledge quiz and source question	**Mock 1: Paper 1** America: 1920-1973 Conflict and Tension: 1894-1918 **Paper 2** Health and the People: 1000-Modern Day Normans: 1066-1100	A combination of GCSE exam questions based on exam question spotting	**Final GCSE exams**
Name of Knowledge Organiser	*03: First World War* *04: The Normans*		*01: America 1920-1973* *03: First World War* *02: Health and the People* *04: The Normans*		***Hodder My Revision Notes: AQA History 9-1 (Second Edition)*** ***ISBN:*** *1510455612*

Knowledge organiser
First World War

Knowledge organiser (part one):
What caused the First World War?

The First World War happened because of a number of reasons. These can be split into **long-term causes** and **short-term causes**. For a long time before the war, tensions in Europe were rising and a war involving many of the biggest and most powerful European countries became very likely. The four main **long-term** causes were **M**ilitarism, **A**lliances, **I**mperialism and **N**ationalism. This can be remembered by using the word **MAIN**.

You will be using the language of causation:

Underlying, root, catalyst, trigger, spark, major, fuels, exacerbates, accelerates, increases, drives.

Militarism

How did this lead to war?

There was an arms race in Europe at the end of the nineteenth century and beginning of the twentieth century.

By 1914, Germany had the biggest build-up of arms in Europe. Germany decided to try to rival Britain's navy and a naval race emerged between these countries.

Britain responded by making its navy even stronger, particularly building strong battleships called dreadnoughts.

The situation was similar in both France and Russia; they too were building up their arms.

Militarism is the belief of a government that a state should have a strong military.

Country	Soldiers	Money Spent in Millions
Britain	750,000	50,000,000
France	1,500,000	40,000,000
Germany	8,250,000	60,000,000
Austria	750,000	22,500,000
Russia	1,250,000	15,500,000
Italy	750,000	10,000,000

European Military spending and the size of their armies, 1913 - 14.

Alliances

How did this lead to war?

By 1914, all the major European countries were involved in an alliance system.

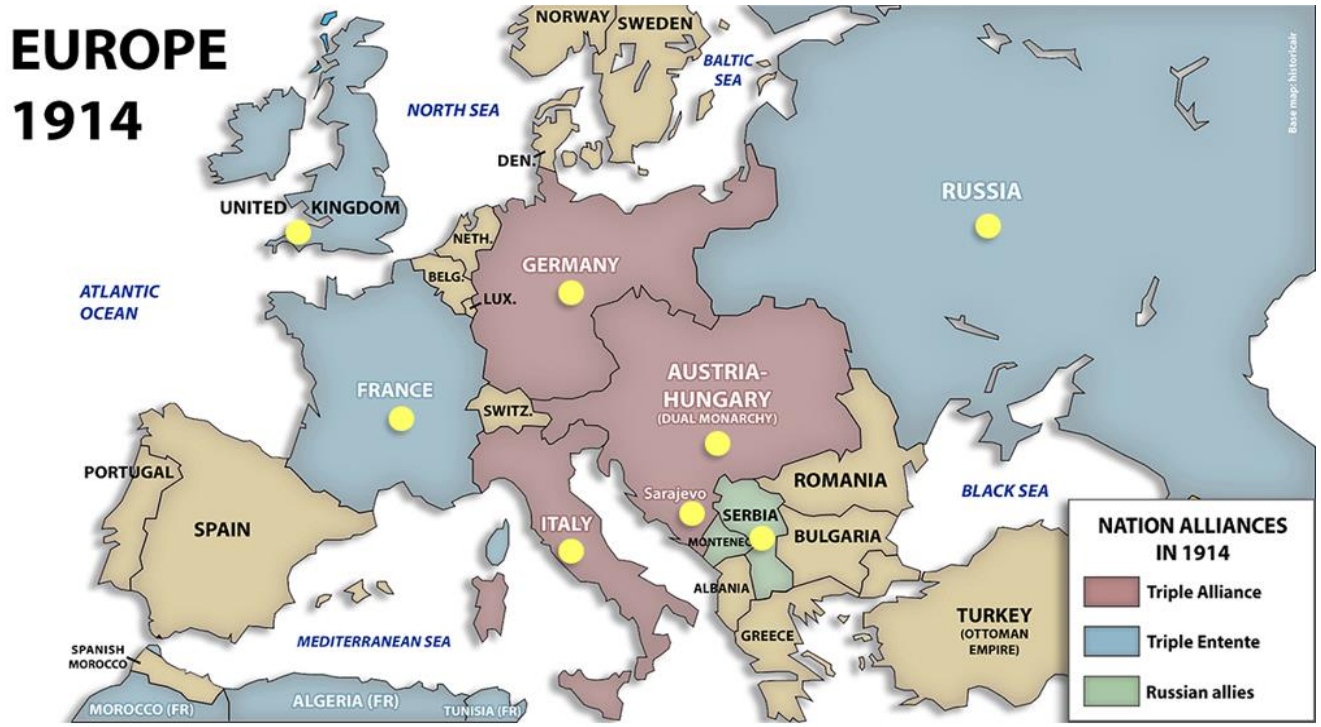
The Triple Alliance was formed in 1882. This involved Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy.

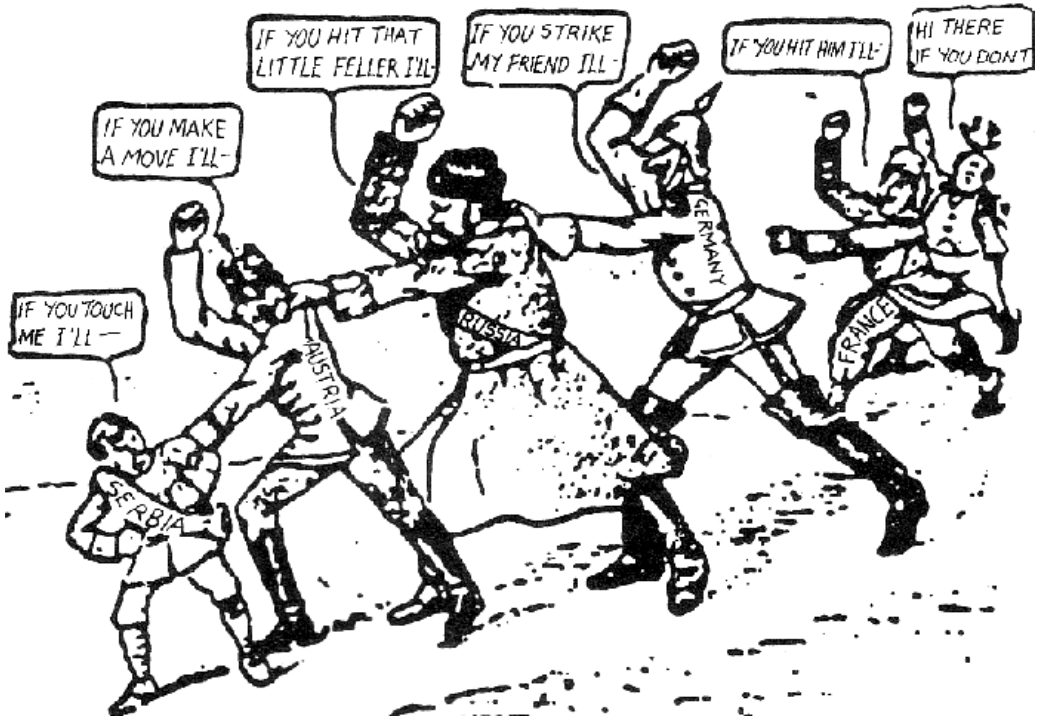
1892 – Franco-Russian Alliance.

1904 – Entente Cordiale between France and Britain.

The Triple Entente was formed in 1907. This involved Great Britain, France and Russia.

Alliance – an agreement made between two or more countries to offer support and protection to one another, particularly at times of war.





Imperialism is a policy or ideology of extending a nation's rule over foreign nations to expand their Empire.

Imperialism

How did this lead to war?

In the years before 1914, the European powers were in competition for colonies and territories, particularly in Africa and Asia. This caused growing tensions and small-scale wars as the European powers looked to increase and protect their own Empires.

Prior to the First World War, Britain had the biggest Empire in the world. At the turn of the 20th century, Britain followed a policy of **'Splendid Isolation'** = *it was isolated from alliances and other nations.*

In 1901 the Kaiser announced he wanted to create an Empire to rival Britain's. This policy was called **'Weltpolitik'** = *world policy.*

The Scramble for Africa 1880-1914

Nationalism

How did this lead to war?

Nationalism is the attitude that your country is superior to other countries and being willing to fight to prove it.

This was an age when all nations wanted to assert their power and independence.

Nations were willing to go to war in order to prove their superiority over other countries. These nations needed men who believed in this to fight for their countries.

Lots of smaller nations were also fighting for their independence against colonial powers. For example, in the Balkans, Serbia was fighting to retain its independence.

The Moroccan Crises

First Moroccan Crisis, 1905-06

France wanted to take over Morocco to build their Empire.
Germany's emperor Kaiser Wilhelm II wanted to prevent this.
Kaiser offered to support Morocco's Sultan in maintaining their independence.
The Algeciras Conference of January 1906 was organised to settle the conflict. France were given joint control of the Moroccan police.
Britain and Russia supported France.
Germany was left humiliated.
The Triple Entente was formed.

The Second Moroccan Crisis, 1911

There was a rebellion in Fez. The Sultan asked the French for help. The French sent 20,000 soldiers.
The Kaiser accused France of invading and sent a gunboat called the Panther to Agadir.

Another conference was held to settle the dispute.
Germany was left humiliated once again.
Britain and France felt Germany was a threat.

When revising the Moroccan Crises and the Problems in the Balkans, consider how this links to **MAIN** (long-term causes of WWI)

Problems in the Balkans

The Bosnian Crisis, 1908-09

The Ottoman Empire was crumbling – known as 'The Sick Man of Europe'.
There was a rebellion in Turkey in 1908 – Austria-Hungary took advantage of this and annexed Bosnia (made it part of their Empire).
Serbia was angry as they wanted to create 'Greater Serbia' to unite all Slavs in the Balkans.
Serbia asked Russia to take action against Austria-Hungary.
Russia called for an international conference to try to offer support for Serbia, but Russia was forced to back down in the face of German support for Austria-Hungary.

Consequences:

Russia start to build their weapons and vowed not to back down again.
Austria-Hungary now felt that they had the full support of Germany.
There was the emergence of Pan-Slavic terrorist groups in Serbia who were prepared to use violence to get rid of Austro-Hungarian influence in he Balkans.

The Balkan Wars, 1912-13

These wars started to finally drive the Turks out of Europe and ended with the Balkan countries arguing over the amount of land they had each taken from Turkey.
Serbia emerged from these wars as the strongest of all Balkan nations.
Serbia became even more determined to create 'Greater Serbia'.
Austria-Hungary felt threatened by this.
Bosnian Slavs wanted independence from Austria-Hungary.

The Assassination

The spark / the trigger…

28th June 1914 – Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, was shot dead in Sarajevo in Bosnia.
This assassination was carried out by a Serbian man, Gavrilo Princip, a member of the Black Hand.
This terrorist group had support from the Serbian government and they were fighting for Slav nationalism.

The July Crisis

The 'domino effect'…

Austria-Hungary blamed Serbia for the assassination.
Germany issued Austria-Hungary a 'blank cheque' and pledged their support for Austria-Hungary against Serbia.
Austria-Hungary issued an ultimatum to Serbia. Serbia were only given 48 hours to respond.
Serbia agreed to 9 out of the 10 demands – the last demand challenged Serbia's independence.
When Austria-Hungary received Serbia's response, they prepared their army to invade Serbia.
This caused a 'domino effect' that meant all of the great powers of Europe were at wat with each other in just over a week:

- Russia supported Serbia against Austria-Hungary.
- Germany declared war on Russia.
- Germany invaded neutral Belgium to get to France – this was part of the *Schlieffen Plan.*
- Britain had signed a treaty with Belgium in 1839 promising to protect Belgium if they were invaded – therefore, Britain declared war on Germany.
- France declared war on Germany and Austria-Hungary declared war on Russia.

Key terms when analysing the causes of the First World War:

Alliance	***Empire***	***Mobilise***	***Splendid Isolation***
Annexation	***Foreign policy***	***Nationalist***	***Treaty***
Arms race	***Imperial***	***Neutrality***	***Tsar***
Assassination	***July Crisis***	***Pan-Slavism***	***Ultimatum***
Colony	***Kaiser***	***Slavs***	***Weltpolitik***

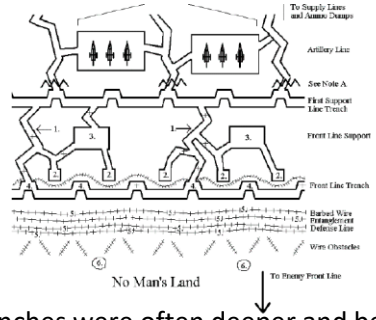
Conflict and Tension (part two): **Stalemate**

What was the Schlieffen Plan?

- Plan was originally created in 1905 to help Germany deal with a potential 'war on two fronts'.
- The plan involved defeating France within 6 weeks then turning the German Army East to fight the Russians.
- The plan involved the German Army going through neutral Belgium to capture Paris.
- Germany assumed the Russian Army would take 6 weeks to mobilise.

What was trench warfare?

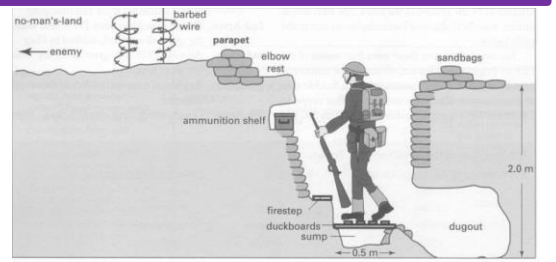
- Usually there were 3 lines of trenches on each side, a front line, support and reserve trenches, all connected by communication trenches.
- The land in between both sides trenches was known as 'no mans land'.
- Where possible the trenches were built in a zig-zag pattern so the blast from exploding bombs could be confined to a small part of the trench.



- The German trenches were often deeper and better constructed. The German Army soon realized trench warfare would not be temporary and tried to provide some comfort for their soldiers, providing electricity, underground bunkers and wallpaper in some cases.
- The British and French assumed the trenches would be temporary so did not put in as much effort with their designs.

What was life like in the trenches?

- In a typical month a solider might spend 4 days in a front line trench, 4 days in a support trench, 8 days in a reserve trench and the rest of the month behind the lines in a local town.
- The extreme weathers in the summer/winter months meant that many soldiers experienced illnesses such as pneumonia, bronchitis and sometimes trench foot. Trench foot was caused by having wet feet for long periods of time and caused the foot to swell and develop open sores.
- A condition called 'Shell Shock' which affected a soldiers mental health was common, the constant fear of death and loud noises meant some soldiers shook uncontrollably or were paralysed without physical injury.
- Almost all soldiers were infested with lice.
- There was no toilets so buckets had to be used instead.
- Rats were a constant problem in the trenches.



Why did the Schlieffen Plan fail?

- Russia only took 10 days to mobilise their army. The German Army ordered 100,000 of its soldiers to leave France and take on Russia in the East.
- The Belgium's put up more resistance than Germany had predicted and slowed down the German advance towards Paris by 4-5 days.
- The BEF (British Expeditionary Force) honoured a 75 year old treaty with Belgium (the Treaty of London) and assisted Belgium resistance.

Battle of the Marne (September 1914)

- Germany were not able to capture Paris, however the German Army had reached 40km outside of Paris near the River Marne.
- The French Army and the BEF were able to push the German Army back from the River Marne to the River Ainse.
- The German retreat highlighted the failure of the Schlieffen Plan.
- The German, French and British Armies began to 'dig in' and dug trenches.

The Race to the Sea

- Neither side could move forward so both sides tried to 'outflank' each other, they dug trenches as they went.
- By November, 1914, both sides had reached the English Channel.
- Over 400 miles of trenches were dug, from Switzerland to the English Channel.
- For the next four years these positions hardly changed. This situation was soon referred to as a Stalemate- a complete inability to move forward.
- The war of movement was over.

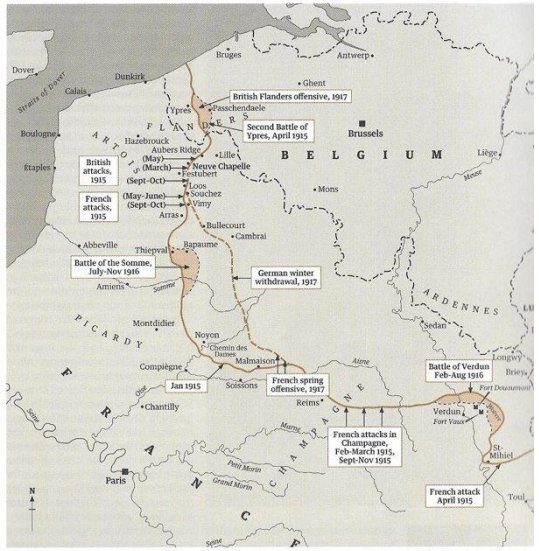
War of Attrition:

Attrition means to wear away. Attrition warfare is an attempt to win a war by wearing down your enemy to the point of collapse through constant bombardment or continuous losses in men, equipment and supplies.

Conflict and Tension (part two): **Stalemate**

The Battle of Verdun

- 21st February- 18th December 1916.
- The longest battle of the First World War.
- The salient of Verdun was held by the French Army and was an important symbol of French resistance, therefore Germany believed France would send as many of their men to try and defend the city.
- The German attack was planned by General Erich Von Falkenhayn, commander of the German Army. Falkenhayn aimed to ***'bleed France white'*** through a war of attrition.
- Little was gained on either side.
- Germany lost 280,000 men, France 315,000.
- France was close to breaking point when the British launched the offensive at the Somme.



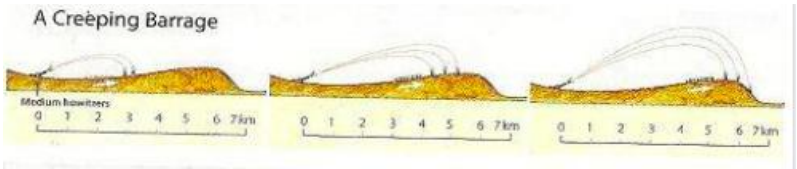
Map of the Western Front. Salient= a bulge in the line. Usually hard to defend.

The Battle of Passchendaele

- Also known as the Third Battle of Ypres. 18th July-November 1917.
- The muddiest battle of the war.
- Prior to this, the British had launched a successful attack at Messines, where a million tonnes of explosives had been detonated to blow up a hill and push the Germans back.
- Encouraged by this success, Haig wanted to launch an offensive towards the town of Ypres.
- The main aim of the British was to capture Belgian ports which were used by the Germans as submarine bases.
- The battle began with a ten day artillery bombardment with over 4.5 million shells fired. During this the area had seen the heaviest rainfall in 30 years.
- The artillery bombardment left the ground soft, muddy and with large mud filled craters.
- The muddy conditions meant that tanks were ineffective, supply lines were hard to get through and many men drowned in the muddy craters.
- By October the British reached the village of Passchendaele, 8km from where they had originally started. By November, the British had captured Passchendaele.
- The British lost around 400,000 in total and the Germans, 300,000.

The Battle of the Somme

- 1st July-18th November 1916. The largest battle of the war.
- The British Army launched an offensive at the Somme to relieve pressure on the French at Verdun.
- The British Army at the Somme was mainly made up of volunteers ***(PALS Battalions)***, whereas the German Army was well trained.
- The British conducted a week long artillery bombardment to try and destroy the German trenches. Over 1.5 million shells were fired.
- German trenches were dug deep so not many were destroyed.
- On the first day of the battle the British were sent 'over the top', however, German machine gunners were waiting for them.
- On the first day of the Somme, there were 60,000 British casualties. It is the known as the worst day in British military history.
- General Sir Douglas Haig is sometimes criticized for the tactics used at the Somme and has been given the nickname ***'The Butcher of the Somme'***.
- A new tactic, ***'the creeping barrage'*** was first used at this battle.
- The British gained land 6km wide and 25km long.
- Over a million men on all sides were lost at the Somme.
- The Somme became known as the 'German graveyard'.



Weapons of war

- **Artillery-** large guns that fire bombs (shells) over long distances.
- **Machine guns-** could fire up to ten bullets per second.
- **Gas attacks-** First used in April 1915 by the Germans, although unreliable as depended on the direction of the wind, soon both sides were using gas attacks.
- **Rifles**- standard weapon given to all soldiers. Could fire up to 600 meters and 15-20 bullets per minute.
- **Bayonet-** a 40 cm knife that was attached to the end of the Rifle. Could be used in close combat rather than bullets.
- **Tanks**- A British invention, bulletproof vehicles that could travel over rough ground and crush barbed wire and cross trenches. Could only travel 5mph. By the end of the war the British had produced 2636 and the Germans only produced 20.

Conflict and Tension (part two): The Wider War

The Gallipoli Campaign (19 February - 12 December 1915)

Background:

- Soon after the war broke out in 1914, Turkey joined on Germany's side.
- Before long, Turkey and Russia were fighting each other in the Caucasus Mountain region, and Russian generals appealed to Britain and France for help.
- They knew that if they could get control of the ***Dardanelles*** then they would be able to control the supply line.
- They also thought that an attack on Turkey would distract Germany from the fighting on the Western Front.

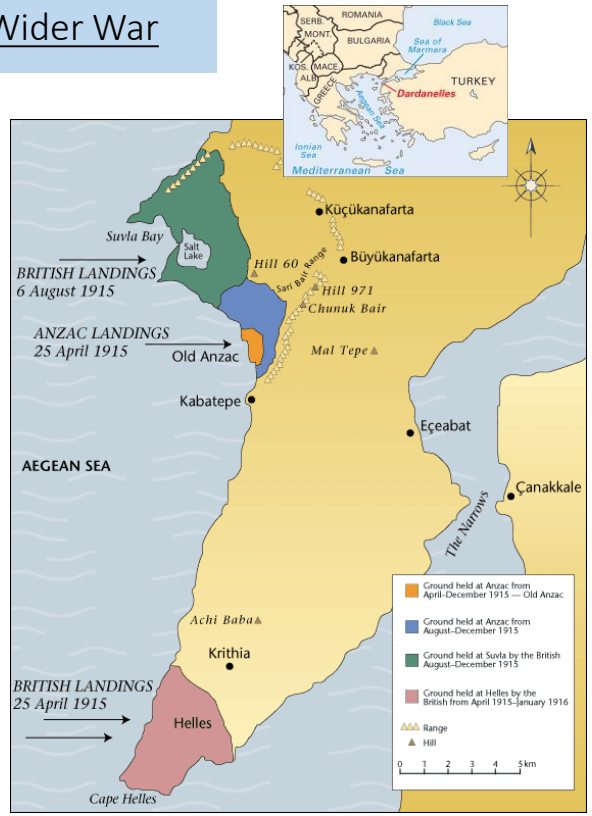
Naval campaign

19 February-17 March:

- British and French ships attacked Turkish forts at the entrance to the Dardanelles.
- Several forts were hit and abandoned.
- The Turks had put ***mines*** in the water, so ***minesweepers*** were brought forward to clear them.
- By 25 February, the entrance was clear.

18 March:

- Main naval attack.
- 18 large battleships, supported by smaller ships and minesweepers sailed into the Dardanelles.
- They were attacked by shell fire from forts further up the coast.
- A new line of mines sank 3 ships.
- The rest of the ships retreated.



The Gallipoli Campaign (19 February – 12 December 1915)

Military campaign on land

25 April-12 December:

- On 25 April General Ian Hamilton led troops in invading Gallipoli and destroying Turkish forts.
- He had 70,000 troops, mainly from the ***Australia and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC).***
- The Turks knew they were coming and moved 84,000 troops along the coastline.
- On 3 out of 5 beaches the attacks were successful. At Anzac Cove, thousands of troops were gunned down in seconds.

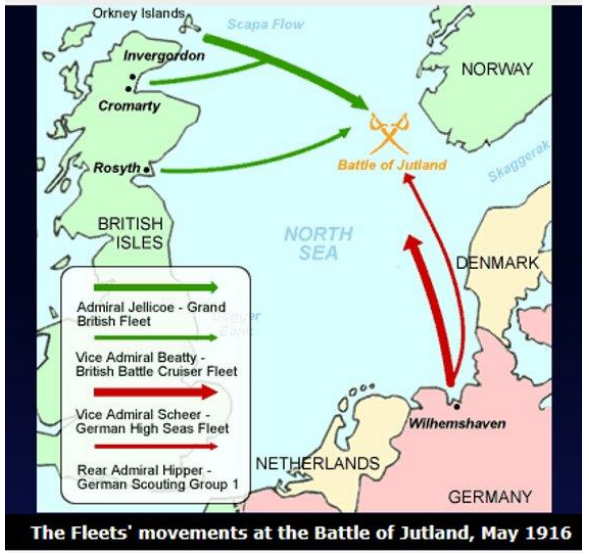
Why was Gallipoli a failure?

- At Anzac Cove, Turks were waiting on the cliff tops to gun down the invading ANZAC troops.
- The Allied troops had to dig trenches to protect themselves from the Turks.
- Conditions in the trenches were difficult. In the summer it was very hot; water was in short supply and food was contaminated.
- Around 80% of the ANZAC Army got dysentery.
- By the winter, soldiers in trenches were getting frostbite and dying of cold.
- On 12 December, 80,000 troops were evacuated.
- There were over 200,000 Allied deaths.
- The Russians remained short of supplies.
- Turkey was not knocked out of the war.

The war at sea: Battle of Jutland (31 May 1916)

- Admiral Reinhard Scheer (head of the German navy) wanted to bring the British navy out into the open so they could destroy them. The British had decoded a message so knew the plan.
- The British sent a small fleet of ships to meet the German 'bait' ships.
- 4 British ships were sunk before the rest of the German ships arrived. Another British ship was sunk before the rest of the British fleet joined them.
- When they arrived, the Germans sailed north, but the British did not follow as they feared another trap. Instead they tried to intercept the German ships on the route that they thought they would take home.
- The two sides fired twice more at each other, before the Germans fled back to base.
- The Germans claimed victory based on the casualties inflicted and the number of British ships destroyed.
- The British pointed out that it was the Germans who fled first, and the German fleet needed major repairs.
- The Germans failed to make any impact on the blockade and Germany's warships stayed in their ports for the rest of the war.

	Britain	Germany
Battleships	0	1
Battle cruisers	3	1
Cruisers	3	4
Destroyers	8	3
Soldiers killed	6100	2550



The Fleets' movements at the Battle of Jutland, May 1916

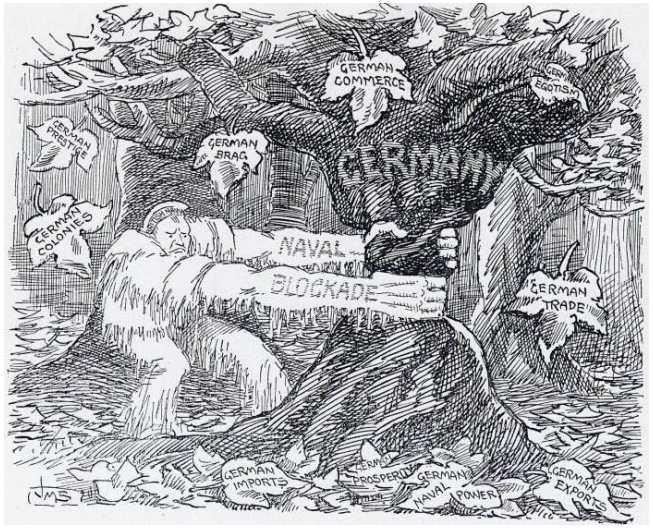
Conflict and Tension (part two): The Wider War

The importance of control of the seas

- Both sides knew that it was vital to have control of the seas.
- Firstly, they needed to protect their own supply line so that they could import resources from abroad.
- Secondly, they could stop supplies getting to their enemy, in the hope of starving them into surrender. This tactic is known as a ***blockade***.

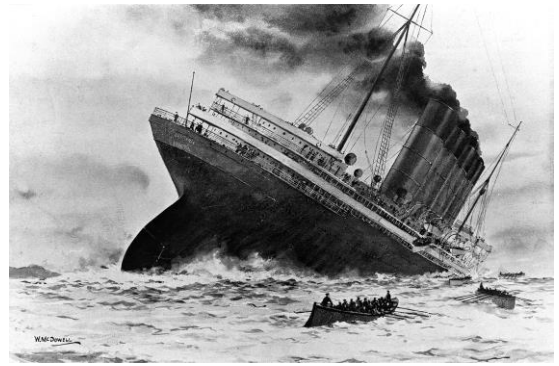
The war at sea: the British naval blockade

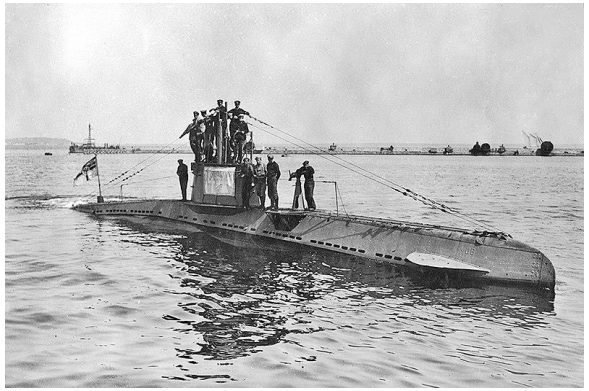
- In November 1914, the British declared that the North Sea was a 'war zone' and that any ships entering it would do so at their own risk.
- British sailors would stop any ships entering the area and confiscate supplies. This had a devastating effect on Germany.
- Coal, oil and steel supplies could not get through so industry suffered.
- Fertilisers for crops were in short supply, so there were food shortages. Around 420,000 Germans starved to death.
- A lack of vital medicines meant soldiers and civilians suffered.
- The impact of the blockade led to a decline in support for the war. There were protests against the war as early as 195.



The sinking of the *Lusitania* (May 1915)

- In May 1915, a German U-boat sank a British passenger liner, the ***Lusitania***, sailing from New York to Liverpool.
- Over 1000 passengers drowned, including 128 Americans.
- The Germans said that the ship was carrying military supplies (perhaps correctly) but there was a huge outcry, and tension between the US and German governments increased.
- The Germans scaled back their U-boat attacks for a while, but the USA remembered this attack, referring to it when declaring war on Germany in 1917.





The war at sea: the German U-boat campaign

- After Jutland, the Germans relied more upon their submarines (***U-boats***).
- The British lay minefields around Britain to protect the English Channel. They also used ***Q-ships*** to trick the Germans. These were heavily armed warships disguised as supply ships.
- Despite this, U-boats sank an average of two supply ships a day and many supplies failed to get through to Britain.
- After May 1915, the Germans scaled back their U-boat attacks.
- By February 1917, the Germans had built over 100 U-boats. A new series of attacks began.
- 500 supply ships heading for Britain were destroyed in eight weeks.
- By April, it was said that Britain had only six weeks' food supply left.

British response to the U-boat campaign

- The British responded to the new U-boat threat by introducing the ***convoy system***. This meant that supply ships stayed together in large groups, protected by British warships.
- ***Depth charges*** (bombs dropped into that water that exploded at certain depths) were used to attack U-boats.
- ***Long-range aircraft*** had been developed that could fly overhead looking for U-boats near to the surface of the water.
- Between July and August 1917 only 5 of the 800 ships bringing supplies to Britain were sunk.

Conflict and Tension (part three): Ending the War

Russia leaves the war

- As time went on the war became increasingly unpopular with the public.
- ***Tsar Nicholas II*** went to the front to lead the Army. He was a poor leader, and people blamed him for military defeats.
- 15 million men joined the Army and left fields, mines and factories without workers. This led to shortages of food and fuel.
- Russia's railway system couldn't cope, and fuel could not get to the cities. This led to power failures.
- By 1916, over a million Russians had been killed in the fighting.
- Workers and soldiers who had ***deserted*** their duty fighting in World War 1 took to the streets and set up their own council – the ***Petrograd Council***. The Tsar returned to Russia and ***abdicated*** in March 1917: he was imprisoned. This was the first ***revolution***.
- A temporary government replaced the Tsar. They ordered new attacks on Germany in July 1917, and more soldiers deserted.
- In November 1917, a revolutionary called ***Lenin***, staged a second revolution with the help of the ***Bolsheviks*** [revolutionaries]. He overthrew the new government and set up another. He declared Russia would make peace with its enemies.
- In March 1918, the Russians signed the ***Treaty of Brest-Litovsk*** with Germany and its' allies. The treaty was harsh on Russia and they lost some of their best land.
- The Germans gained valuable farmland and raw materials, which helped ease the shortages caused by the British blockade.

The USA enters the war

- When war broke out in 1914, the USA had a policy of ***neutrality***. However, they were financially involved for the first 3 years, as they sold food, weapons and other goods to Britain and its allies.
- Tension between the USA and Germany increased after the sinking of the ***Lusitania*** in May 1915. President Woodrow Wilson refused to get drawn into the war, however, and the Germans cut down on their U-boat attacks for a while after this.
- By 1917, the Germans had begun to sink U-boats again. Within a few months, they had sunk eight American ships.
- In March 1917, the Americans intercepted the ***Zimmerman Telegram.*** They discovered the Germans were trying to forge a secret alliance with Mexico. The plan was that Germany would provide money and weapons to the Mexicans, so they could attack USA, and distract them from fighting in Europe.
- This was the final straw and war was declared in April 1917.
- The arrival of the American troops helped to balance the loss of the Russians. They were also one of the richest countries in the world with huge supplies of natural resources.

A GERMAN "PEACE."
(FOR THE INSTRUCTION OF OUR PACIFISTS.)

New tactics and technology

Land warfare

- Special shells were developed that could destroy barbed wire.
- The ***'creeping barrage'*** was perfected.
- Guns became a lot bigger and more accurate.
- ***Mine warfare*** had become increasingly used.
- A new technique of sending a specially trained team of elite soldiers, armed with light machine guns, grenades and flamethrowers, was developed. They would advance shortly ahead of the main attack to locate and destroy German machine guns.
- The first ***tanks*** were used at the Battle of the Somme in 1916, but they were slow and constantly broke down.
- A year later at the Battle of Cambrai, over 400 tanks crossed no-man's-land and gained 8km of land for a fraction of the usual troop losses.
- At the Battle of Amiens in August 1918, around 600 tanks led an attack that saw the British and French advance 32km. However by day 5, only 50 tanks were still working.

Naval warfare

- New tactics to defend against U-boat attacks included ***minefields***, ***depth charges*** and ***Q-ships***, and the introduction of the ***convoy system.***
- The ***hydrophone*** was a new technological breakthrough that helped locate submarines. By 1918, they could detect submarines several miles away.

Air warfare

- At the start, aeroplanes were used mainly for ***reconnaissance***.
- Aeroplanes were constructed with stronger materials and became more manoevrable.
- They had larger fuel tanks so they could travel greater distances.
- They could carry larger bombs and bomb racks.
- Fighter and bomber planes supported troops as they attacked enemy trenches and could slow down the enemy advance.
- By 1917, pilots were flying in large patrols or formations. They could also communicate with ground troops by radio.

Conflict and Tension (part four): Ending the War

Ludendorff's Spring Offensive (21 March-15 July 1918)

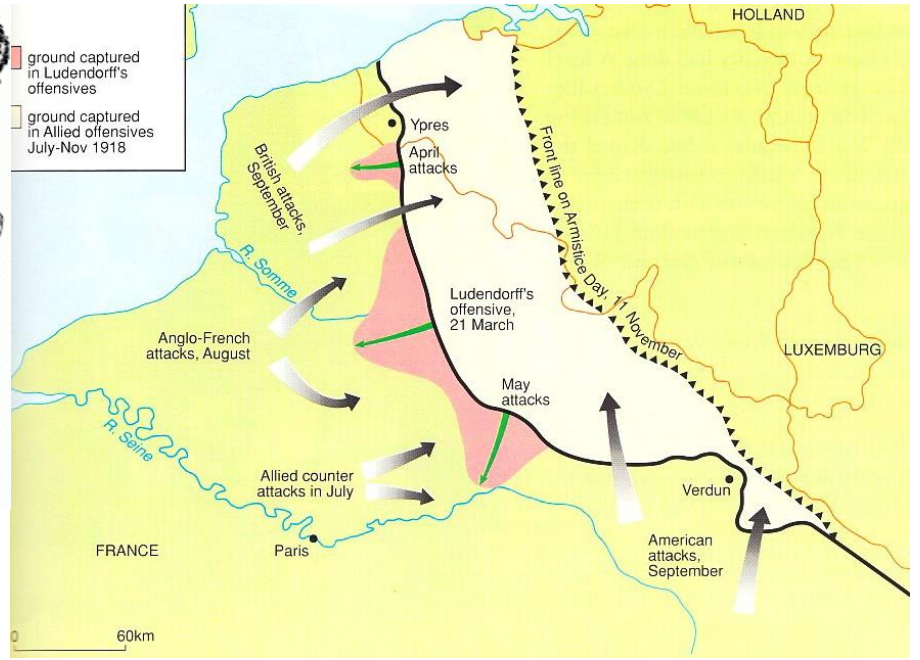
Initial success for the Germans

- General Ludendorff devised an all-out attack on the British and French lines. This was the last chance to win the war before more American soldiers arrived.
- The attack would start with an intense, five-hour artillery bombardment, known as a ***hurricane bombardment*.** The Germans planned to fire one million shells – over 3,000 shells per minute. This bean at 4:40am on 21 March 1918.
- This was followed by the release of ***mustard gas.***
- The Germans then used their specially-trained, ***elite stormtroopers*** to burst through the enemy lines and create panic. These fast-moving soldiers carried only light machine guns, grenades and flamethrowers.
- The British were outnumbered and confused. By the end of the first day, 20,000 British soldiers had been killed, 35,000 had been wounded, and another 21,000 had been taken prisoner.
- In some areas the Germans had pushed forward 60 km. They recaptured the region around the river Somme. This became the biggest breakthrough on the Western Front for three years: the ***stalemate had been broken.***

The failure of the Ludendorff Offensive

- Between March and April 1918, however, the Germans had lost over 220,000 men and did not have enough soldiers in reserve to replace them.
- Ludendorff had sent too many men deep into French territory. As a result, supplies of food and weapons were taking too long to get to the troops, and they were running out.
- The German advance began to slow down as troops stopped to loot French villages.
- In the panic of the German advance, British and French military leaders had decided to place their armies under the command of one person, ***French General Ferdinand Foch*** - ***unified command***. This was an inspired decision as the armies worked better together.
- Meanwhile, the first American troops began to arrive: by June they were arriving at a rate of 50,000 per week. Foch also had other soldiers in reserve.
- On 15 July, Ludendorff ordered one final attack which ended in disaster. The German troops advanced two miles and ran out of supplies again. They were soon pushed back to the River Marne.
- In total, the Ludendorff Offensive had cost the Germans around 500,000 men.

"A Champagne Counter-Offensive", *Punch Magazine*, July 1918



The Hundred Days

- Starting on 8 August, the Allies launched a final decisive series of attacks on the Germans along the Western Front. This was the last stage of the war.
- General Foch - ***unified 'Commander-in-Chief'*** of the Allied armies decided to launch a series of attacks at different points along the line to stretch the enemy and wear them down to breaking oint. British, French, Belgian and other Allied forces would attack in the North, and the French and Americans would attack in the east.
- 8 August – British, Canadian, Australian and French forces (supported by over 400 tanks) broke through German lines and took 11km of ground as the Germans retreated. Allied losses were 6500, whereas the Germans lost 30,000 men. Around 300 guns were captured and a further 17,000 Germans were taken prisoner. General Ludendorff called it ***'the black day of the German Army'***.
- In addition, Allied troops caputred Albert, Noyon and Bapaume at the Second Battle of the Somme.
- After these breakthroughs, the Germams were gradually pushed back to a line of concrete trenches they had built in 1917, called the ***Hindenburg Line***.
- As the Germans retreated, they left heavy guns, equipment and supplied behind. This collapse forced most of the German military leaders to accept that the war should be ended.

Conflict and Tension (part four): Ending the War

Impact of the war on Germany

- By September 1918, Germany was close to collapse. They were short of supplies at home and on the Western Front. The armies were close to defeat.
- On 29 September, General Ludendorff told German politicians and generals that he thought 'Germany should abandon the war as hopeless'.
- In response, the Kaiser allowed the main political parties to form a new government, which took away some of his powers. These changes were too late for the public.
- Large demonstrations were held against the war and some protesters talked of overthrowing the Kaiser in a ***revolution***.

Defeat of Germany's Allies

- During September and October 1918, Germany's allies collapsed.
- The Bulgarian army surrendered on 29 September after being driven back by Serbian and French forces.
- In late October, Turkish forces surrendered to British and Arab forces.
- On 3 November, Austria-Hungary pulled out of the war after a devestating defeat against Italian troops.

Mutiny, revolution and abdication

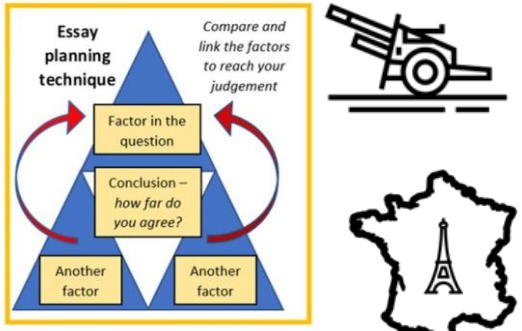
- On 28 October, the German Navy, based in Kiel, was ordered out to sea to attack British ships. Sailors on the ships refused to follow orders – they did not want to fight anymore.
- News of their ***mutiny*** spread, and other sailors in nearby ports refused to follow orders too.
- Workers in the towns supported them.
- Soldiers, sent to deal with the protests, joined in.
- Soon they began to take over more towns and set up special councils to run them. In six days, workers' and soldiers' councils were governing towns and cities all over Germany.
- The country was in chaos and there was little the Kaiser could do.
- The Kaiser had lost control of his army.
- On 9 November 1918, he ***abdicated*** [gave up his position] and secretly left Germany, never to return.

The armistice: Germany surrenders

- The new temporary leader of Germany, Friedrich Ebert, sent a small group of representatives to France to negotiate an ***armistice*** (ceasefire).
- They met in a railway carriage in northern France with Marshal Foch. The terms he laid out were harsh on Germany, but they had no choice if they wanted to end the war.
- At 5:10am on 11 November 1918, the German representatives agreed to sign. The war was to end at 11:00am that day.

A British cartoon published in August 1918 showing the Kaiser.

'The entry of the USA on the Allies' side was the main reason for Germany's defeat in the First World War'.
How far do you agree?
[16 + 4]



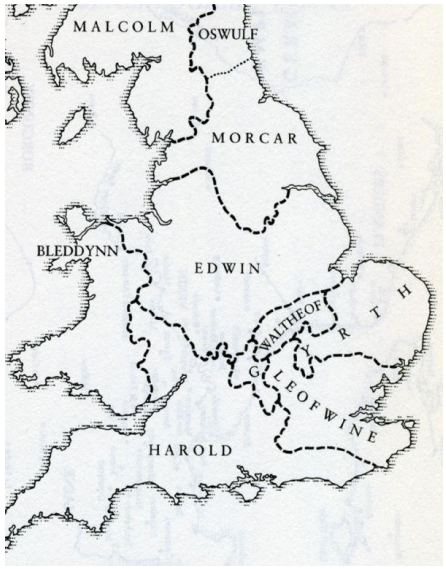
Norman England:1066-1100
Conquest & Control

What was Anglo-Saxon England like before the Norman Conquest?

England was a wealthy country before 1066. It had rich mineral resources and fertile farming land. The wool trade was thriving and the cloth produced was highly valued in Europe. There was efficient administration and it was a Christian country. All this made it an attractive country to invade.

In the tenth century, England faced constant raids from the ***Vikings***. In 1016 the English King Aethelred was defeated and killed by Canute. Canute ruled for 20 years, and his sons – Harold Harefoot and Harthacanute – ruled until 1042. ***Edward the Confessor*** – the ***Anglo-Saxon*** son of Aethelred – became king in 1043.

To make England easier to rule it was split into ***earldoms***: ***Wessex***, ***Northumbria***, ***Mercia, Kent*** and ***East Anglia***. The earls became the most powerful men in the country after the king. The ***Earl of Wessex*** – Earl Godwin – was the most powerful earl. In 1045, Edward married Earl Godwin's daughter Edith. This secured the support of the most powerful English earl.



Other key individuals

Edward the Confessor	Ruled England since 1042. His reign had been stable and peaceful but he died in 1066 leaving no obvious heir.
Tostig Godwinson	Harold Godwinson's half brother.
Edwin and Morcar	Anglo-Saxon earls who had lots of power in the north of England. Earls of Northumbria and Mercia.
Gyrth Godwinson	Harold Godwinson's younger brother and Earl of East Anglia.
Leofwine Godwinson	Harold Godwinson's younger brother and Earl of Kent.

Who were the claimants to the throne?

- **William the Duke of Normandy:** related to Edward through his mother's side. He was a distant cousin of Edward's. In addition, Edward had been raised in Normandy with Emma's family. He claims that Edward promised him the throne in 1051. The Normans claimed that Harold Godwinson had promised to support William's claim under ***oath*** in 1064.

- **Harald Hardrada:** King of Norway. Powerful and successful Viking. He was related to King Cnut. His claim was that, as Edward had no sons, a relative of the previous king should be chosen. It was said that Hardrada's father had been promised the throne by Cnut's son, Harthacnut.

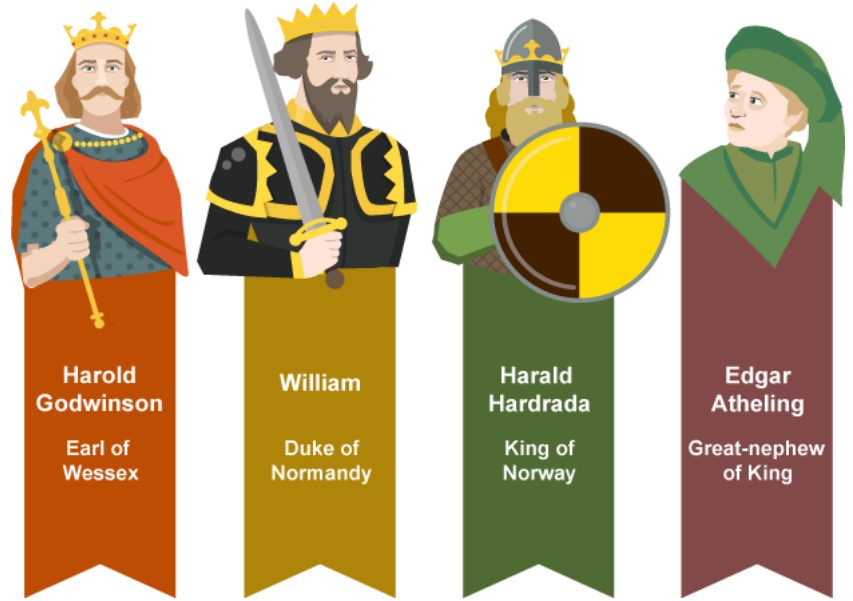
- **Harold Godwinson:** most important earl in England (earl of Wessex). He was ***'sub-regulus'*** and said that Edward had promised him the throne on his deathbed; he was supported by the English nobles and had the support of the Witan.

- **Edgar the *Aetheling*:** great nephew to Edward. Related through the male line, so the closest blood tie to Edward. Edgar was an Anglo-Saxon so was supported by many earls. He was only 14 and had no military experience. He was known as an outlaw as after 1066 he led many rebellions against the Normans.

Why was there a succession crisis?

Edward the Confessor became very ill and died on 5 January 1066. Edward had no children, and there was no clear ***heir*** to the throne. On 6 January 1066 the ***Witan*** made the Earl of Wessex, ***Harold Godwinson***, the king of England.

There were a number of ways to become king in Anglo-Saxon England: if you were a relative of a previous king, if you were supported by the Witan, or if you were wealthy or powerful enough to take control. Sometimes a king named his own successor, but English and Norman ideas about this were quite different. The English regarded the king's ***'death bed promise'*** as more important than any earlier promises; whereas the Normans saw earlier promises of the throne as final. This ambiguity led to a ***succession crisis***. Despite having support from the English nobles, Harold's rivals for the throne began to make preparations to challenge him for it.



How did Harold prepare to defend his crown?

King Harold II took four major steps to secure his grip on the crown during his nine months as king.

1. Harold took an army to the north of England to confront the two powerful Anglo-Saxon earls, the brothers Edwin and Morcar.
2. Harold secured the loyalty of Edwin and Morcar by agreeing to marry their sister, Edith.
3. Edwin of Mercia and Morcar of Northumbria agreed to defend the north from any attack by Harald Hardrada.
4. King Harold II then assembled a large army in the south to confront the larger threat from Normandy, led by Duke William.

Threat number 1: Battle of Fulford (20 September 1066)

Who?

Harold Hardraada & Tostig Godwinson (who was forced into exile by his brother Harold in 1065**.** He had been Earl of Northumbria but was unpopular, and was replaced by Morcar.)

Earl Edwin & Earl Morcar

Outcome?

The Battle of Fulford was a major disaster for King Harold II. He had expected his northern earls to defeat the Norwegians whilst he waited for Duke William's invasion from the south. The outcome was a decisive victory for Harald Hardrada. He captured the city of York and camped his army 15 miles south at Stamford Bridge to wait for Edwin and Morcar to send money and hostages.

Threat number 2: Battle of Stamford Bridge (26 September 1066)

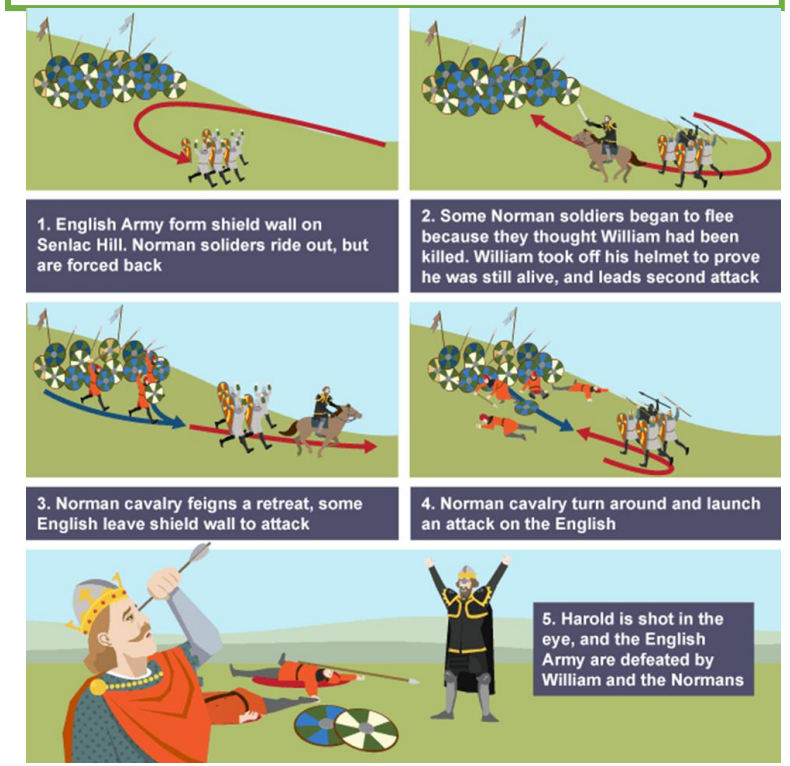
Who?

Harold Hardrada

Harold Godwinson

Outcome?

In two days King Harold assembled an army of 15,000 men, which included roughly 3,000 of his elite troops - the ***housecarls***. King Harold led his army, most of whom were on foot, across 185 miles in just four days. The English army marched day and night with such speed that Hardrada's army only knew of King Harold's location when they saw them rushing towards their camp! Only six days after the Battle of Fulford the English forces led by King Harold won an astonishing victory against the Norwegian forces of Harald Hardrada.



Why did William win the Battle of Hastings?

Threat number 3: Battle of Hastings (14 October 1066)

Who?

Harold Godwinson

Duke William of Normandy

What happened?

- The battle began at 9am with a volley of arrows from the Norman archers. This proved ineffective as they were shooting uphill. Norman infantry then charged but were repulsed by the very effective Anglo-Saxon shield wall.
- Some Normans began to run away and the fyrd began to chase after them leaving their safe position on the hill. These men were easy targets for Norman cavalry and so the Normans used this trick (feigned retreat) to drain numbers from the shield wall.
- Norman cavalry then charged in, after midday, which led to heavy casualties on both sides. The feigned retreat tactic was sued again and ate away at the shield wall.
- By 4pm, the Normans began to break through the side of the shield wall and it was at this time that Harold was killed. With this, the Anglo-Saxon fyrd broke ranks and fled.

Outcome?

King Harold is killed and William and the Normans are victorious. William declares himself king and starts to consolidate his victory.

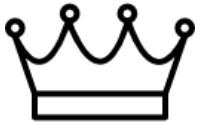
How did William establish control immediately following the Battle of Hastings?

William's victory at Hasting's did not mean he would automatically become King. The Witan could decide who would inherit the crown – they chose Edgar the Aetheling, Edward the Confessor's Great Nephew. It would be up to William to make the Witan decide otherwise.

- William waited for two weeks at Hastings following the Battle, for the English to surrender and the Witan make him King.
- He decided to go to London to take control.
- As he moved North, William used violent methods harried the land and the people, burning villages and crops, forcing local communities to surrender to the Normans out of fear.
- He took Dover, followed by Romney, Canterbury, Winchester, and Wallingford.
- He garrisoned each town as he went, leaving Norman soldiers behind to maintain this fear and control.
- At Wallingford, the Archbishop of Canterbury submitted to William after realizing resistance was futile.
- The violence of William's approach to London and the concerns over Edgar's age and ability to rule effectively meant that his claim to the throne was renounced and he, along with many powerful men of England travelled to ***Berkhamsted*** and swore **oaths of loyalty** to William.
- William then ordered the burning of land between Berkhamsted and London, which gave him complete control of the area.
- William arrived in London by late November. The Normans attempted to attack but were fought off by Anglo-Saxons. In retaliation William burnt the area of Southwark.
- On Christmas Day, 1066, he was crowned King of England at Westminster Abbey by the Archbishop of York.
- Although William was now king, it did not mean he had total control over England, and he still faced threats at home and abroad.

A map of William's journey to London.

William destroyed Sussex, Kent, Hampshire, Surrey, Middlesex and Hertfordshire by burning villages and killing people who lived there. Then the people from London surrendered to him.
Florence of Worcester, c. 1090



William was crowned King of England 25 December 1066.

The Normans undertook a programme of castle-building and confiscation of land to oppress the Saxons and establish control.

The new Norman regime and the confiscation of land angered Saxon nobles and provoked a series of rebellions 1067-1068.

How did William's approach to establishing control change?

After his coronation William began draining his new kingdom of wealth. He seized the treasury, levied a heavier than normal geld tax and plundered the gold from English churches. Much of this booty was sent back across the Channel for Normandy to enjoy.

In March 1067, William returned home to celebrate his great victory. He took with him the leading English noblemen - Stigand, Edwin, Morcar and Edgar - to prevent them from plotting in his absence.

Back in England William left two men to act as regents while he was gone. These were his half-brother, Bishop Odo of Bayeux, who had been given Kent as a reward for his part in the invasion and William Fitzosbern, who received the Isle of Wight and lands adjacent to it in Hampshire.

During their regency the two men took the opportunity to extract as much wealth from the Englishmen under their control as was possible. They employed violence, threats and blackmail to grab land that was not deemed forfeit by William.

Furthermore, the Normans undertook an enormous programme of castle-building which involved confiscating land upon which to build the new fortifications. Of all these oppressions it was the forfeiture of land that enraged the English most.

William rewarded his followers with land taken from those who fought against him at Hastings. This angered not just those who lost land but their heirs too, and provoked a series of rebellions in 1068. These rebellions forced William to change how he established his control.

William successfully repressed rebellions led by senior Anglo-Saxons, using both violent and non-violent methods. But when William relied solely on local forces there were varied results.

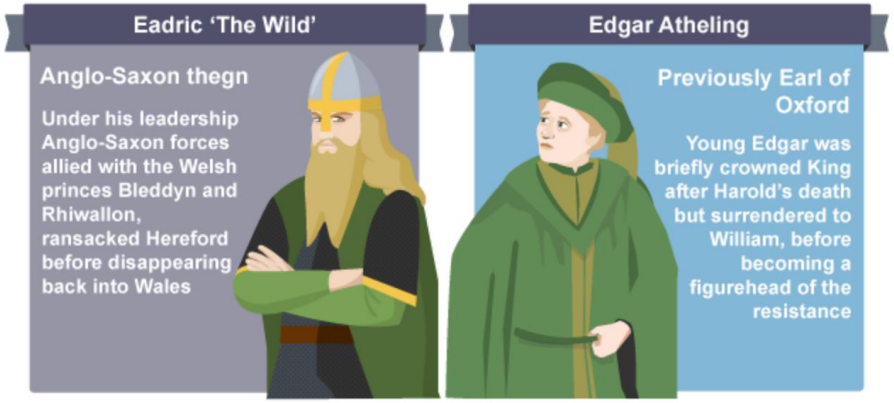
How did William establish Norman rule over England?

King William I's greatest concern immediately after his decisive victory at Hastings was to ensure he could **consolidate** power over all of England.

The young Edgar Atheling, who was briefly crowned king after King Harold II's death, surrendered to William along with the **Archbishop of Canterbury Stigand.** This meant that the south of England was secure, but William was faced with the problem of asserting his authority over a foreign population.

William's victory over Harold only started the Norman conquest of England. It was military power that beat the Anglo-Saxon forces but after 1066 William had to use a range of methods to keep control.

Stigand = Anglo-Saxon Archbishop of Canterbury (the most powerful position in the English Church).
Odo of Bayeux = William's half brother who ruled England when William was in Normandy.
William FitzOsbern = William the Conqueror's cousin and one of his most trusted Lords.



Anglo-Saxon resistance to Norman rule

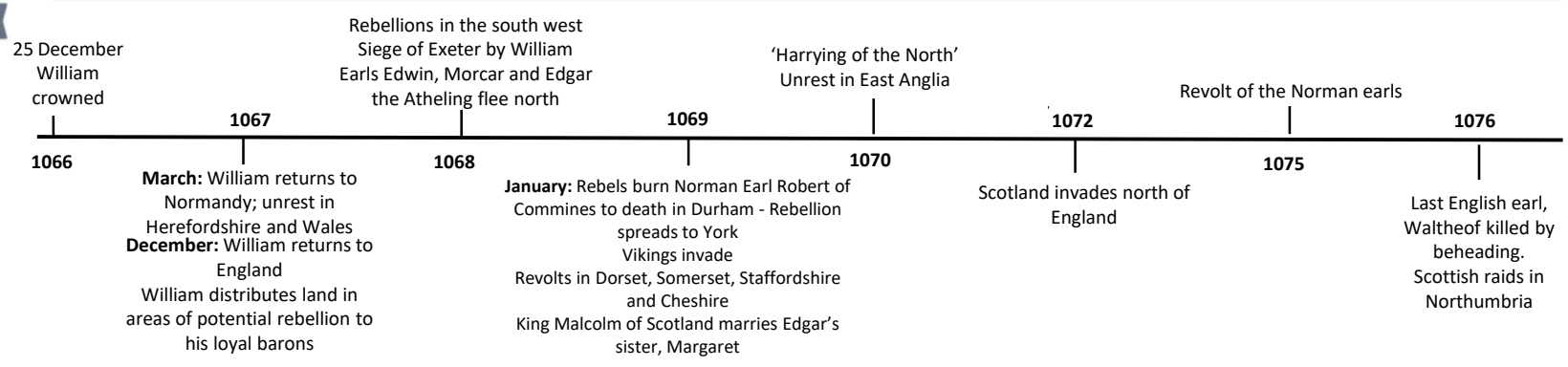
With the job of conquering England almost complete, King William returned to Normandy only six months after the Battle of Hastings in March 1067. **Bishop Odo** and **William FitzOsbern** were left to rule England in William's place.

According to contemporary sources their methods were harsh and deeply unfair towards the Anglo-Saxons and many began to rebel against their new Norman overlords.

1067 - Eadric 'The Wild' and the beginning of armed Anglo-Saxon resistance
Norman earls took advantage of the confusion in 1067 to extend their land in Shropshire and Herefordshire on the border with Wales. The hilly border was known as the **Marcher lands**. This created resentment amongst the Anglo-Saxon **thegns** who held the land, especially Eadric. Under his leadership Anglo-Saxon forces allied with the Welsh princes, Bleddyn and Rhiwallon, ransacked Hereford before disappearing back into Wales.

1068 - Rebellion in the North
Between 1066 and 1071 five different earls led Northumbria. The first, Morcar was replaced in 1066 and the two earls that followed him were murdered. Cospatrick, an Anglo-Saxon, paid William to become earl but he quickly changed sides and became involved in the rebellion against William across the north which was led by the Edwin of Mercia, Morcar and Edgar Atheling. Support for the rebellion grew when William tried to install the Norman, Robert de Commines, as earl of Northumbria. Robert and his army of 900 men were massacred in Durham because the people of Northumbria did not want to have a Norman as their earl.
Edgar Atheling joined the rebellion after the massacre at Durham and became the figurehead for the resistance.

1070 to 1071 - Resistance in the east
According to the **Anglo-Saxon Chronicle** the greatest threat to William I since he became king came in the spring of 1070, when the Danish King Sweiyn sent an army to conquer England. The army he sent was not large enough to restart the northern rebellion but it was large enough for King William to pay the Danes a large amount of money to leave. Some Danes landed in East Anglia to support the rebellion led by Hereward the Wake. Not much is known about Hereward except that he was an English thegn who became involved in disputes with the Norman barons that were given land in Lincolnshire. Hereward fought a guerrilla war against the Normans until King William captured his base on the Isle of Ely. Hereward was pardoned by William but Morcar, who came to support Hereward, was imprisoned for life.



Rebellions 1067-1068	Causes	Events	Norman/William's Reaction
Eustace of Boulogne	(1067) The Men of Kent were angry with the Normans harrying Romney and Dover. They also opposed the land grabs of their new Earl, Bishop Odo. Eustace was unhappy with the amount of land he received for his help at the Battle of Hastings.	Eustace led a fleet across the Channel and attacked Dover.	Neither William nor any of his earls were close by to take action. Instead the Dover garrison left the safety of their castle walls and attacked Eustace's men, forcing them to flee back across the Channel.
Eadric the Wild	(August 1067.) One of the most powerful thegns in England, Eadric the Wild, began a guerrilla war against the Normans in Herefordshire. The newcomers angered Eadric and the local population by seizing land to build castles and demanding supplies from the surrounding area.	In response, Eadric refused to submit to King William and instead raised a rebellion. He joined forces with the Welsh, specifically King Bleddyn of Powys, and attacked Norman outposts across Herefordshire.	The local earl, and William's great ally, William Fitzosbern, was unable to capture Eadric and the Englishman slipped away into the hills of mid-Wales.
Gytha and the Godwinsons	(Late 1067). While in Normandy, William received intelligence that the troops he left behind in England were about to be massacred. On 6 December he left Normandy and returned to England. (Early 1068) William learnt that the conspiracy was based in the south-west, specifically in the city of Exeter. Among the ringleaders was Gytha, Harold Godwinson's mother, with the support of Harold Godwinson's three teenage sons.	William's initial response was to demand that the city's leaders swore loyalty to him. When no oath of loyalty arrived from Exeter William raised an army and set out for the south-west. When he arrived outside Exeter he was met by representatives of the city, who promised to open the city gates and left hostages with William as a guarantee of their good faith. But when the representatives returned to the city the gates did not open. William tried to intimidate the defenders by blinding one of the hostages in view of the city walls but that only aggravated the rebels. William attacked the city for 18 days before a surrender was secured. The white flag came quickly after Gytha and the Godwinsons fled the city.	In return for an oath of loyalty William entered a commitment that Exeter would not be taxed at the exceptional rate of 1067 again.
Edwin and Morcar	(1067) Edwin and Morcar submitted to William shortly after his coronation. In return for a payment called a relief, they were allowed to retain their titles as earls of Mercia and Northumbria respectively. But during 1067 both earls had their lands reduced in size. In addition, William promised Edwin that he could marry his daughter but the marriage never took place. Add in the illegal land grabs, castle-building and the murder, assault and rape carried out by the Norman forces then there was plenty of reason for the earls to rebel.	Edwin and Morcar withdrew from the royal court and fled north to York. There they joined with Edgar Aethling and a variety of other malcontents such as Bleddyn of Wales and Gospatric of Northumbria in raising an army against William.	As soon as the king heard of the revolt he raced northwards. As the Norman war machine rolled across the country it ravaged the land and its people with fearsome force. Such was the speed and ferocity of the Norman advance that by the time it reached Warwick, Edwin and Morcar had surrendered. The Normans built a castle in Warwick. Edwin and Morcar were forced to return to William's court and could not leave without William's permission. They kept their titles but these were in name only.

December 1066	**William crowned King of England in London on Christmas Day.**
March 1067	Copsig, appointed Earl of Northumbria (Northumberland) by William, is murdered.
Autumn/winter 1067	William levies a new tax in the north.
December 1067	Gospatrick is appointed Earl of Northumbria by William.
Spring 1068	Northern rebellion against William involves Gospatrick, the Mercians and Edgar Aetheling.
Summer 1068	The revolt quickly collapses when William marches north; York surrenders to William: Gospatrick flees to Scotland.
1069	Another rebellion in the North. William' s newly appointed Earl of Northumbria, Robert Commines, is murdered and the rebels take York but the city is swiftly retaken by William.
Autumn 1069	King Swein of Denmark invades, sails up the Humber and burns York: he returns to Denmark after being paid off by William.
Winter 1069-70	The Harrying of the North: William lays waste to Yorkshire, and parts of Staffordshire and Cheshire
1070	Famine in Yorkshire.

Key words:

Harrying = to persistently carry out attacks (on an enemies territory)

Harrying of the north = winter 1069-1070, William I's brutal campaign to repress rebellion in the north of England.

Scorched earth policy = a military strategy of burning or destroying crops or other resources that might be of use to an enemy force.

> *'he made no effort to restrain his fury and punished the innocent with the guilty. In his anger he commanded that all crops, herds and food of any kind be brought together and burned to ashes so that the whole region north of the [river] Humber be deprived of any source of sustenance'.*

According to chronicler Orderic Vitalis.

Consequences of the Harrying of the North

Refugees (long term)
Many people fled from William's army and settled in other parts of the country. Some escaped to live in southern Scotland.

Resistance (short term)
Some of these refugees joined up with resistance struggles in the Welsh Marches and the rebellion of Hereward the Wake in East Anglia.

Ruin (long term)
In 1086 the Domesday Book recorded that large areas of Yorkshire were 'waste' and many manors of northern England had lost over half their wealth and population since 1066.

The Harrying of the North

The winter of 1069 - 1070 is remembered in England as the most notorious period in the whole of King William's reign.
Faced with local rebellions in northern England that were encouraged by the Scots and the Danes, William set about systematically destroying large parts of the north. William's 'scorched earth' policy came to be known as the 'Harrying of the North'.

•When William and his fellow Normans began to take land and increase taxation the people of the north probably felt they had more to gain from rebelling than from submitting. They were used to acting relatively independently.
•The Scots and the Danes supported the rebels in the north. Both wanted to take some or all of England for themselves.
•William did try to deal with the people of the north peacefully just after his conquest, but hostility towards Norman rule grew strong when he left England in the hands of his **vice-regents**, Odo and William FitzOsbern. Fighting all over the country and facing foreign invasion, William believed the safest way to control the north was to depopulate it.

Part 2: Life under the Normans

How did William use the feudal system and national government to rule his kingdom?

Key concept: Change and Continuity

To remind people how important he was, William used the coronation ceremony to show he had Gods approval. He also performed ritual crown wearing's to remind his followers of his unique role. Three times a year when he met his Great Council, he wore his crown. His coins even depicted him wearing a crown.

However, in practice, William needed a lot of people to help him run the country:

- The **kings household** looked after his everyday needs.
- The **knights** of the royal household provided security.
- The **finance office** looked after the treasury (the economy and spending).
- The **Chancery ,** a group of royal clerks who wrote royal documents, provided the administration. (This was an Anglo-Saxon feature William kept, it did not exist back in Normandy.)

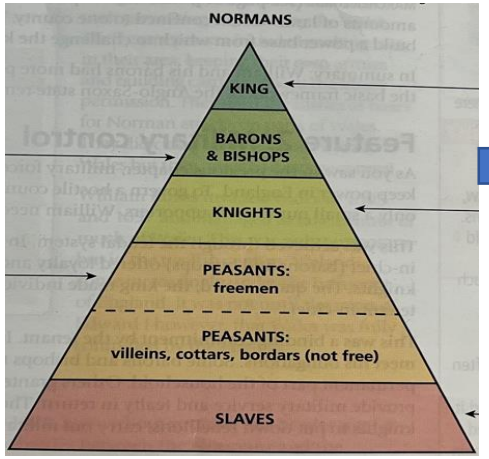
Patronage To encourage loyalty, the king could offer land but also grant offices such as sheriffdoms. Those who were not loyal could expect, at the very least, to have their land taken off them. This meant that any lords who wanted to have any power or influence needed to remain loyal.

Government by writ: In Anglo-Saxon England, the main instrument of government was to issue royal documents (called a writ). These were short documents which gave notifications and orders to be sent around the country. The Normans continued this system but they issued far more orders. In Anglo-Saxon England earls had a lot of power to control their earldoms in their own way. However, William wanted much more centralisation. To do this there needed to be an effective method of local government

Inheritance: **To increase his power of patronage (and his income),** William dramatically changed laws of inheritance. Under the Anglo-Saxons, property and land was **divided** between all surviving sons. The Normans changed this to it all being passed to the eldest son (this was known as **primogeniture**). This meant that the Normans could keep large estates of land and therefore maintain power more effectively. Under the Normans, if a tenant died without any heirs, the land would be returned to the lord, and he could either sell it, keep it or give it away as a gift. As the king had the most land, he benefitted the most from this system.

The Feudal System

The Normans did not bring the idea of this system with them from Normandy, but rather they **developed** a pre-existing hierarchical system of land ownership that existed in Anglo-Saxon England.



Under the Anglo-Saxons	Under the Normans
The king owned most of the land. Some was owned by the Church.	**The king** directly owned 20% of the land. 25% was owned by the Church. The rest was shared amongst Williams supporters (around 200 barons and bishops).
Earls: There had been four major earldoms around the year 1000 but this had increased to six just before 1066/ The king owned the land but earls controlled it. In return they promised to support the king. They shared land amongst their supporters the thegns.	**Barons and Bishops**: They were granted large areas of land (they did not own it- they held it in tenure). In return they swore fealty (loyalty) to William. They also promised money and service (soldiers for his army).
Thegns: There were over 4,000 thegns who looked after land and the earls. In return, the paid 100 shillings to the earls and helped them by running the local courts. They also provided military service: for two months of each year they could be called upon to be soldiers in the kings army. They granted land to ceorls (freemen/peasants).	**Knights**: A knight promised to be loyal to their baron or bishop in return for their land. A knight might also be called a 'Lord of the Manor'. They served as knights in the army. They granted some of their land to the peasants who lived on their manor.
Peasants: Ceorls (freemen). They had to work on the thegns land for 2-3 days a week and pay taxes to him. These taxes were usually paid in kind e.g. a pig in return for the right to keep their herd in the forest.	**Peasants**: They had to obey their lord of their manor in return for their land. They also gave the lord some of their crops and worked a set number of days on the land without pay. Most could not leave the land without permission- therefore most were not freemen. They did not have to swear fealty (loyalty) as they were considered too unimportant.
Peasants: Villeins, cottars and borders (not free): They had few rights and were the property of the ceorls and thegns.	**Slaves**: They made up about 10% of the population in 1086, however, they were rapidly in decline as they were expensive to keep and the Church disapproved.
Slaves: They had the fewest rights and were the property of freemen. They worked in return for shelter and food.	

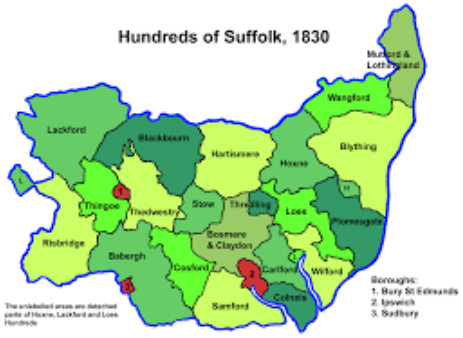
Part 2: Life under the Normans

Key concept: Change and Continuity

What was the role of the shire-reeves and sheriffs?

- Under the Anglo-Saxons, England had been split into 134 shires. A shire-reeve (sheriff) was in charge of each shire.
- Each shire had a capital, where justice and the payment of taxes was organized.
- Shires were then split into smaller areas known as hundreds. It was a very effective system.
- The Normans kept this system.
- The Sheriff acted as the Baron's deputy. The Sheriffs duties included making manual payments to the king, ruling over shire courts, collecting taxes and raising armies.
- A Sheriff was a vital link to the king.
- To start with, the Normans used the Anglo-Saxon Sheriffs, but eventually, they were replaced with Normans to help William to maintain tighter control.

The Normans also created new roles such as castellans who looked after royal castles and forests.



To what extent did law and order change?

How was the law enforced?

There were no policemen in Norman times. The law was enforced by a range of people:

Constables- They had the power to arrest people, break up fights and prevent fires. They held the key to the stocks- the punishment for some minor offences. They were not paid much and often had other work to supplement their income.

Watchmen- Most towns had a watchman who tried to make sure that people kept to the curfew. They were there to prevent crime and catch criminals. They were either volunteers or given the job as a duty.

Hue and Cry- This was the system for catching criminals after an offence had occurred. This meant that everyone had a duty to raise the alarm if they saw a crime taking place and everyone who heard the alarm had to help to catch the suspect. If anyone ignored the hue and cry, they would be fined.

Tithing- This was a group of 10-12 freemen. They promised to prevent each other from committing a crime. If one of them did, they had to reveal the guilty one or risk the whole group being punished, usually by a fine.

Changes

- The Normans introduced **trial by combat**. The accused fought with the accuser until one was killed or unable to fight on. The loser was then hanged, as God had judged him to be guilty.
- William made a new law that if a Norman was murdered, all the people of that region had to join together and pay a high fine called the **Murdrum fine**.
- The Normans introduced **Church courts**. These were separate courts used for churchmen.
- William chose a new Norman **Archbishop of Canterbury** – Lanfranc – to replace the Saxon one. He changed the church to deal with **corruption**. For example, priests had to be chosen based on their suitability for the job.
- William introduced the **Forest Laws**. Trees could no longer be cut down for fuel or for building and people in forests were forbidden to own dogs or bows and arrows. Those caught hunting deer were punished by having their first two fingers chopped off.
- **Norman-French** became the official language used in court procedures and all court records were kept in **Latin**. Most English people did not understand either language.

Continuity

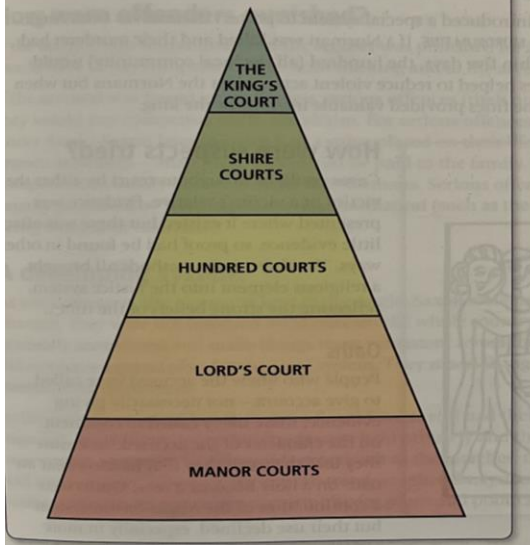
- Although William made new laws, he kept the majority of Saxon laws.
- The **'hue and cry'** was when fellow villagers were called upon to chase the criminal. If villagers failed to join then the village could be fined. The Normans kept the 'hue and cry' because it was an effective way of policing local communities.
- The Normans kept the Anglo-Saxon system of **Trial by ordeal**. This took two forms: **Trial by cold water** (Water blessed by a priest, if you were innocent you would sink, guilty would float) and **trial by hot iron** (the accused would carry a red hot iron in their hand, hand bound and 3 days later if hand was infected they were guilty).
- The **Chancery** (a group of officials) continued to write royal documents just like under Edward). The most important documents were royal orders called **writs**. The Normans issued far more orders in this way than the Saxons.

What changed/stayed the same with the legal system?

Change	Continuity
Shire courts met more regularly. The judges were local landowners and over time, these became Norman.	The King remained the most important person in the justice system. They dealt with royal pleas and heard appeals from lower courts.
Lord's courts (called honourial courts) were introduced by the Normans for the lord to deal with his tenants.	Shire courts were established before 1066. They did not change much.
Manor courts were now led by Norman Lords of the Manor.	Hundreds Courts had also been in place before 1066. They dealt with minor disputes.

FIGURE 5

The legal system.



The King's court: The king remained the most important person in the justice system. His decisions were binding. The King's court dealt with royal pleas which included the most serious offences of murder, treason, arson, robbery and rape. The king could also hear appeals from lower courts.

Shire courts had been established well before 1066. They did not change much but now met more regularly and were usually supervised by the sheriff (or sometimes a bishop). The judges were local landowners or the sheriff. They heard disputes over land or crimes involving violence or theft.

Hundred courts had also been in place before 1066. They were held monthly with a bailiff in charge (who was appointed by the Sheriff). Some hundreds were still privately held and if so the lord would be in charge. They dealt with minor disputes.

Lord's courts (also called Honourial courts) were introduced by the Normans for the lord to deal with his tenants. This kind of court did not only deal with crime or disputes, they also supervised property transactions or made announcements of new laws from the king. The tenants also gave the lords advice at these courts just as the highest lords advised the king in his own court.

Manor courts: The manor was the area of land controlled by the lord of the manor – usually the same as a village. Manor courts were the most minor courts that dealt with day to day life in the village, such as ploughing being carried out badly or labour not being supplied. Male villeins would also pay for licenses to marry. These courts were controlled by the Lord of the Manor.

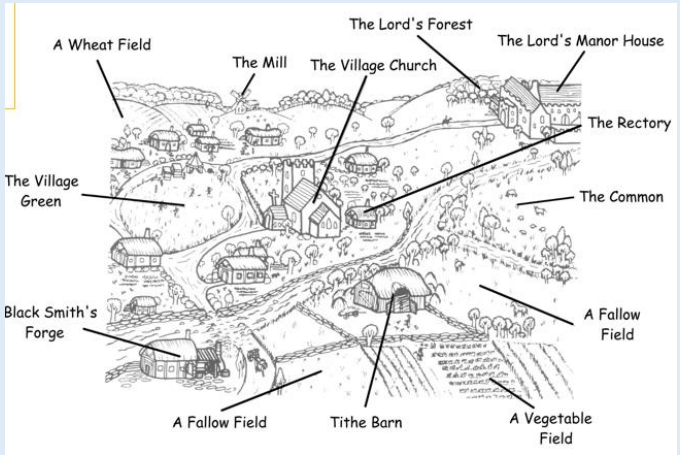
Part 2: Life under the Normans

How were villages and towns affected by the Norman conquest?

Key concept: Change and Continuity

- The lives of villagers stayed much the same under the Normans.
- 90% of people lived in the countryside, worked on the land and continued to do so.
- Daily life continued to revolve around the seasons & the farming year: February: ploughing; March: Sowing; June: Harvest
- Most villages had 3 large fields divided into strips. Most common crops: wheat, rye & barley. Cottars had small gardens to grow vegetables. There was common land to graze animals. Houses were dark, damp & smoky. Life expectancy was low, 40 was a good age!

Life in Villages



Diet remained the same: **continuity**

- Main food was bread (rye) & pottage (soup)
- Meat was a treat. Preserved by salting & smoking.
- Hens for eggs & animals for milk.
- Water was not safe so most drank a weak beer.
- Peasant diet was healthier than the rich!

Work: continuity

- Most work done by hand, no machines. There were ox-drawn ploughs.
- Most villagers were peasants although there were some specialist jobs: blacksmith, miller, carpenter. Most jobs stayed the same.
- Most peasants were villeins. They worked their strips of land in the field and worked days for the lord, 'week work' and at harvest time, 'boon work'.

Organisation: continuity

- 90% of population were peasants
- Most villages were grouped in a manor, controlled by a lord.
- The villein worked for the lord. He could be charged fines, e.g. the 'heriot' when he took over land from his father.

However, there were some changes for villagers under the Normans

Economic changes:

- Many previously free peasants lost their freedom because of higher rents.
- Most Saxon landowners lost their land.
- Some villages fell in value; some increased.

Life in towns

- There were several established towns in England before the Normans arrived, for example, Winchester, Chester and York.
- After the Norman conquest some existing towns **grew** as important military, religious or administrative centres.
- King William encouraged the growth of towns to increase trade and taxes to the Crown.
- The main impact of changes to Norman towns were physical, political and economic (employment).

Size – Some large towns suffered a big fall in population. In Domesday, **Stafford** has 179 houses and 40% of these are empty. Some towns grew due to what William built there. For example, William built a new cathedral in Winchester, Durham and Ely, so their religious importance increased. In Bury St Edmunds, **the market encouraged growth.**

Population – By 1086, there were 18 towns with a population of over 2000 and 112 smaller towns. London had 10,000 inhabitants, and Winchester had 6000. However, only 5% of the population lived in towns.

Castles – often built in towns first. In 1067-8 Nottingham castle was built in wood by William Peverel to control the route to the North. In 1150 work began to replace it in stone.

Destruction – In the early years of the Conquest a number of towns were heavily damaged in fighting against rebellions. Castles were often built by clearing the houses of locals, for example, York and Lincoln.

Trade – Salt was an important product for cooking and preserving food. Droitwich grew rapidly due to the production and sale of salt there. Gloucester grew as it produced large quantities of iron and lead for making weapons. Wool was exported to towns in Belgium, so some English coastal towns grew as centres of international trade, for example, Boston, London, Sandwich and Southampton.

Religious building – Saxon churches were nearly always destroyed and replaced with Norman **Romanesque** churches. From 1100 monasteries and priories were often built, such as **Lenton Priory** built south of Nottingham in 1103.

New towns – these were often built around castles (such as Ludlow), or near rivers or coastal ports (because of the wool trade for example). Between 1066 and 1100, 21 new towns were created around the country.

New lords – Nottingham got a new Norman lord called **William Peverel**. There were actually two sheriffs (one for the English town and one for the Norman town). The Normans probably struggled to pronounce 'sn' so the original name (Snottingaham) was dropped.

Goods and services – towns had a **high street** (which had to be the width of a lance). Buildings were cleared to make room. These would have businesses on (usually advertised with wooden signs with pictures).

Jobs – There was a much wider range of jobs in towns. These included: bakers, blacksmiths (highly valued), armourers, **apothecaries** (sold medicine), carpenters, moneylenders (usually Jews, as Christians were not allowed to lend money) and **barbers** (who also cut off limbs!) Apprenticeships were one of the best ways to advance.

Knowledge organiser: **How did the English Church change after 1066?**

How powerful was the Church before 1066?

There was only one form of Christianity at this time and this was Catholic; the overall leader of the Catholic Church, the Pope (who lives in Rome), was probably the most powerful individual in Europe throughout the Middle Ages.

In the Middle Ages, religion was a matter of life or death; a major concern that most people had in their lifetime was whether they would end up in heaven or hell.

Parish churches, with priests, were everywhere in England – everyone was expected to attend every Sunday for Mass and to be told how to live their life as a good Christian.

With so much power, it was inevitable that some kings would come into conflict with the Church.

The Church was incredibly wealthy as it was the single largest landowner in England – abbots and bishops were feudal lords in both towns and rural areas.

The Church made huge sums of money from rent, and when people left land and money to the Church after they had died to help them get into heaven. Regular income was collected from ***tithes*** (villagers had to give 10% of what they produced); special taxes at certain points in the year (e.g. Easter dues); and ***surplice fees*** (payments made to priests to perform marriages, baptisms and funerals).

With so much wealth it was inevitable that some kings would try to take their share of it.

Wiliam I believed the English Church was corrupt; he promised the Pope that he would introduce reforms to 'clean up' the Church.

The problems were ***pluralism*** (when clergy held more than one position); ***simony*** (when positions in the Church were bought); ***nepotism*** (when positions were given to friends and family); and many members of the clergy were married, which went against their vow of ***celibacy.***

The corrupt state of the English Church before 1066 is reflected in the Anglo-Saxon Archbishop of Canterbury, **Stigand**, who was very rich and seemed too concerned with personal wealth. He took no notice of the problems with the Church and did not try to reform them. He was replaced by William's choice, his friend Archbishop **Lanfranc**, who was given the job of reforming the Church.

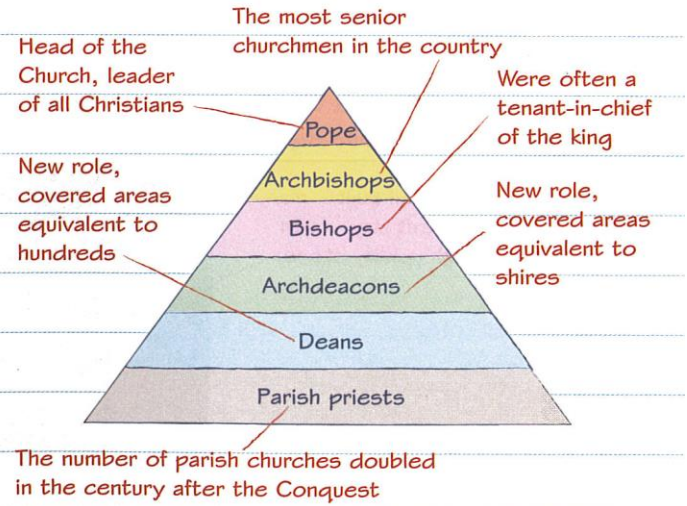
Key individuals:

Archbishop Stigand (Anglo-Saxon) was replaced by Archbishop Lanfranc (Norman) in 1070. Lanfranc had a power struggle with the Archbishop of York, Thomas, but he won as he had the support of William I.

Lanfranc's reforms

1. **Synods** (Church councils) run by bishops were set up to spread reform.
2. Cathedrals were moved to bigger towns and cities to centralise the Church.
3. A new Church hierarchy was introduced to centralise the Church and give bishops more control over their dioceses.
4. The role of the parish priest was developed and numbers rose.
5. Clergy were no longer allowed to marry.
6. Lanfranc ended abuses such as simony and **nepotism** (favouring relatives).

The new church hierarchy



Key terms:

Catholic Church – the only form of Christianity in England during the Middle Ages.
Pope - the head of the Catholic Church.
Judgement – Christians believed God would decide if you went to heaven or hell after death.
Parish Church – local churches.
Mass – the main Church service.
Feudal lords – those that owned land under the feudal system.
Tithes – a tax collected by the Church where everyone had to give 10% of their produce or profits.
Surplice fees – payment made to priests to perform marriages, baptisms and funerals.
Clergy – those that worked for the Church.
Pluralism - when clergy held more than one position.
Simony - when positions in the Church were bought.
Nepotism - when positions were given to friends and family.
Celibacy – a vow to not get married or have sexual relations.
Archbishop of Canterbury – the top Church position in England.
Synods - Church councils that helped to spread the message of reform.
Ecclesiastical - relating to the Church.
Diocese - a large area controlled by a bishop.
Church hierarchy - the structure of Church leadership (*see the diagram on the left*).
Centralised - brought under the control of a central power.

Knowledge organiser: **How did the English Church change after 1066?**

Church and law courts

In 1076, Lanfranc set up special Church courts. This meant that the clergy could now be tried in the bishop's courts instead of the normal courts.

Lanfranc believed that the secular courts did not have the authority to try the clergy; this caused some resentment as the secular courts gave out harsher punishments.

Lanfranc also wanted the Church courts to deal with '***spiritual offences***' (blasphemy, non-attendance at church or adultery) among ordinary people.

Church courts weakened his authority, but William supported Lanfranc.

Changes to church buildings:

As well as reforming the English Church, the Normans started a church-building programme – within 50 years of the invasion, work had begun on rebuilding almost all major churches in England, and many parish churches were also rebuilt.

The Normans built churches, cathedrals and monasteries in the ***Romanesque style*** of architecture that was popular in Western Europe.

The Normans believed supporting the Church was a way of serving God. The churches also served as a visible and permanent symbol of the Normans' dominance over England (in a similar way to castles).

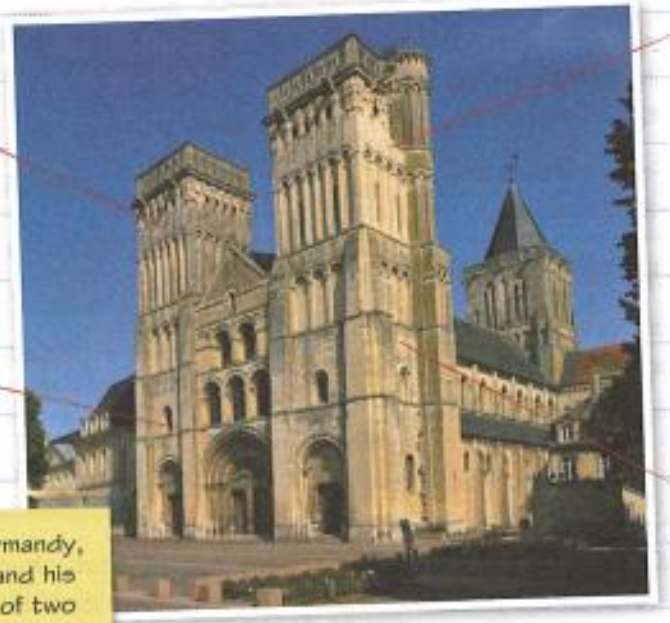
As well as building churches, the Normans also granted land to the Church – by 1086, the Church held around a quarter of the land in England. This meant that senior churchmen such as archbishops, bishops and abbots were among the most important lords in the country, with access to a lot of power and wealth.

Key terms:

Secular – non-religious.
Spiritual offences - blasphemy, non-attendance at church or adultery.
Romanesque style - inspired by the Romans, this architectural style included details such as high arches and wide columns.

Romanesque architecture

The Normans preferred the Romanesque architectural style – it combined features of Roman and Byzantine (Turkish) buildings.



The churches were well built – many survive to the present day – with thick walls and high quality stone.

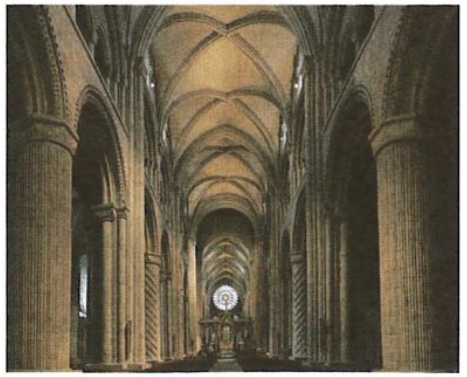
Many Romanesque churches had sturdy pillars and square towers.

One of the key features was rounded arches, which were used for doors and windows.

Romanesque buildings were symmetrical and featured clean lines, giving them a simple appearance.

The Abbaye aux Dames in Caen, Normandy, was built by William the Conqueror and his wife Matilda in 1062. This was one of two cathedrals William built in Caen – the other one was called Abbaye aux Hommes.

Ely Cathedral was one of the most impressive Norman cathedrals and retains many of the original Norman features nearly 1000 years later.



Durham Cathedral is an example of a church that was rebuilt using the Romanesque style.

Knowledge organiser: **How did relations between the King and the Church change after 1066?**

Relations between the Norman kings and the Pope were often difficult and this caused problems like the **Investiture Controversy**. Pope Gregory VII wanted to prevent secular rulers (kings) from being able to choose bishops and abbots as he believed they should be chosen by the Church. This caused conflict with the rulers in England, Germany and France as they wanted to maintain their power over the Church in their own countries. In 1080, Henry IV of Germany tried to remove Gregory VII as Pope.

WIlliam I vs. William II

Lanfranc crowned Rufus (William II) on 26th September 1087, but Rufus had a different attitude to the Church than his father. William the Conqueror had been genuinely religious, but Rufus seemed more interested in making money from the Church. The Church did not like his morals; he was not married, he had no children and it is almost certain that he was homosexual.

Rufus vs. William of St Calais

In 1088, William Rufus came into conflict with William of St Calais, the bishop of Durham. Rufus accused him of treason and conspiring to rebel against him. Saint Calais argued he should be tried by the church courts, but William refused and tried him in his own court; he was found guilty, his lands were taken away from him and he was exiled. This was an attempt by William II to assert his authority over the Church and showed his determination to control the Church, not be controlled by it. The Pope was unhappy with Rufus as he supported Saint Calais. However, many nobles ad clergy had supported William Rufus' actions and it deterred others from challenging the King.

Conflict with William of St Calais

In 1088, William of St Calais, the Bishop of Durham, told William Rufus about a plot against him and agreed to send troops to help.

He then changed his mind and didn't send troops after all. William Rufus was furious and had St Calais charged with treason.

St Calais said that he had the right to be tried in the Church courts. William Rufus refused. He said St Calais had broken his oath of fealty and should be tried in the king's court.

The trial took place in November 1088 in a secular court. St Calais was swiftly found guilty, and was sent into exile.

William I vs William Rufus

William I was a genuinely religious man.	William Rufus did not appear to be religious at all.
William I had supported reform of the Church to reduce abuses.	William Rufus seemed more interested in making money from the Church.
The Church approved of William I.	The Church disapproved of William Rufus' morals. He never married and it is likely that he was homosexual.

Rufus vs. Anselm

When the Archbishop of Canterbury, Lanfranc, died in 1089 he was not replaced. This was deliberate as Rufus wanted to take the substantial income from the Church estates previously held by Lanfranc. In 1093 however, the King became seriously ill and fearing God was punishing him, he appointed Anselm as the Archbishop of Canterbury. Initially Anselm refused the appointment, but eventually he accepted the position, although relations between Rufus and Anselm were difficult from the beginning.

By 1094, Anselm was preaching about the lack of interest William Rufus showed in the Church and his questionable morals, especially because Rufus was leaving bishoprics empty when a bishop died so that he could take the income from Church lands. The King did not welcome Anselm's criticisms.

The Council of Rockingham, 1095: the Council was called to settle a dispute between William Rufus and Anselm. Rufus refused to allow Anselm to travel to Rome to collect his *Pallium* (a woollen vestment given to an archbishop to confirm the Pope's acceptance of the appointment). Rufus felt this would mean Anselm was giving his support to the Pope, Urban II, at a time when Rufus was trying to limit the Pope's influence. A truce was called and the King sent a message to Rome to ask for Anselm's pallium to be sent, forcing William Rufus to accept Urban II as Pope.

Relations between William Rufus and Anselm remained difficult: Rufus blocked Anselm's attempts to carry out further church reforms and Anselm was reluctant to pay extra taxes or provide the number of knights the King required. By 1097, Anselm had been exiled and he fled to Rome. Once again, William Rufus could profit from an empty position in the Church.

Key terms:

Investiture Controversy – when the Pope wanted to choose the bishops and abbots rather than them being chosen by the King.

Exile – to be sent away to another place as punishment for a crime.

Pallium – a woolen vestment given to an archbishop to confirm the Pope's acceptance of the appointment.

From the textbook:

TOPIC SUMMARY

Norman impact on the English Church

- William I replaced Anglo-Saxon bishops and abbots with Normans.
- The Church became more centralised with the creation of archdeaconries and deaneries.
- A huge building programme took place. Anglo-Saxon cathedrals were replaced with new and grander buildings which were Romanesque in style.
- New cathedrals were located in larger towns and cities.
- Significant reform was pushed through by Church councils (synods). This included attacks on simony and marriage amongst the clergy.
- Church law courts were established.
- There was conflict with the Papacy, who wanted the Church to be more independent.
- Relations between the Church and king fluctuated depending on the king. But the Church became more likely to challenge the king during this period.
- William I had a good relationship with Archbishop Lanfranc.
- William II was unpopular with the clergy because of his morals and because he used the Church to raise money.
- Henry I had a better relationship with the Church, but there were still tensions.

From the textbook:

TOPIC SUMMARY

Monasticism and language

- The Normans helped to bring about a revival of monasticism by supporting the Cluniac reform movement and Lanfranc's reforms.
- Many more monasteries were built after the Norman Conquest.
- Normans replaced Anglo-Saxons in the most influential roles in monasteries.
- Most monks started to follow the Benedictine rule.
- Rules were more uniform across the country and more strictly applied due to Lanfranc's reforms.
- Monks lives revolved around church services.
- The influence of the practices in the rest of Europe was important, especially with the arrival of Cluniac priories.
- Monasteries grew in importance and helped the poor, provided employment, shelter and hospitals. They were also important centres of learning.
- Schooling started to improve and the roots of Oxford University come from this time.
- Latin became the official language of the government, Church and trade.
- Anglo-Norman became the spoken language of the elite.
- Most people carried on speaking English but very little was written in English.

America 1920-1973 GCSE unit: Who were the Americans?

The First Americans:

- Sometimes known as Native Americans or 'Red Indians'.
- Lived in tribes for thousands of years, around 5 million lived in American before white settlers arrived.
- Gradually, white settlers took their land and forced them to live in 'reservations'.
- By 1900 there were only around 250,000 Native Americans left.

Early immigrants:

- Large groups of white settlers began to arrive from Europe in the 1600s.
- Many fought amongst themselves and with the Native Americans.
- The largest group to settle, the British, regarded American as part of the British Empire.
- After about 150 years, the descendants of the early settlers fought a war of independence against the British- America became an independent country.
- By the 1900's white English-speakers had become the most powerful group in America.

African-Americans:

- Between 1600—1800, millions of African men, women and children were taken to work as slaves on cotton and tobacco farms in the Southern States of America.
- Slavery ended in 1865 and slaves were set free, however many continued to work on farms.
- By 1920, there were about 10 million African-Americans, many of whom lived in Southern States. They had limited freedom, including no right to vote. They were among the poorest people in the country.

New immigrants:

- From around 1850 onwards a wave of new immigrants flooded into America. They came mainly from eastern and southern Europe.
- Many were poor and illiterate. They crowded into American cities looking for work.
- Many people saw the new immigrants as a threat to their way of life.

How is America governed?

Key terms:

Constitution: America's set of rules describing how the country should be governed.

Federal Government: Oversees matters that affect the whole country.

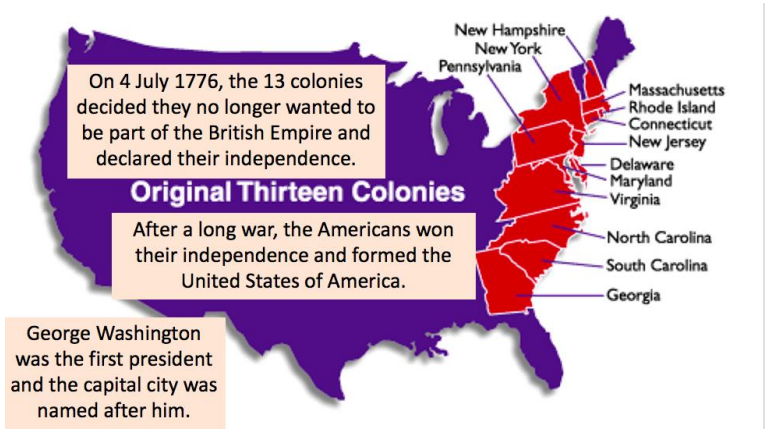
State Government: Makes laws that applies to that state only.

Congress: A group of elected people from each state who help to make up the Federal Government (like a parliament).

Republican Party: Traditionally the Republicans liked to stay out of peoples lives wherever possible, following a policy called laissez-faire (French for 'leave alone'). They didn't believe in high taxes which pleased the rich and business people.

Democratic Party: More of an 'ordinary people's' party, preferring to intervene in everyday life if necessary. They favoured helping those in need e.g. the poor and elderly.

Bill of rights: Is part of the constitution, it guarantees Americans a series of freedoms and rights including the right to vote, and freedom of belief, freedom of belief, freedom in law and freedom of information.



What were the causes of the 'boom'?- 1920s America

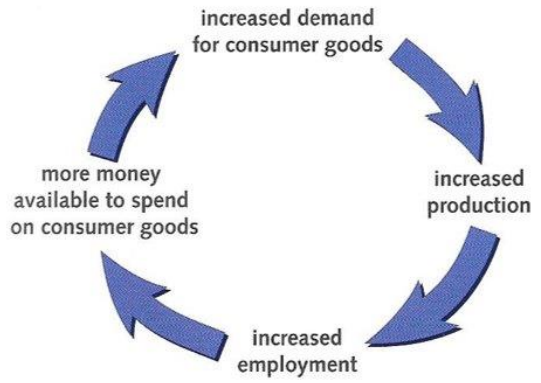
The First World War:

- When the First World War broke out in 1914, the USA stayed out of it as part of a policy known as **'isolationism'.** Staying out of the war for the first two and a half years allowed the USA to prosper financially.
- American banks loaned money to Britain and its allies that was used to buy food and weapons etc. that were mainly produced in the USA. This created many jobs for Americans and made business-people very rich.

Republican Policies:

- To help American businesses, the Republican government introduced several new policies, including the **Fordney-McCumber Tariff Act**. This put high taxes on goods entering the country, making foreign produced goods more expensive. This meant that more people were buying goods made in American, which made American businesses thrive.
- The government also cut taxes paid by the rich, which meant more people had money to spend on the vast range of products on offer.

'Cycle of prosperity'



Advertising and consumer demand:

- The desire to own new consumer goods was increased by very effective advertising campaigns.
- Colourful billboards, newspapers and magazines urged people to buy the latest gadget.
- Cinemas and radio broadcasts encouraged people to take advantage of new **'buy now, pay later'** schemes, which meant buyers could pay for goods in small installments over a fixed period. This was sometimes called a **hire purchase plan.**

Mass Production and Henry Ford:

- The growth of the motor industry was a massive boost to the US economy. More jobs were created in the rubber, leather and glass industries as the demand for cars rose.
- Henry Ford developed the use of assembly lines, to speed up production (an electric conveyor belt which carried the partly assembled car past workers who stood in the same place and were responsible for one or two small jobs, such as fitting doors or wheels)
- Before long other industries were using assembly lines. As companies got better and quicker at making goods, goods became cheaper.
- As Ford's production got quicker, his cars become cheaper for example, the Ford Model T cost nearly $800 in 1911, but by 1928 was only $295.
- Ford was able to produce 6 cars every minute due to his utilization of the assembly line.
- Over 15 million people brought Ford's Model T between 1911 and 1929.

Consumerism:

- In 1916, only 15% of American homes had electricity, by 1927 this increased to 70%.
- This meant that workers spent their wages on modern electric powered 'gadgets', e.g. vacuum cleaners, toasters, washing machines, radios, telephones, refrigerators and ovens. Huge demand for these goods created jobs in factories that made them.

Playing the Stock Market:

- One of the biggest success stories and one of the most popular ways to make money- was the buying and selling of shares in companies.
- During the 1920s millions of ordinary Americans, not just the rich, bought shares in companies and made money by selling them on.
- In 1920 there were only 4 million people who owned shares. By 1929, there were 5 times as many.
- Many people brought shares with borrowed money from the banks or with a small deposit of 10%. They would pay the remaining amount with the profits they made when shares were sold. This method of purchasing was called 'buying on the margin'.

Key words:

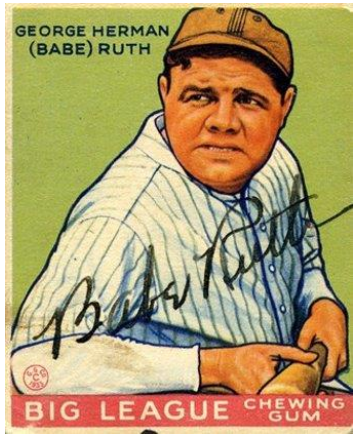
- **Investors:** Give their money to a company, in return, investors own a share of the company and become a **shareholder.**
- **Dividend:** Receiving a share of a company's profits (a dividend) each year.
- **Speculation:** Gambling on the stock market, often with borrowed money.
- **Buying on the margin**: Many people brought shares with borrowed money from banks, they would often pay back their loans with the profits they made on the stock market.


Stock Market Invincible
'Buy, Buy, Buy!' Experts Advise
Wall Street, Spirits Soaring
New Brain-Surgery Techniques Change Face of Modern Medicine

Popular culture: What did the 'roaring 20s' look and sound like?

Sport

- The 1920s was a golden age for American sport.
- For the first time, sportspeople achieved celebrity status.
- Babe Ruth, a baseball player for the New York Yankees, became a national hero after setting a home run record that lasted until 1961.
- Radio broadcasts, newspapers and magazines helped to bring major sporting events to a mass audience.
- Around 60 million listeners heard the coverage of the 1927 World Heavyweight boxing match.



Jazz Music

- A new form of music 'jazz' became incredibly popular during the 1920s.
- Jazz originated in the Southern states of America among African-Americans.
- During the 1920s, jazz music began to spread from the Southern states as African-Americans began to move up North in search of work.
- A variety of dances were created to accompany this new style of music e.g. the Charleston, the One Step and the Tango.
- Jazz provided great opportunities for black musicians e.g. Louis Armstrong and Bessie Smith.

Cinema

- Movies were a big business before the 1920s, with weekly audiences of 35 million in 1919, but during the 20's audiences nearly trebled with a high of 100 million people a week going to the cinema in 1930.
- During the 1920s Hollywood started using the 'star system'. Moviemakers realized that the star of the movie was often more important than its plot and people would pay to see their favorite actors even if the movie was terrible. Therefore, moviemakers began to advertise the star of the film.
- By 1929, Hollywood film studios were making over 500 films a year.
- Until 1927, all movies were silent.
- In 1927 the Jazz Singer was released which was the first of the 'talking films' or 'talkies'.
- Hollywood created its own set of rules to censor its film industry. The Hays Code was introduced which banned nudity and limited the time that an on-screen kiss could last to three seconds, and no character could profit from arson or murder.

How did life change for some women during the 1920s?

Life for women before the First World War.

- Most women led restricted lives and could not vote.
- Middle- and upper-class women were expected to behave politely at all times and wear sensible clothing, wear little make up and relationships with men were strictly controlled.
- For poorer women who had to work there were few opportunities for promotion and often settled for poorly paid jobs such as cleaning or low-skilled factory work.

Women during the First World War

- Women took over the jobs of the men who went to fight.
- They worked just as hard and as well as men and the money they earned gave them a sense of independence.
- American women were given the right to vote in 1920, partly as a result of their war work.
- By 1929, there were around 10.5 million with jobs, around 25% more than in 1920.

How did lives of some women change during the 1920s?

- More women lived on their own.
- They were less likely to stay in an unhappy marriage- the divorce rate doubled in the 1920s.
- Some women began to behave and dress differently- wearing more revealing clothes and smoking and drinking in public.
- The independent and fashionable young women in the 1920s were often described as ‘flappers’.
- Flappers were mainly middle- and upper-class women from the Northern cities.
- Some flappers rode motorcycles and went to nightclubs with men until early hours of the morning.
- The liberal attitudes of the flappers shocked more traditional members of society who thought flappers threatened traditional values, religion and family life.
- An Anti-Flirt League was formed to protest against the flappers’ behavior.
- Life for most women in rural areas and in the South remained unchanged. Many worked and raised their families and did not have enough income to buy luxuries.
- Despite gaining the vote, women were still not equal to men.

'It was totally confusing to read the adverts in the magazines that showed vacuum cleaners…which should lighten the jobs of women in the home. Women living on farms did a great deal of work besides caring for their children, washing clothes and cooking.’

Doris E Fleischman, a women’s rights campaigner.

What was the immigrant experience during the 1920s?

Between 1850 and 1914, 40 million people emigrated to America.

Why move to America?

- Many European towns and cities were overcrowded. Land was in short supply and expensive.
- American land was cheap and fertile. It was also rich in natural resources such as coal, iron, cotton, oil and timber.
- There was great poverty in Europe-terrible housing, poor health and bad diet. It was difficult for working-class people to improve their lives in Europe.
- The standard of living was higher in America and workers were paid more. There were plenty of jobs in America in steel, coal and textile production and the motor, electrical and chemical industries.
- Various groups were persecuted for their religious or political beliefs in some European countries.
- America prided itself on the idea that everyone has the right to achieve success **(the American Dream).**

The rising fear of immigrants:

- Some saw immigrants as an enemy who brought 'un-American' ideas into the country.
- Communism was especially feared. Some were concerned that a communist revolution (like the one in Russia, 1917) could happen in America, especially as America had let in 1.5 million Russians.
- An American Communist Party had been set up in 1919.
- Anarchists were also another group feared in the 1920s. **Anarchists believe that their countries should not be ruled by governments, but by a system where everyone rules themselves through voluntary cooperation.**

The Palmer Raids:

- July 1919, a bomb destroyed the house of Alexander Mitchell Palmer, the man in charge of America's police.
- A communist newspaper was found next to the body of a suicide bomber.
- Palmer vowed to get rid of America's communists –or 'Reds'. During the Palmer raids around 6,000 suspected communists were arrested.
- This period in the 1920s was known as **the 'Red Scare'.**

The impact of immigration:

- In the late 1800s and early 1900s, more immigrants began to arrive from southern and eastern Europe.
- Large ethnic communities developed in many larger cities (Little Italy in New York, for example).
- In some cities immigrants were often resented because they were usually poor, couldn't speak English well and had unfamiliar traditions and religious practices. Many were Jewish or Catholic whereas most of the American population were Protestant.

The immigrant experience:

- Some immigrant achieved great success, opening thriving businesses and making a good living.
- However, for many, working and living conditions were generally poor and difficult.
- Many immigrants were poorly educated and willing to work for very low wages in any kind of job.
- Consequently, some felt that the immigrants were out to 'steal' jobs which created prejudice.

The trial of Sacco and Vanzetti:

- Nicola Sacco and Bartolomeo Vanzetti were Italian- born immigrant anarchists who were arrested for robbing a shoe factory and murdering two staff in April, 1920.
- There has been a lot of debate surrounding the evidence used against the at their trial.
- Judge Webster Thayer said that Vanzetti 'may not have actually committed the crime but he is morally to blame because he is our enemy.
- The pair both proclaimed their innocence throughout.
- Despite having no conclusive evidence, they were found guilty and sentenced to death by the electric chair.

How did immigration laws change?

A **1917** law banned entry to any immigrant over the age of 16 who could not read or write a sentence of 40 words.

1921 Immigration Quota Law: allowed only 350,000 immigrants to enter each year.

1924 National Origins Act: allowed only 150,000 immigrants to enter each year.

What were the experiences of African-Americans during the 1920s?

- From the 1600s onwards, millions of Africans were forcibly taken to America to work as slaves. They were used as farm labourers and servants mainly in Southern states on huge cotton and tobacco farms.
- Slavery was abolished in America in 1865, but the racism and discrimination still remained.
- Jim Crow laws were passed to keep African-Americans separate or 'segregated'. These covered all aspects of life. African Americans were stopped from using the same restaurants, hotels, libraries and facilities as white people. Some states banned mixed-race marriages and African-Americans were even segregated in the military.
- Lynching/s had been taking place in America for many years. Over 100 African-Americans were lynched in 1899, 84 in 1903 and 61 in 1921. On most occasions the police did nothing to stop it from happening.

The Black Renaissance:

- Some African-American communities flourished in the Northern cities.
- Harlem, a neighborhood in New York, became a center for creativity and black culture as talented black poets, writers, artists and musicians gathered there. Some called this the 'black renaissance'.
- White customers were attracted to these areas by the excitement and liveliness of the new nightclubs and jazz bars.
- Some African-Americans even entered politics. In 1910 the NAACP was set up which worked to improve the rights of African-Americans, such as campaigning for the right to vote.

Key words:

Lynched- Hanging, usually without a trial
Segregate- to keep separate
Jim Crow Laws- Laws enforced to keep African-Americans separate or segregated.
NAACP- National Association for the Advancement of Coloured People.

Change and continuity during the 1920s:

- Nearly 2 million African-Americans left the Southern states where racial discrimination was at its strongest and headed North.
- There were more jobs in new industries in the Northern states, and although pay was still low, it was better than in the South.
- However, there was still racism. African-Americans were usually the last to be given jobs and the first to be fired. They occupied the worst housing in the poorest areas of the cities.

The Ku Klux Klan:

- A racist terror group with a membership of around 5 million in 1925.
- Its aim was to maintain white supremacy over African-Americans and immigrants.
- The KKK didn't just target African-Americans but also Jewish people, Catholics, drunkards and gamblers etc. The Klan was against anyone who wasn't like them (including some white people).
- The Klan usually dressed in white sheets, white hoods and carrying US flags.
- Their methods of intimidation included whipping, branding, kidnapping, castration and lynching.
- In 1925, a popular local Klan leader was convicted of the murder of a young woman. At his trial, he exposed many secrets of the KKK, as a result, the membership of the KKK fell from 5 million to 300,000 within a year.

What was prohibition and why did it fail? – America in the 1920s.

Prohibition was the nationwide ban on the production, importation, transportation and sale of alcohol from the 16th January, 1920-1933. However, this law seemed to make alcohol more popular than ever.

Why was it introduced?

- For many years, there had been a campaign against alcohol , led by pressure groups like the Anti-Saloon League. These groups gained much support from religious organisations and churches that opposed alcohol because they claimed it caused a variety of social problems such as poverty, violence, addiction and debt.

The impact of organised crime:

- A few year after the introduction of Prohibition, many criminal gangs were making millions from bootlegging and speakeasies.
- They often bribed police officers, judges and lawyers to avoid arrest.
- They also made money through racketeering, which was when businessmen and shopkeepers paid money to gangs to stop them smashing up their shops.
- A new phrase was created to describe this behavior- 'organized crime'.
- Al Capone, made $10million a year from racketeering.

Key words:

Prohibition- a law than banned the production, importation, sale and transportation of alcohol.

Speakeasies- illegal bars.

Moonshine-a home-made spirit (alcohol).

Bootleggers- someone who smuggled alcohol into America.

Why was it so hard to enforce prohibition?

- Around 1500 'Prohibition agents' tried to enforce the law, by 1930 this had increased to nearly 3000. They tried to locate places that sold or made alcohol. However:
- The USA had 18,600 miles of coastline and land borders to patrol. The agents faced a near impossible task of trying to prevent alcohol being smuggled in by sea or over the border from Mexico or Southern Canada.
- Millions of people were willing to break the law and carry on drinking.
- New York alone had 32,000 speakeasies.
- It was easy to get alcohol as criminal gangs became involved with the distribution and sale of alcohol.
- Many sold 'moonshine' which was cheap and easy to make, however, it was sometimes so strong that it caused serious illness. Deaths from alcohol poisoning went up from 98 in 1920 to nearly 800 in 1926.
- Gangs made so much money that they could bribe police officers to avoid arrest.

The end of prohibition:

- By 1933, many realized that the prohibition experiment had failed. The attempt to make America a less violent, more honest and moral country had resulted in the rise of gangsters, organized crime and police corruption.
- The AAPA – (Association Against the Prohibition Amendment) attracted thousands of members who believed it was a persons right to choose to drink if they wanted to.
- It was argued that if alcohol was legalized again, that it would create many legal jobs in the brewing industry. The government could also tax the alcohol itself- which would mean the government would make money rather than the gangsters.
- In the 1932 Presidential election, Franklin D. Roosevelt opposed prohibition which secured him many votes. After winning the election, in early 1933, Roosevelt repealed (got rid of) Prohibition.

Who didn't benefit from the Boom?- America in the 1920s:

Inequality of wealth:

- The 1920s was not a time of economic prosperity for all Americans. Millions of people remained poor, particularly those in rural areas.
- America was a place where all of the wealth was spread unequally. The richest 5% earned 33% of all of the money.
- There were an estimated 15,000 millionaires in the US in 1927, in contrast to 6 million families who had an oncome of less than $1000 a year.

Farmers:

- Many farmers struggled financially during the 1920s.
- There are many reasons for this:
- After the First World War there was less demand in Europe for American imports.
- The use of high-tech farming machinery produced more food to sell. Prices fell, and farmers become poorer as a result.
- Some farmers borrowed money from the banks to buy the latest machinery and then could not afford to repay the loans. As a result many farmers were forced to sell their farms to raise money or were evicted from their land. In 1924 alone, 600,000 farmers lost their homes.

African-American workers:

- Most African-Americans lived in the Southern states.
- Many worked on farms as labourers or were **sharecroppers** who rented small areas of farmland from a landowner.
- As the farming industries suffered in general, African-American farmworkers and sharecroppers were hit particularly hard because they were already desperately poor.
- Many moved to cities to work but could often only find low paid jobs.

Traditional industries:

- Coal miners suffered because coal mines closed. Other forms of fuel, for example, oil, gas and electricity were increasingly used to heat homes and cook food.
- Cotton and wool factory workers suffered- there was less demand for their products because of the popularity of new man-made fibres, such as rayon, and fashions for shorter dresses, which required less material.

Native Americans:

- Large amounts of their land had been seized by mining companies and much of their traditional way of life had been lost.
- Many Native Americans had been forced to move to reservations. Often, the soil was so poor there that they couldn't grow crops properly.
- Most Native Americans lived in extreme poverty, were poorly educated and had a lower life expectancy than other ethnic groups in US society.

Immigrants:

- Many immigrants had not been educated and were willing to work in any kind of job for very low wages. Because of this, they endured more and more prejudice.

What were the causes of the Wall Street Crash?- 1920s America.

Causes:

- Not all Americans had the wealth to buy luxury goods and there was a limit to the number of cars, radios, telephones and fridges people would buy.
- American factories were **overproducing**- making goods faster than they could sell them and profits were beginning to fall.
- Companies were also struggling to sell their products abroad because foreign governments had put taxes **(also known as 'tariffs')** on US-made goods to encourage consumers to buy goods made in their own country.
- Some people began to doubt whether the companies in which they had invested would keep making the sort of money they had done throughout the 1920s.
- In September 1929, a few cautious people began to sell their shares. They were worried that they wouldn't get their share of company profits at the end of the year. Shareholders soon realized that their share was only worth something if someone was willing to buy them.


BROOKLYN DAILY EAGLE
And Complete Long Island News
WALL ST. IN PANIC AS STOCKS CRASH
Attempt Made to Kill Italy's Crown Prince
Hollywood Fire Destroys Films Worth Millions
High Duty Group Gave $700,000 to Coolidge Drive

Before and after the Crash:

Company	Sept, 1929: Cost of one share (cents)	Nov, 1929: Cost of one share (cents)
Woolworth	251	57
General Motors	182	36
Radio	505	28

The Crash:

Black Thursday:

- On the 24th October 1929, 13 million shares were sold on the New York Stock Exchange on Wall Street – five times as many as on a normal day.
- Share prices in nearly all companies continued to drop.
- Some investors called this 'Black Thursday' others called it the 'Crash'.

Beyond 'Black Thursday':

- People continued to try and sell their shares.
- On Tuesday 29th October, there was another panic to sell shares- at any price.
- 16 million shares were sold during the day and the average price of shares dropped by 40 cents.
- Shareholders lost a total of $8billion.

Banks go bankrupt:

- It wasn't just shareholders who lost money.
- Many Americans had borrowed from banks to buy shares, hoping to pay back their loans when the shares rose in price.
- When share prices fell, investors couldn't sell their shares for enough to be able to pay back their bank in full.
- When lots of customers couldn't pay their loans, the banks went bankrupt. In 1929 alone, 659 banks went bust.
- Some people lost all of their bank savings.

What was the impact of the Great Depression on peoples lives? – 1930s America.

Ordinary shareholders:

- Millions of investors lost a fortune.
- They tried to pay back bank loans by selling valuables.
- Some struggled to pay rent and faced homelessness.

The very rich:

- Some people lost part of their wealth because they had invested in shares or owned factories that closed
- However, many owned lots of property and land and were not affected greatly.

Bank managers:

- Banks loaned out huge amounts on money in the 1920s and many people spent it buying shares.
- When banks went bust bank managers and staff lost their jobs.

Businessmen and their workers:

- Factories had been overproducing.
- After the crash, people had less money to spend, so fewer goods were sold (under-consumption).
- Factory owners cut production, wages, and finally, jobs.
- Closures affected local businesses too: for example, fewer workers eating at restaurants near factories meant some restaurants closed too.

Farmers:

- Many farmers struggled after the crash.
- Farmers with bank loans for equipment had to pay back the money. Some couldn't afford to pay their debts or mortgages and faced losing their farms and sacking their workers.
- By 1932, 1 in 20 farmers had been evicted.
- A combination of drought and poor farming methods turned the land into a 'Dust Bowl'. Huge dust storms blew away millions of acres of dry topsoil, making it impossible to farm.

Responses to the Great Depression

President Hoover's response:

- Hoover was convinced that America would recover soon.
- He believed in 'rugged individualism'- that people can overcome their problems with hard work, not government help.
- However, Hoover did try to improve things:
- The Reconstruction Finance Corporation lent money to businesses in trouble and made small loans to farmers.
- A huge road and dam building scheme created jobs.
- He made $300 million available so states could help their unemployment- but only $30 million was actually accepted.
- Some of Hoover's actions made things worse. The Hawley-Smoot tariff (1930) taxed foreign good, in the hope that Americans would buy the cheaper US goods. However, other nations taxed incoming US goods, so US exports fell sharply, and even more businesses failed.

Hobo's and Hooverville's:

- Around 250,000 Americans stopped paying their mortgages in 1932 alone- most were evicted.
- Some unemployed workers, known as hobos, travelled the country looking for work.
- The homeless queued in 'breadlines' for food from charities and soup kitchens. The YMCA gave around 12,000 free meals a day in New York alone.
- Many took to living on the streets. Some moved to urban waste ground and built shacks with boxes, scrap metal and old cloth. These settlements were known as Hooverville's (a sarcastic reference to the President at the time).

Unemployment:

- Around 13 million people lost their jobs by 1932. Nearly 25% of the labour force.
- By 1932, 12,000 people a day lost their jobs and 20,000 companies had closed.
- Between 1929 and 1932, factory production dropped by 45% and house-building fell by 80%.

Violence and protest:

- In the summers of 1932, 25,000 unemployed ex-soldiers marched to Washington DC and asked for their war pension (or 'bonus') to be paid early. Hoover set the army on them, who drove the 'Bonus Army' away with guns, tanks and tear-gas.

Why did Roosevelt win the 1932 Presidential election?

Herbert Hoover:

- Republican Party.
- Believed it wasn't the governments role to interfere in the daily lives of citizens ('laissez-faire').
- Was elected as President in 1928, during the economic boom.
- Thought of Americans as 'rugged individuals', able to overcome any problem without government help and achieve success through their own hard work.
- Only after the Depression had already been going on for a few years did he then decide to lend money to troubled businesses and farms, make cash available to states to help their unemployed and begin large-scale construction projects.
- Hoover was not a good public speaker and his belief in rugged individualism made him look uncaring, which made him unpopular.

Franklin Delano Roosevelt:

- Democratic Party.
- Helped to organize the navy during the First World War.
- Re-entered politics in 1928, becoming Governor of New York.
- As Governor of New York, spent $20 million of tax money helping the unemployed.
- During his campaign for the Presidency, he promised America the 3 Rs:
- Relief: help for the old, sick, unemployed and homeless.
- Recovery: government schemes to provide jobs.
- Reform: to make America a better place for ordinary people and ensure another Depression could not happen.
- Roosevelt was an excellent public speaker, he campaigned around the country, sometimes making 15 speeches a day.
- His phrase 'the New Deal' caught the publics imagination and led FDR to one of the biggest election victories in history.

The New Deal:

- In the first 100 days of FDR's presidency, American's saw more action being taken to end the Depression than they had seen since it began.
- The 'laissez-faire' attitude of the previous Presidency was over.

The Emergency Banking Act	FDR temporarily closed all banks and had them inspected. Only well-run banks would be given loans and reopened. When they did, people put money back into their accounts.
The Economy Act	All government employees' pay was cut by 15%, saving nearly $1 billion.
The Beer Act	Prohibition was ended, putting gangsters out of business. The government could raise money by taxing alcohol.

The New Deal: Alphabet Agencies.

FDR created new organizations to deal with some of America's problems. They were nicknamed 'Alphabet Agencies' because they were known by their initials. FDR's theory was that once the government creates jobs by spending its money, workers will soon earn wages and start to buy good again and then firms and businesses would start hiring new workers.

Help for farmers:

- The AAA (Agricultural Adjustment Agency), paid farmers to produce less. As a result, food price rose and farmers' incomes increased. However, the AAA was criticized because food was being destroyed while millions went hungry.
- The FCA (Farm Credit Administration), lent money to farmers who couldn't keep up with loan payments.

Help for industry and workers:

- The TVA (Tennessee Valley Authority), provided work building dams, electric power stations along the Tennessee River area, one of the poorest in America.
- The NRA (National Recovery Administration), encouraged employers to work out a code of fair conditions and pay, and gave workers the right to join a trade union.
- The HOLC (Home Owners Loan Company), gave loans to people struggling to pay their mortgages.

Help for the unemployed:

- CCC (Civilian Conservation Corps), jobless 18-25 year old's went to work in the countryside, creating 2.5 million jobs.
- The CWA (Civil Works Administration), provided temporary jobs for 4 million people building schools, airports and roads.
- The FERA (Federal Emergency Relief Agency), $500 million was given to states to help the homeless.

Opposition to the New Deal-America in the 1930s:

Not everyone liked the New Deal. Some thought it interfered too much in ordinary Americans' lives, while others believed it didn't help enough people.

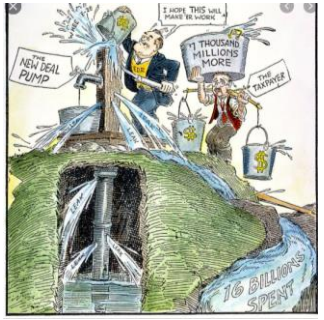
- **The rich**: to pay for the New Deal, FDR raised taxes for rich people which angered them.
- **Business people**: many business owners didn't like the way New Deal agencies 'interfered' with business and gave more rights to workers.
- **The Supreme Court**: America's highest court, the Supreme Court, ruled that the AAA Alphabet Agency was illegal. It said that giving help to farmers was a matter for state governments, not the federal government.
- **Republicans**: Many Republicans who believed in ideas like 'laissez-faire' and 'rugged individualism' were horrified by the way the New Deal dominated peoples lives. Some said Roosevelt was behaving like a dictator and making the government too powerful.
- Huey Long, a politician from Louisiana, suggested an alternative for the New Deal called 'Share Our Wealth': all fortunes over $5million would be confiscated and shared out and every family would receive $5000 to buy a radio, a car and a house. He also promised cheap food for the poor, houses for war veterans and free education. His ideas were radical, but he was popular.

The effectiveness of the New Deal:

Some people say that while the New Deal created lots of jobs, it failed to solve unemployment completely. Some critics argued that the New Deal 'interfered' too much in citizens' lives and wasted money on work programmes.

Defenders of FDR point out that the New Deal helped groups in society that had previously been neglected by the government e.g. farmers and the very poor. One of FDR's proudest achievements was the Social Security Act (SSA) of 1935, America's first system of social welfare. It included a national system of pensions for the elderly, widows and disabled people and payments for the sick and unemployed.

- The New Deal created jobs. For example 2.5 million 18-25 year old's got work in the CCC. However, at least 1 in 10 people were unemployed during the 1930s in the USA.
- The number of bank failures dropped dramatically during the New Deal era.
- Gross National Product (GNP) rose steadily from 1933 to 1941.
- However, millions remained poor throughout the 1930s.
- The New Deal did not seek to end the severe discrimination against African-Americans, however 200,000 African-Americans gained jobs in the CCC.
- There were no Alphabet Agencies aimed directly at women, but many found work within the Alphabet Agencies or were helped by the SSA.
- Government loans were provided for Native Indians to buy more land, set up businesses and buy farming equipment. The Indian Reservation Act of 1934 gave American Indians the right to manage their own affairs, however, many lived in great poverty and suffered discrimination.



The End of the New Deal:

When FDR was re-elected in November 1936, he was increasingly worried about the cost of his job creation schemes.

- He cut the amount spent on New Deal programmes which in turn, caused unemployment to rise by 3 million as the government was no longer creating so many jobs.
- Thousands of workers in car and steel industries went on strike as part of the campaign for better wages and conditions.
- Unemployment rose to 10.5 million in 1938 and car and steel production kept falling.
- By January 1939, FDR himself acknowledged that the New Deal had come to an end.

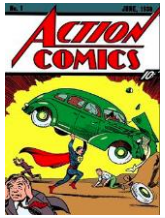
Popular culture, America in the 1930s:

Music and radio:

- Jazz remained popular, and jazz artists such as Louis Armstrong, Duke Ellington and Billie Holiday sold huge numbers of records.
- Most people listened to music through the radio, but gramophone sales increased as vinyl records became more widely available.
- Radio broadcasts included poetry, plays, news reports, live sports and variety shows.

Comic books:

- Comic Books, or 'comics' were increasingly popular in the 1930s.
- The first ones began to appear in 1933 but their popularity soared after the publication of action comics in 1938, which included the debut of Superman.
- Comics were bright, cheap and easy to read and provided an escape into a world of adventure for young audiences.



The Arts:

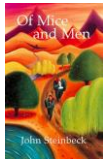
- FDR was keen for artists, musicians, writers and actors to continue their work during the Great Depression,
- He set up the Works Progress Administration (WPA), which provided work for the unemployed artists of all kinds.
- Actors were hired to put on free shows, artists to paint pictures for display in schools, libraries and parks, and writers to produce guidebooks on every US state.
- Much of the work produced by the WPA still exists and it made American's more aware of their own traditions, history and culture than they had ever been before.
- Some people criticized the WPA for wasting taxpayers' money.

Cinema:

- One of the most popular leisure activities of the 1930s.
- Over 60 million people went to the cinema each week, often to provide a form of 'escapism' (escaping their daily troubles caused by the Depression) and to momentarily escape into another world.
- Musicals, comedies starring Charlie Chaplin and Laurel and Hardy, Walt Disney cartoons, historical dramas such as 'Gone with the Wind, and horror films such as Dracula were increasingly popular.
- The Wizard of Oz was one of the first movies to be released in colour.
- 1932, Disney released its first colour Mickey Mouse cartoon and in 1937, Disney released its first feature length film, Snow White.

Literature:

- The Great Depression inspired authors such as John Steinbeck (Of Mice and Men) and James T Farrell to write about the poverty, racism and social poverty they witnessed.



Technology and inventions

- The 1920s was a boom period in American innovation and technology, but the 1930s would also set new benchmarks for industry:
- Tea Bags Are introduced and sold commercially
- The First Photocopier is invented but would not be available for public sale until 1948.
- The increase in use of radio for entertainment leads to innovations in how aircraft communicate from land to air.
- Air travel establishes regular transatlantic passenger flights via zeppelin after the accomplishments of aviators during the 1920s.

I*nventions in the 1930s:*

Ballpoint pens, electric razors, Helicopters, Nylon, Radar, Polaroids

The impact of the Second World War, America in the 1930s / 1940s:

- America followed a policy of isolationism after the First World War, keeping out of the affairs of other countries. Instead, the USA concentrated on building up its economy and strong trade links.
- The Neutrality Act of 1935 banned loans to countries at war, for example and a 1937 law stopped sales of weapons to any countries involved in conflict.
- In October 1937, FDR said peace-loving nations should break off relations with aggressive nations during his famous 'Quarantine speech'. It was clear that he was referring to Germany, Italy and Japan, which had been taking over other nations in Europe, Africa and the Far East.


ROOSEVELT URGES 'CONCERTED ACTION' FOR PEACE AND ARRAIGNS WAR MAKERS; LEAGUE COMMITTEE CONDEMNS JAPAN

CHINA HELD VICTIM

Geneva Group Advises Nations to Aid Her as Invaded Country

The President's Speech

PRESIDENT HITS OUT

Methods of Undeclared War Menace World, He

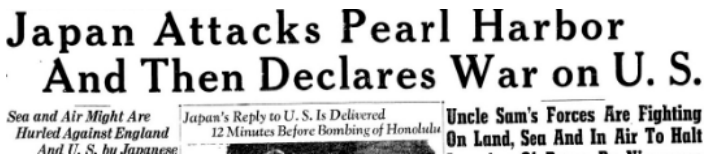
- When war began in Europe in September 1939, America declared support for Britain and France against Germany and its allies. FDR was also concerned about Japan's aggressiveness in the Far East, where America did much trade and controlled large areas of land.
- In November 1939, the USA began to help Britain and France against Germany:
- The Cash and Carry plan: America sold Britain and France US weapons, warships and planes, which created valuable production jobs at a time of rising unemployment in the USA.
- Lend Lease: from March 1941, America started to 'lend' up to $7000 million worth of weapons to Britain, The USA struck a similar deal with the USSR when Germany attacked it in June 1941.

Reactions in America:

- Despite its official position of neutrality, it was clear that the US government supported Britain's war against Germany.
- US organisations such as the Mothers' Crusade and the America First Committee held big anti-war demonstrations because they feared America might get dragged into a European war.
- However, soon many began to see the benefits of ending isolationism.
- As America began to rearm incase it was forced to enter the war, millions found jobs building fighter planes, battleships and tanks.
- Unemployed men became trainee soldiers, sailors and pilots.
- When FDR was voted President for a third time in 1940, unemployment was starting to drop.
- In 1941, there was just 5.5 million unemployed compared to over 10 million just four years before.
- To some, it seemed as if the Second World War and not FDR's New Deal, was now beginning to get American's back to work.

Japan and Pearl Harbor:

- The roots of America's official entry into the Second World War lie in its relationship with Japan.
- During the 1930s, Japan began to invade many of its surrounding countries, including China. Japan, being a relatively small country with a large population struggling during the global Depression, wanted the food and raw materials that these nations produced.
- In protest at Japan's aggression, FDR vowed not to sell any oil or steel to Japan. This angered the Japanese; their industries used millions of tons of US steel and oil every year.
- As the relationship between the two countries grew worse, Japanese military leaders planned a secret attack on US ships at a naval base in the Hawaiian Islands called Pearl Harbor.
- The Japanese knew that Pearl Harbor would be where the US would launch an attack on Japan from if a war ever broke out. The Japanese estimated it would take the US a year to replace the destroyed ships. During this time the Japanese planned they would have created a South-east Asian empire that the US wouldn't be able to take back.
- At 7.55am on Sunday 7th December 1941, 183 Japanese bomber planes attacked Pearl Harbor. The Americans were caught completely by surprise.
- In just under 2 hours, 21 US warships were sunk or damaged, 177 US planes were destroyed and over 2000 men were killed. The Japanese lost just 29 planes.
- The next day, America and Britain declared war on Japan. Three days later, Germany and Italy, (Japan's official allies) declared war on America.


Japan Attacks Pearl Harbor And Then Declares War on U. S.

Sea and Air Might Are Hurled Against England And U. S. by Japanese

Japan's Reply to U. S. Is Delivered 12 Minutes Before Bombing of Honolulu

Uncle Sam's Forces Are Fighting On Land, Sea And In Air To Halt

America at war, America in the 1940s:

Weapon making:

- In January 1942, the War Production Board (WPB) was created to convert industries from peacetime work to war work.
- Within weeks companies began to build tanks and fighter planes.
- The WPB made sure that each factory received all the materials it needed to produce the war goods in the fastest time.
- FDR initially set a target to build 50,000 fighter planes and bombers a year.
- In 1943, US factories produced 86,000 planes and in 1944 had produced a further 96,000.

African-Americans:

- Early on in the war, a African-American civil rights campaigner planned a march to Washington DC to protest against the treatment of African-American workers. The government feared the arrival of around 100,000 angry protesters.
- In return for the campaigners cancelling the march, FDR promised to set up the Fair Employment Practice Committee (FEPC).
- The FEPC soon found widespread discrimination. One aircraft maker employed only 10 African-Americans out of a workforce of 30,000.
- The FEPC could not force companies to change, but it could recommend that they didn't receive profitable government contracts. As a result, some companies did improve their policies in relation to black workers.
- Around a million African-Americans fought in the war, despite discrimination in the armed forces.
- When war broke out, black sailors were only allowed to work in ships kitchens, black soldiers were not allowed to train as officers and the air force wouldn't train black pilots at all.
- However, as the war went on, racial barriers began to break down. Eventually the air force allowed African-Americans to train as pilots, and all of the armed forces trained black officers- although they could only lead other black soldiers in segregated units.
- African-American women were also permitted to become nurses, but they were only allowed to treat black soldiers.

Unemployment:

- In 1939, there were around 9.5 million unemployed Americans, around 17% of the potential workforce.
- By 1941, 4 million had found jobs building fighter planes, battleships and tanks.
- When war broke out, some unemployed men joined the armed forces.
- By 1944, unemployment had dropped to just 670,000.
- Farmers prospered as they supplied food to the military and the traditional industries of coal, iron, steel and oil were all boosted by the demands of war.

Women:

- Before work broke out, women had worked in traditional 'female' jobs such as nursing or teaching. However, the outbreak of war provided more opportunities.
- As millions of men joined the war, women began to fill their places in factories, railways and shipyards.
- Between 1940 and 1945, the number of women in work rose from 12 million to nearly 19 million. Women occupied around one third of all America's jobs.
- In addition, around 350,000 women joined the women's sections of the armed forces.

How prosperous were the American people in the 1950s?

Consumerism in the late 1940s and 1950s:

- When the Second World War ended in 1945, life in the US gradually began to return to normal.
- Peacetime goods were produced in the same, efficient way that war goods were.
- Luxury refrigerators, ovens, vacuum cleaners, cars and televisions were produced at prices that millions could afford.
- The public were keen to buy these goods as they had been so rare during the war.
- A huge advertising industry and 'buy now, pay later' schemes persuaded people to spend money. Massive shopping centres (malls) were built on the outskirts of large towns and cities where people could buy all the goods they needed under one roof.
- Vast car parks were built to accommodate the growing number of vehicles- by 1956, there were 75 million cars on American roads.
- By the end of the 1950s, 9 out of 10 US households had a television, 8 out of 10 had a car and a telephone and 7 out of ten had a washing machine.
- By 1952, America was supplying the world with 65% of its manufactured goods.
- America saw a baby boom in the 1950's that saw a 40% increase in its population.

Help for veterans:

- Government policies also contributed to a post-war boom.
- Towards the end of the war a GI Bill was passed to help veterans.
- It established hospitals, made cheap home loans available and offered grants to pay for ex-soldiers to attend college or trade schools.
- From 1944 to 1949, nearly 9 million veterans received around $4 billion from the government.

Truman's 'fair deal':

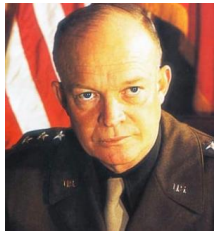
- Like Roosevelt, Truman felt it was important for the government to help Americans most in need and bring about a fairer society. Truman called his plans the 'Fair Deal'.
- The two main issues he hoped to tackle were poverty and the rights of African-Americans.
- Truman raised the minimum hourly wage from 40 cents to 75 cents and cleared large slums to make way for affordable housing.
- However, not everyone supported Truman's ideas. His proposal to introduce a national health insurance scheme was blocked by Republicans and an attempt to improve the rights of African-Americans was halted when so many Southern politicians voted against it.

The American Dream?

- The American Dream is the idea that anyone in America can succeed through hard work. The 1950s was a time when many Americans said they were 'living the American Dream'.
- However, 25% were still living in poverty and people in the South were less well off than people in the North.
- The elderly also failed to benefit from the booming economy in the 1950s. In 1960, 68% of people over 65 had an income of less than $1000 at a time when average factory earnings were over $4,000.

President Eisenhower:

- In 1952, a popular war hero Dwight Eisenhower became the new President.
- He was a Republican who brought lots of business-people into the government to keep the economy booming.
- They succeeded and throughout Eisenhower's presidency the living standard of many Americans continued to improve as wages kept rising.



Women after the war:

- After the war, millions of the women who had done such valuable and demanding war work, returned to their more traditional roles as housewives.
- During the war years, women's wages had risen to two thirds of those earned by men, by 1953 women's wages fell to just 53% of what a man earnt.
- By 1950, the average age a woman got married was 20.
- Women were often employed in 'female' roles such as nursing, teaching and secretarial work.
- A widespread view in the 1950s was that a women's place was within the home.
- However, a growing number of women in the 1950s, particularly middle-class women, were increasingly frustrated with their limited lives.

Popular Culture: The Rock and Roll generation, America in the 1950s:

In the early 1900s, people used the word 'adolescence' to describe the period between childhood and adulthood. Children went to school up until the age of about 14, and then left to get a job and became 'adults'. The word 'teenager' only became common in the 1950s.

Before the war:

- A young American growing up before the war was forced to take life rather seriously.
- Generally, a young man would be expected to find a job after leaving school or join the armed forces in order to earn money to support his family.
- A woman would most likely leave school, perhaps gets a 'traditional' woman's job (secretary or teacher), before getting married and having children.
- Graduating high school then attending college was not common.
- Young people had limited freedom and little influence as important decisions were usually made by the older generations.

Changing expectations:

- After the war, things started to change.
- With a booming economy, parents could now help their children achieve more than ever before, this tied in with the idea of the 'American Dream'- that the next generation is more successful than the previous.
- A more prosperous America meant that parents no longer had to insist that their children get jobs at the age of 14 or 15 to help support the family.
- Many families began to insist that their children finish high school and often paid for them to go to college afterwards.
- Many parents had lived through both a Depression and a World War, so were keen that their children make the most of their opportunities.

The birth of the teenager:

- As post-war America grew wealthier, these teenagers had more leisure time and spending power than previous generations.
- In 1957, it was estimated that the average teenager spend between $10-$15 a week, compared to $1-$2 in the early 1940s.
- They spent their money on music, cars, fashion and alcohol.
- Some teenage boys became 'thrill-seekers' who raced cars, drank heavily and formed gangs. Teenagers soon got a reputation for being independent, aggressive and rebellious.
- The way teenagers dressed, behaved and even spoke differed hugely to their parents and a 'generation gap' developed between teenagers of the 1950's and their parents.
- American businesses soon realized they could sell all sorts of products to teenagers and targeted their advertising to cash in on teenagers' growing purchasing power.

The birth of Rock and Roll:

- A new style of music spread across America during the 1950s. 'Rock 'n' Roll' blended country and western music and rhythm and blues. It had a strong rhythm and was easy to dance to, which appealed to teenagers.
- The lyrics often contained sexual references and referred to young people doing things their parents might not approve of, such as hanging out in gangs and drinking.
- Before long, 'Rock 'n' Roll' was seen as 'dangerous' and was linked to teenage crime and gang culture.
- Radio shows and TV shows rushed to book popular performers. A 1956 TV performance by Elvis Presley was watched by a staggering 82% of Americans.

The growing fear of Communism and the Red Scare in the 1950s:

Many Americans had a deep-seated fear of Communism. A second 'Red Scare' took place in the years immediately after the Second World War (the first one took place in the 1920s).

America and the Cold War:

The Soviet Union had developed nuclear weapons, just like the USA. They were rival superpowers with very different political systems (communism in the Soviet Union and capitalism in America). There was concern that rivalry could develop into a devastating nuclear war. This period of rivalry between the countries was known as the Cold War.

Many countries in Eastern Europe were under the communist influence of the Soviet Union. Americans worried that communism might spread to the USA.

The US government vowed to stop the spread of communism using a policy called 'containment'. In the late 1940s, China (another huge nations with a vast reserve of raw materials) became a communist state. This increased fear that containment wasn't working, and communism was spreading.

A member of the US government (Alger Hiss) was accused of spying for the Soviet Union. Americans Ethel and Julius Rosenberg were found guilty of spying and executed in June 1953. These scandals became headline news, and the fear that there were communists at work across America grew.

'Un-American activities':

- A US government group, the House of Representatives Un-American Activities Committee (HUAC) began searching for communists in the US government, in workplaces, in the media and in the movie industry.
- President Truman introduced a Loyalty Programme that allowed the FBI to investigate all government employees and sack any 'security risks'.
- Millions of Americans were investigated by the HUAC and the Loyalty Programme between 1947 and 1950. Although none were found guilty of spying, many were forced out of their jobs because of the 'disgrace' associated with their investigation.

McCarthyism and the Red Scare:

- In 1950, politician Joseph McCarthy used the fear of communism to help further his political career by claiming he had a list of over 200 communists working in the American government.
- For the next 5 years, McCarthy waged a wild campaign of investigations, some likened it to a 'witch hunt'.
- People who criticized him were accused of being communist, which could have had them fired from their jobs.
- In 1954, McCarthy accused 45 army officers of being communist, but he had no evidence and began to lose public support.

What was the Civil Rights movement? America in the 1950s and 1960s:

The growth of the Civil Rights Movement:

- The Civil Rights Movement was a campaign that took place from the 1940s to the late 1960s, to achieve civil rights for African-Americans equal to those of white Americans.
- 'Civil Rights' refers to equal opportunity and access to employment, housing and education, as well as the right to vote and be free of racial discrimination.

Segregated America:

- America was a country of contrasts in the 1950s.
- Whilst many Americans were enjoying a greater standard of living, African-Americans continued to be treated as second class citizens.
- Despite the fact that both the US constitution and federal law declared that everyone was equal, many states got around this by passing racist 'Jim Crow Laws', which meant African-Americans lived separate, or segregated lives to white Americans.

Early successes in the Civil Rights Movement:

'Brown v Board of Education of Topeka, 1954':

- Most of America's schools were segregated. In 1951, in Topeka, Kansas, the father of an African-American girl named Linda Brown took the local education authority (Board of Education) to court. He wanted his daughter to attend her local 'whites only' school.
- He was helped in his case by the NAACP (National Association for the Advancement of Colored People).
- Brown lost his case but appealed against the decision to the Supreme Court.
- In May 1954, the Chief Judge declared that every education board had to end segregation in schools. Within weeks, many cities and towns began to 'de-segregate' their schools.
- However, some states refused to de-segregate. In the Southern state of Mississippi, a White Citizens Council was formed to ensure segregation would remain.
- By 1956, not a single African—American child was attending any school where there were white students in six Southern states.

The Little Rock case:

- In September 1957, nine African-American students tried to attend Central High School in Little Rock, Arkansas.
- Arkansas had refused to de-segregate its schools and Central High remained a school for white children.
- The governor of Arkansas sent National Guard soldiers to prevent the African-American students from entering the school. A large hostile crowd greeted the students.
- The African-Americans of Little Rock took the governor to court and won. The soldiers were forced to leave, and the students now had the right to attend the school.
- However, by 1960, out of Arkansas' 2 million black students, only 2500 were going to the same school as white children.
- By 1962, there were still not black children attending white schools in Alabama, South Carolina or Mississippi.

The Montgomery Bus Boycott:

- In Montgomery, Alabama, like in many Southern states, buses were segregated.
- On the 1st December 1955, Rosa Parks, an African-American woman, refused to move from the 'whites only' section. She was arrested.
- Rosa Parks was the secretary of the local NAACP and news of her arrest spread fast. Local black community leaders agreed to call a boycott of all city buses. Martin Luther King led the boycott.
- African-Americans had provided 75% of the bus company's business, which was soon in financial difficulty.
- The whole of America and the rest of the world followed the events of the bus boycott.
- King made passionate speeches and appeared in newspaper articles and on chat shows. This highlighted the great divisions in America that claimed to be the 'land of the free'.
- Almost a year after Rosa Parks refused to give up her seat, the Supreme Court ruled that segregated buses, like schools, were illegal. This was a significant victory for the Civil Rights Movement.

Martin Luther King and peaceful protests America in the 1950s and 1960s

A new Civil Rights law:

- In 1957, President Eisenhower passed a Civil Rights Act to ensure that all African-Americans could exercise their right to vote.
- The Act banned anyone interfering with other person's right to vote and made discrimination illegal.
- In practice however, little was done to enforce the Act, but it showed that the government was no longer willing to accept that Southern states could ignore the Federal Government when it came to African-Americans rights.

Peaceful sit-ins, freedom rides and marches:

- Martin Luther King and his followers did not stop after the Bus Boycott.
- They continued to organize marches, boycotts and demonstrations.
- In one-year King himself travelled 780,000 miles and made 208 speeches campaigning for civil rights.
- In 1961, both black and white civil rights campaigners organized **freedom rides** where they travelled around the southern states, sitting next to each other in 'whites only' sections in areas where local authorities had refused to desegregate their buses.
- 'Freedom riders' faced threats and violence as they travelled but they attracted huge publicity.
- **Sit-ins** were also a common non-violent method of protests where some African-American students were accompanied by white students and would sit in the 'white only' sections of restaurants and refuse to leave.
- The first sit-in took place in 1960, but within 18 months over 70,000 sit-ins had taken place across America.

Martin Luther Kings 'I have a dream' speech and assassination:

- In the summer of 1963, King organized the largest civil rights demonstration in American history.
- On the 28th August, he spoke to over 200,000 people at the Lincoln Memorial in Washington DC and gave one of the most famous speeches in history, the 'I have a dream' speech.
- On the 4th April 1968, King was assassinated whilst standing on a hotel balcony in Memphis, Tennessee by a white racist named James Earl Ray.
- Riots broke out immediately after the assassination and President Johnson called for a national day of mourning.
- Martin Luther King is one of the only African-Americans to have a US national holiday named after them.

The Black Panther Party, Nation of Islam and violent methods of protest:

- By 1964, non-violent protest had achieved a great deal but many African-Americans still faced poverty, low wages, inadequate housing and poor education and were becoming angry and frustrated.
- Between 1965 and 1968 there were riots in most major cities across America.
- Some campaigners rejected Kings peaceful approach and felt change was not happening quick enough and a number of organizations promoting 'black power' grew in the 1960's.

The Black Panther Party:

- Formed in 1966, the Black Panthers had nearly 500,000 members by 1968.
- It argued that African-Americans needed to protect themselves from white racists by using violence if necessary.

The Nation of Islam:

- Formed in the 1930s, Nation of Islam argued for separatism (keeping races apart).
- It said that white society was racist, and it rejected Christianity and said it was a white man's religion. It urged it members to follow Islam.
- The most well-known member was Malcolm X, who believed violence was necessary to bring about change.

'Thank God for Bull Connor':

- In May 1963, King organised a non-violent protest march in one of the most segregated cities, Birmingham, Alabama.
- Around 30,000 people took part in the march and the police, under the orders of the police chief Eugene 'Bull' Connor, attacked the protestors with dogs, water cannons, tear gas, electric cattle prods and batons. Hundreds were arrested, including 900 children. These events were shown on TV.
- After days of protest, Kennedy sent the troops in to restore order and ordered the Birmingham council to end segregation.

America in the 1960s:

What was President Kennedy's 'New Frontier'?

Successes:

The economy:

- JFK cut taxes to give people more money to spend.
- Made $900 million available to businesses to create new jobs.
- Gave grants to companies to buy high—tech equipment and train their workers to use it.
- Increased government spending on the armed forces, which in turn, created more jobs.

Education:

- The Peace Corps was set up – an organization that sends volunteers abroad to assist people in poorer countries.
- JFK was also keen to introduce an education law to give more money to schools.

Healthcare and poverty:

- Minimum hourly wage increased.
- $4.9 billion was made available for loans to improve housing, clear slums, build roads and telephone lines.
- Training schemes for the unemployed were introduced.
- Social Security Act increased benefits for the elderly and unemployed.
- Increased funding for research into mental illness.

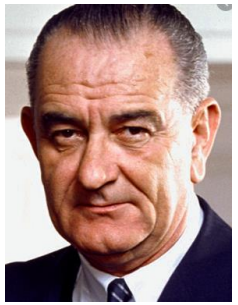
Civil Rights

- Created the CEEO (Commission on Equal Employment Opportunity) to ensure that all people employed with the federal government had equal employment opportunities and gave more government jobs to African-Americans than any previous President.

Criticisms of the New Frontier:

- New equipment in factories sometimes meant fewer workers were needed, so some people lost their jobs.
- The minimum wage was only helpful to those in work- and housing loans were only useful if the recipient could afford the loan repayments.
- JFK's efforts to provide funding for schools failed as politicians from the Southern states refused to support his plans.
- The CEEO helped those who already had a government job but did nothing to find jobs for millions of unemployed African-Americans. The unemployment rate for African-Americans was twice that of white Americans.

What was President Johnson's 'Great Society'?



Successes:

The economy:

- The minimum hourly wage increased from $1.25 to $1.40.
- The Jobs Corp was created to help high school leavers get jobs.

Education:

- 'Operation Headstart' gave money to schools in poorer areas.
- The National Endowment for the Arts and Humanities gave grants to fund artists and galleries.
- The Elementary and Secondary Education Act provided major funding for schools.

Healthcare and Poverty:

- 'Medicare' was created (a JFK idea) to fund healthcare for the elderly and low-income families.
- A Housing Act funded low-income housing.
- The Model Cities Act cleared up inner-city slums.

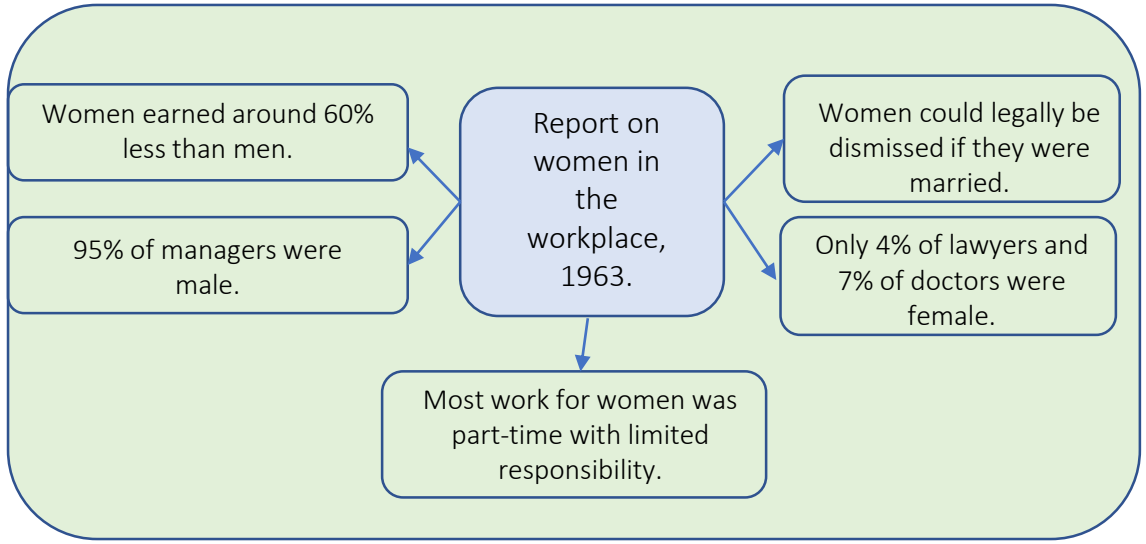
Civil Rights:

- The Civil Rights Bill that JFK had promised before his assassination became law. This banned discrimination based on race and gender in employment and ended segregation in all public places.
- The Voting Act was passed in 1965, which banned literacy tests and other obstacles that stopped African-Americans being able to register to vote. Within 12 months there were 400,000 newly registered black voters.
- Some argue that in 1959, 56% of African-Americans lived in poverty but by 1970, this had fallen to around 30%.

Criticisms of the Great Society:

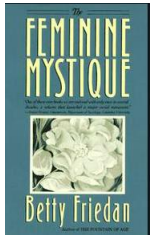
- Many believe that President Johnson spent far too much money on his reforms.
- By 1968, unemployment was rising and there was widespread rioting in poorer areas of some cities.
- Johnson fully supported US involvement in the Vietnam War, which was becoming increasingly unpopular and costly.

What was the feminist movement?- America in the 1960s and 1970s:



Early success in the 1960s:

- In 1963, a best-selling book, 'The Feminine Mystique' by Betty Friedan was published.
- It argued that well-qualified women felt depressed and undervalued as they were unable to pursue a fulfilling career. The book called for equality between men and women.



- In June 1963, Congress passed the Equal Pay Act, making it law that women and men receive equal pay for the same job. The 1964 Civil Rights Act banned discrimination based on race and sex in employment.

Feminist groups:

- Many felt that there was still widespread discrimination against women and Betty Friedan and others established the National Organisation for Women (NOW) in 1966.
- NOW demanded complete equal rights for women in US law. It also called for women to be able to have the right to make their own reproductive decisions (abortion was, at that time, illegal in all US states).
- Within a few years NOW had 40,000 members. They wrote to politicians, organized large demonstrations and took to court companies that failed to pay women the same wages as men.
- Groups of younger, more extreme women used different approaches to highlight their cause, such as disrupting the 1968, Miss World Beauty Contest. They became known as the Women's Liberation Campaign Fund.
- Collectively, all of these group were known as the 'feminist movement'.

Equal Rights Amendment (ERA) and 'Stop ERA':

- Despite the changes to the law, women's average pay remained well below men's and sexual discrimination was still common.
- In 1972, the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA) was approved by Congress. It stated that 'equality of rights under the law shall not be denied by the United States or by any State on account of sex'.
- A 'Stop ERA' campaign was led by Phyllis Schlafly, opposing the change. Schlafly argued that ERA would lead to women in combat, greater abortion rates, unisex toilets and homosexual marriages.
- The 'Stop ERA' campaign was successful- the ERA failed to become part of the US constitution because not enough states voted for it.

The 'Roe v Wade case', 1973:

- The campaign to legalise abortion was a key feminist crusade.
- In the famous 'Roe v Wade' case, lawyers successfully argued that 21, Jane Roe (real name Norma McCorvey) had the right to abortion. She had already had two children, both of whom had been put up for adoption.
- In 1973, the Supreme Court ruled that women in all states had the right to safe and legal abortion, overriding the anti-abortion laws of many states.

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – The Middle Ages

The Influence of Ancient Doctors – a *natural* approach

- Hippocrates was an ancient Greek doctor and he is known as 'the father of medicine'; he wrote many books and he had a huge influence on medical ideas. He taught that people got ill because their humours were out of balance. He taught doctors to examine patients carefully and to keep detailed notes of symptoms.
- Claudius Galen was born in Greece in AD129 and he became doctor for the Roman Emperor and his family.
- He built on the ideas of Hippocrates – he believed in the theory of the four humours; he recommended exercise and a good diet to stay healthy; his most common treatments were bleeding or purging to restore the balance of the humours.
- Galen introduced the 'Theory of Opposites' and this involved using 'opposites' to balance the humours. For example, if the patient had too much phlegm (cold), then he would prescribe something hot to eat (i.e. hot peppers).
- Galen was a great showman and performed public dissections; he showed his discoveries about the nervous system by dissecting pigs.
- Galen's discoveries in anatomy were important. He proved that the brain, not the heart, controlled speech. He also discovered the arteries, and not just the veins, carried blood around the body.
- Galen believed that doctors should find out as much about the anatomy of the body by dissecting humans. If this was not possible, Galen told them to dissect apes because they were most like humans. Galen made mistakes because the bodies of apes and pigs are not the same as humans! Some of this mistakes went unchallenged for over a thousand years.
- Galen wrote more than 350 books which covered every aspect of medicine. People believed his books contained all the answers and they became the basis of medical training for the next 1500 years.
- One key reason Galen's books lasted so long was that his ideas fitted with the Christian Church, which controlled education in Europe in the Middle Ages. HE taught that the body had been created by one god, who had made all the parts of the body fit together perfectly. This matched the Christian belief that God had created human beings.

Claudius Galen

Key terms used in this unit:

Natural approach – medical ideas that are based on observations and common sense.
Supernatural approach – medical ideas that link religious / spiritual ideas to the causes and treatments of illness.
The Four Humours – blood, yellow bile, black bile and phlegm.
Bleeding – the treatment of opening a vein or applying leeches to draw blood from a patient.
Purging – to make a patient vomit.
Dissection – the cutting up and examination of a body.
Anatomy – the science of understanding the structure and make-up of the body.

The Theory of the Four Humours – a *natural* theory

- The body contains four humours or liquids: blood, yellow bile, black bile, phlegm.
- For good health, the humours need to be balanced; people become sick because they have too much or too little of one humour.
- People followed this theory because it made sense of the symptoms they observed when someone was sick. For example, a sick person might vomit yellow bile and this would suggest they have too much of this liquid in their body.

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – The Middle Ages

The Big Picture of Medicine in the Middle Ages

- **Ideas about the causes of disease and illness:**

Most people believed God sent illness as a punishment for sin (supernatural).
Some people believed illness was caused by bad air (miasma).
Physicians might believe that illness was caused by an imbalance of the four humours or astrology.

- **Knowledge of the human body:**

Physicians followed the ideas of Galen; they also knew about Greek, Roman and Arab discoveries.
Physicians were encouraged to accept traditional ideas and not make new discoveries.
Dissections were carried out to illustrate what Galen had said and not to make new discoveries.

- **Treatments:**

Prayers and charms (supernatural).
Remedies using herbs, minerals and animal parts.
Bleeding and purging to restore the balance of the humours (Galen's theory of opposites).
Rest, exercise and diet.

- **Surgery:**

Simple surgery was performed on visible tumours and wounds (by a barber surgeon); splints for fractured bones.
Sewed up large wounds or used cauterisation to stop heavy bleeding (military surgeon).
Plants such as opium used to dull the pain, but no anaesthetics.
Wine, vinegar or honey used to clean wounds but could not prevent infections.

- **Public health and prevention:**

Kings and governments were not expected to improve public health.
Towns struggled to keep streets clean; there was animal waste, open sewers and a lack of clean water.
The best public health facilities were in monasteries and monks were expected to keep clean.
The Black Death reached England in 1348; people could not treat the victims or stop the plague spreading.

- **Hospitals and healers:**

The poor were treated by mothers at home or by a local wise woman with herbal remedies.
Physicians were trained at universities, but they only treated the rich.
The Church set up many hospitals, but they functioned more like care homes to look after the poor and elderly.

Key terms used in this unit:

Miasma – bad smells that were believed to cause disease.
Physician – a doctor of medicine who trained at a university.
Astrology – the study of the planets and how they influence the lives of people.
Cauterisation – using a hot iron or hot oil to seal a wound and stop the bleeding.
Barber surgeon – a medieval barber who also performed minor surgery and dentistry.
Public health – the general health of the population and measures taken to improve people's quality of life.

Factors affecting Medicine in the Middle Ages

- **Beliefs – superstition and religion**

Religious beliefs both encouraged and hindered change in the Middle Ages. For example, in the medieval period, both the Christian and Islamic religions set up hospitals and encouraged people to care for the sick. However, in medieval Britain, the Christians Church also discouraged people from challenging old ideas and developing new ones.

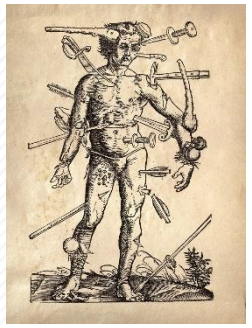
- **Communication**

During the medieval period, doctors in Britain were most influenced by books written by Galen and Islamic doctors.

- **War**

Lots of wars during the medieval period gave military surgeons opportunities to develop new tools and techniques.

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – The Middle Ages



How far did religion help medicine to progress?

- **Christianity**

Christianity preserved the medical knowledge that had been built up by the Ancient Greeks and Romans. Monks in monasteries made copies of ancient books by hand, including the work of Galen.

The Christian Church controlled the universities where physicians trained; physicians were not allowed to challenge the ideas of Galen.

Christian teaching influenced people's ideas about what caused disease; most people believed God sent illness as a punishment for sin. This meant medieval people carried out religious treatments like praying to God and going on a pilgrimage.

The Christian Church taught that people should be looked after, and this led to many hospitals being set up in the Middle Ages. These were more like care homes where nuns looked after the poor and elderly by providing food and rest. If you had an infectious disease, you would not be allowed in!

- **Islam**

Islamic teachings encouraged people to take care of their diet, exercise and hygiene. Islam also encouraged people to care for sick and needy people. One result of this was the development of hospitals and by the 1100s, every large town in the Islamic world had a hospital.

Islamic physicians built on the ideas of the Ancient Greeks and Romans. Many Greek medical books were translated into Arabic. As well as preserving the ideas of hr Ancient Greeks and Romans, Islamic physicians added their own research and discovered new treatments.

Islamic doctors wrote medical encyclopaedias which organised medical knowledge with great thoroughness. These books were later translated from Arabic into Latin and were used in Europe to train physicians.

Key individuals: Rhazes and Avicenna were two Islamic doctors who had a great influence on medicine in Europe.

Key terms used in this unit:

Pilgrimage – a religious journey.
Military surgeon - these surgeons treated knights and royalty who were injured during battles.
Barber surgeon - a medieval barber who also performed minor surgery and dentistry.

How effective was medieval surgery?

- **Military Surgeons**

The medieval wound man reveals that military surgeons were dealing with a wide range of injuries and therefore they developed new surgical techniques and treatments.

Prince Henry was saved in 1403 by the royal surgeon John Bradmore. He had an arrowhead stuck in his cheek and Bradmore designed a new tool to extract it and then treated the wound with honey. This is one example of how war led to improvements in surgery. Surgeons had to develop new techniques to solve the problems they faced on the battlefields.

John of Ardenne was the most famous surgeon in medieval England; he wrote a surgical manual in 1376 called *'Practica'* containing illustrations of his operations and instruments. He also formed the Guild of Surgeons in the City of London to separate the top surgeons from the lower-class ones.

Some surgeons, for example Henri de Mondeville (c.1260-c.1320), were starting to disagree with Galen. Galen believed that wounds were more likely to heal if pus developed; however, Mondeville taught his students to bathe and cleanse wounds, then close them up quickly, which led to more successful healing.

- **Barber Surgeons**

Most surgery was performed by 'barber surgeons'. They offered blood-letting, tooth extractions and amputations, as well as haircuts and shaves. They could also remove small tumours on the skin's surface.

They would work in dirty conditions with dirty tools – wine, vinegar or honey were used to clean wounds, but they could not prevent infections spreading.

They would train as an apprentice and they would usually not receive a formal education.

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – The Middle Ages

Key terms used in this unit:

Cesspits – a place for collecting and storing sewage
Aqueducts – a bridge built to bring in fresh water to a town
Bubonic plague – carried by rats and spread by fleas.
Pneumonic plague – spread by people coughing.
Flagellation – people would whip themselves in the streets to show God they were sorry for their sins in the hope they would not catch the plague.
Rakers – employed to clean up the streets
Latrines - toilets
Buboes – swellings in the armpits and groin.

Medieval Public Health

Public health refers to the health and well-being of the whole population.

Public health problems in medieval England:

- Drinking water was collected from a river or storage pit.
- People threw rubbish and human excrement into the streets and rivers.
- Animals roamed the streets and left dung.
- Diseases such as plague were common and spread quickly.
- Open sewers ran through the streets.

Public health improvements:

- Night carts collected human waste from cesspits.
- Rakers cleaned the streets.
- In Exeter, aqueducts were built to bring fresh water to the town.
- In Newcastle, streets were paved to make them easier to clean.
- Cesspits were lined with brick or stone, so they did not leak into water supplies.
- Laws were passed to punish people for throwing human or butchers' waste into the streets.

Public health in Monasteries:

- The best public health facilities were in monasteries.
- Monasteries were wealthy and their wealth meant they could install water supplies and sanitation.
- Monasteries were often close to rivers and fresh water.
- Monks were expected to keep clean. They washed their clothes regularly and had a bath once a month.
- Some monasteries had the following facilities: latrines, reservoirs to store water, pipes to transport water to various places in the monasteries, drains to take rainwater and waste away.

The Black Death

The Black Death arrived in England in 1348. Historians estimate that the Black Death killed over 1/3 of the population in 12 months. Towns and ports were hardest hit – only remote villages and farms avoided it. The plague affected both the rich and poor.

The Black Death was a combination of **bubonic plague** and **pneumonic plague.**

The main disease was bubonic plague, carried by rats and spread by fleas.

Victims got painful swellings **buboes.** These could be as big as eggs and were found on the victim's neck, groin and armpits. These were quickly followed by high fever, severe headaches, then usually death after 3 days.

Pneumonic plague was spread by people coughing over others. The disease attacked the lungs. Victims coughed up blood and died very quickly – in a day or two.

Explanations:

- God's punishment
- Miasma – bad stinking air
- Astrology
- Four humours

Treatments:

- Prayers and holy charms
- Cut open the buboes to let out pus
- Leeches – to bleed the patient
- Galen's 'treatment by opposites' – cold foods and baths to treat the fever.

Prevention:

- Strangers were not allowed in to towns and villages.
- Bishops held daily services and processions; people lit candles in Church, fasted and went on pilgrimage. In some extreme cases, people practised flagellation to ask God to be merciful.
- The king ordered the Mayor of London to clean up the streets.
- Doors and windows were sealed and people inhaled sweet smelling herbs.

Impact:

- Short-term – 1/3 of medieval England died and whole villages were wiped out. There were less workers and this led to food shortages. This meant that food prices increased.
- Long-term – Survivors became better off. Less workers meant that wages went up. People had more money for education so more people could read and write; this meant that ideas spread mote quickly.

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – The Renaissance

Factor: Individual genius

Factor: Science & Technology

Factor: War

Factor: Communication

How significant was the medical Renaissance?

- The Middle Ages comes between the Romans and the Renaissance.
- The Renaissance period is c.1500-1750.
- The word 'Renaissance' means 're-birth'.
- Attitudes started to change during this period from conservative to enquiry.
- The Medical Renaissance was a period of progress in medical knowledge, which paved the way for modern medicine.
- There was a renewed interest in the Ancients, but individuals were starting to question and test this old knowledge.
- There were some key inventions at this time that had an impact on the Medical Renaissance; the printing press, the microscope, guns.
- People had an interest in finding out more about human anatomy; more dissections were carried out and artists drew accurate pictures of the human body.
- Three key individuals of the Medical Renaissance are Andreas Vesalius (anatomy), William Harvey (heart) and Ambroise Pare (surgeon).
- The printing press was invented in 1450 and this helped to spread new knowledge quickly because many copies of a book could be printed; however, these could only be read by the educated elite.
- The new attitudes of the Renaissance took a long time to take hold and spread; the attitude of enquiry was first adopted by the educated elite (a very small group).
- The Christian Church was still incredibly important and it still held a lot of control over people's lives. Most people at this time could not read and write so they relied on the Church for their knowledge.

How significant were Vesalius, Harvey and Paré in bringing about medical progress?

Vesalius:

✓Studied medicine in Italy and became a professor of surgery at Padua University.
✓He respected Galen's work but believed it was vital to ask questions and challenge traditional ideas by carrying out dissections.
✓Vesalius published his work in *The Fabric of the Human Body* in 1543.
✓He proved Galen had made mistakes; for example, the human jaw is made from one bone, not two as Galen said, and the breastbone has three parts, not seven.
✓Vesalius' book was full of detailed and accurate illustrations of the human body.
✓The invention of the printing press meant the book was widely available to doctors all over Europe and by the 1560s it was being used in England to train doctors.
✓His book encouraged doctors to carry out their own dissections, but Vesalius also faced lots of criticism for challenging Galen.

Harvey:

✓Harvey was born in 1578.
✓He studied medicine in Cambridge and Padua and later became doctor to Charles I.
✓Through dissection, detailed observation and scientific experiment, Harvey developed new ideas about how the body works.
✓In 1628, Harvey published his *'An Anatomical Account of the Motion of the Heart and Blood'.*
✓Through experiments, he showed that the heart pumps blood around the body and the body has a one-way system for the blood. Harvey used finger pressure demonstrations to show that valves in veins always direct blood towards the heart.
✓Harvey's discovery was only gradually accepted and some doctors ignored his theory in the short term.
✓In the longer term, Harvey's ideas were accepted and mark a turning point in the history of medicine. Many areas of medicine today (such as heart surgery or injections) depend on precise understanding of how blood circulates and how the heart works.

Paré:

✓Ambroise Paré was born in France in 1510. He learned his surgical skills as an apprentice to his brother, who was a barber surgeon. From 1536, he spent 20 years as an army surgeon and his experiences on the battlefield led to important breakthroughs in surgery.
✓Paré designed and arranged the making of artificial limbs for wounded soldiers.
✓On one occasion, Paré ran out of the oil that was normally used to seal gunshot wounds. Instead, he mixed up a lotion made from egg yolks, rose oil and turpentine. To his surprise, he found that the patients he had treated with the lotion were in little pain and their wounds were not inflamed or infected. His work became widely known through his books and his new method for treating gunshot wounds became widely accepted.
✓Paré tied ligatures (silk threads) around individual blood vessels to stop bleeding. Although this was a slow process, it was kinder to the patient than cauterising the wound.
✓Paré 's books were widely read and his techniques were adopted by surgeons across Europe. He became one of the most famous surgeons in Europe, serving as the kings of France.

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – The Renaissance

The Big Picture of Medicine in the Renaissance

- **Ideas about the causes of disease and illness:**
- Religious beliefs still strong.
- Natural ideas about the cause of disease – people still believed in the four humours and miasma (bad air).
- Some people were beginning to make a connection between dirt and disease (see responses to the plague).

- **Knowledge of the human body:**
- There was better knowledge of anatomy (Vesalius) and how the body works (Harvey).
- This knowledge was printed in books and this meant that ideas were spread quicker.
- However, there was opposition to Vesalius and Harvey.
- It took a long time for these ideas to be accepted.

- **Treatments:**
- Continuity: bleeding, purging, herbal remedies, cures still based on religion and superstition, e.g. the bezoar stone.
- There were more herbs from overseas (e.g. quinine for malaria).
- The printing press led to people buying 'herbals' - books on herbal remedies; e.g. *The Complete Herbal* by Nicholas Culpepper.
- The death of Charles II reveals that physicians still used a variety of natural and supernatural treatments. Many of these were ineffective.

- **Surgery:**
- Improved treatment of gunshot wounds (Paré).
- Use of ligatures to stop bleeding and artificial limbs were developed.
- However, cauterisation was still widely used.
- There were no effective anaesthetics or antiseptics so pain and infection were still major problems.

- **Public health and prevention:**
- Governments did little to improve public health or stop diseases from spreading.
- There were some attempts by the Mayor of London to prevent the spread of the plague in 1665.

- **Healers:**
- The training of physicians and surgeons started to change slowly and dissection was encouraged.
- However, many physicians still read the work of Hippocrates and Galen and new discoveries were slow to be accepted.
- Most medical care continued to by provided by women within the family or the local wise woman.
- Quacks were travelling salesmen who had no medical training and travelled from town to town selling medicines and pills.

Key terms used in this unit:

Renaissance: a period of 're-birth' from c.1500-1750.
Enquiry: asking questions and trying to discover new knowledge.
Conservatism: when you like things to stay the same and you do not challenge pre-existing ideas.
Dissection: the cutting up and examination of the human body.
Anatomy: the science of understanding the structure and make-up of the human body.
Ligatures: a threat used to tie up a blood vessel during an operation.
Cauterisation: using a hot iron or hot oil to seal a wound and stop the bleeding.
Quacks: a person who falsely claims to have medical ability or qualifications.

Factors affecting Medicine in the Renaissance

- **Individual genius**

During the Medical Renaissance, there were some individuals that were starting to question old ideas and through a scientific method they were making important new discoveries.

- **Science and technology**

There was a new spirit of enquiry amongst the educated elite and this was leading to more experimentation and new discoveries.

- **Communication**

The invention of the printing press in the 1450s resulted in new discoveries being recorded and shared.

- **War**

Provided the conditions for Paré's discoveries.

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – The Renaissance

Key Question: How scientific was the Renaissance period?

The growth of Hospitals

- Hospitals were set up by charities and local councils (for example, St Bartholomew's in London).
- However, hospitals did not deal with infectious diseases.
- By the 1660s, St Bartholomew's Hospital had 12 wards and up to 300 patients, looked after by 3 physicians and 3 surgeons, 15 nursing sisters and a larger number of nursing helpers.
- Nursing sisters treated patients with herbal remedies but nursing helpers did the heavy, manual work – washing, cleaning and preparing food. They had no medical training.
- During the 18th century, more hospitals were established, including specialist hospitals such as maternity hospitals.
- By 1800, London's hospitals were treating more than 20,000 patients a year and most large towns had a hospital.
- The types of treatment available were still based on the four humours. Bleeding and purging were common.

The Great Plague

- In 1665, another outbreak of bubonic plague killed around 100,000 people in London and many thousands more all over Britain.
- Many people still believed the plague was sent by God, the movement of the planets and miasma.
- Doctors still had no cures for the plague – many physicians recommended bleeding or purging, but most fled to save themselves.
- People prayed, wore amulets to ward off evil spirits, cut open the buboes to let the pus out, made herbal remedies with a mixture of herbs and superstitions.
- People tried to keep the air sweet by hanging branches of lavender or sage in doorways or they carried bundles of herbs under their noses.
- The Mayor of London tried to prevent the spread of the plague by giving orders: victims were shut up in their homes, bedding was hung in the smoke of fires, animals were not to be kept inside the city, people were ordered to sweep the streets, public gatherings were banned.
- However, these measures did not work because the King and his council left London and only nine men were put in charge of dealing with the plague in London. Six of them left London when they could. Not enough men could be found to work as watchmen.
- It took a combination of cold weather and the Great Fire of London to end the Great Plague, but over a quarter of the population of London had died.

The Royal Society

- In 1645, a group of people interested in discussing new scientific ideas got together in London. They met weekly to discuss new ideas in physics, botany, astronomy, medicine and other sciences. They built its own laboratory and used equipment such as microscopes.
- The Society published books and articles to spread ideas and new discoveries.
- In 1662, the group became known as the Royal Society after King Charles II attended meetings to hear talks and watch experiments.
- The Royal Society demonstrated the new spirit of enquiry amongst the educated elite and they challenged old ideas, such as Galen.

Training and Technology

By the late 1600s, the training of doctors was finally starting to change:

- In a few hospitals, part of a physician's training took place on the wards.
- Training emphasized the importance of a scientific approach, observing symptoms and trying out treatments.
- More doctors carried out dissections.
- They were helped by improved technology (better microscopes) and improved medical equipment (the first thermometers).

John Hunter

The training and status of surgeons began to change during the 1700s. Surgery was beginning to be seen as an important part of medicine.
1745 – the company of surgeons was formed. 1800 – it was granted a royal charter, becoming the Royal College of Surgeons.
John Hunter set up his own anatomy school and surgical practice where he trained hundreds of surgeons.
He encouraged a scientific approach and experimentation; one individual who was inspired by Hunter was Edward Jenner.
Hunter had great influence as the surgeon to King George III and Surgeon General to the British Army.
His books were widely read and helped to improve surgical knowledge; they covered topics such as dentistry, venereal disease and gunshot wounds.
Hunter tested new surgical techniques – e.g. he treated a man with a tumour on his knee joint by tying off arteries to restrict the blood flow.
In another successful operation, Hunter cut away a tumour weighing 4kg from a patient's neck.
In 1783, Hunter arranged his collection of 500 plant and animal species into a teaching museum in London.

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – Improved treatments in the Scientific Revolution:

Factor: Individual genius | Factor: Science & Technology | Factor: Communication | Factor: Government

Key Individual: Edward Jenner

Key Discovery: First successful vaccination (1796)

In the 1700s, smallpox was a deadly disease at this time.

Inoculation was a risky method of trying to protect people from catching a deadly dose of smallpox – it involved giving a healthy person a small dose of the disease (by spreading pus from a smallpox spot into a cut in the skin) in the hope that the body would develop resistance to smallpox.

However, inoculation was risky as the person could get a severe dose of smallpox and die. It was also expensive.

Edward Jenner was an experienced doctor working in the countryside. He had trained under John Hunter, the greatest surgeon of the time. Hunter taught his students to observe patients carefully and to test their ideas through experimentation.

Like other country doctors, Jenner knew that milkmaids who caught cowpox never got smallpox. He wanted to test to see if this was the case.

He used a young boy called James Phipps to experiment on. The young boy was given cowpox and then given smallpox – he did not become sick.

Jenner repeated this experiment 23 times and published his work in 1798. He called it vaccination because the Latin word for cow is *vacca*.

In Britain, the government gave Jenner £30,000 to develop his work and vaccination became widely used. Deaths from smallpox fell quickly.

Initially there was opposition to the vaccination for various reasons:

- ✓Inoculators lost money and went out of business because the vaccination was safer.
- ✓People thought it was unnatural to put something from an animal into the body. This created fear.
- ✓There was religious opposition.
- ✓**Jenner could not explain how the vaccination worked.**

The government made the vaccination compulsory in 1852, 50 years after Jenner's research.

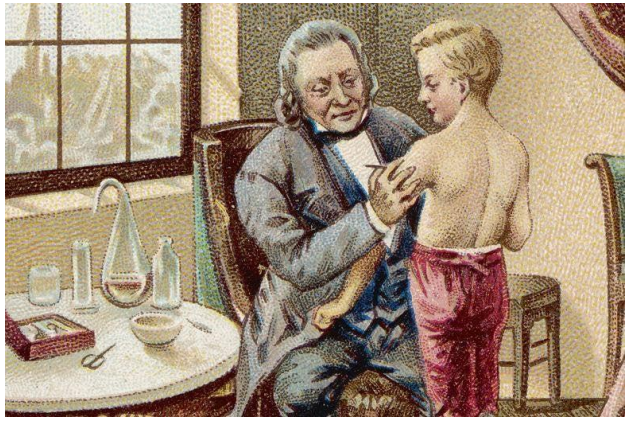
Smallpox was finally eradicated in 1980.

Once the science behind vaccination was understood (after the Germ Theory was published in 1861), other scientists could build on Jenner's work by developing vaccines against other deadly infectious diseases.

Key terms used in this unit:

Inoculation: putting a low dose of a disease into the body to help it fight against a more serious attack of the same disease.

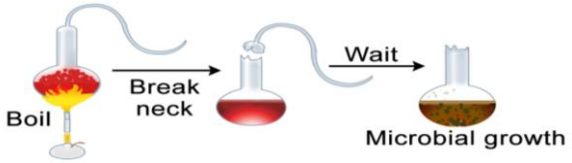
Vaccination: the injection into the body of killed or weakened organisms to give the body resistance against disease.



Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – Improved understanding about the cause of disease in the 19th Century:

Factor: Individual genius | Factor: Science & Technology | Factor: Communication | Factor: Government | Factor: War

Key individual: Louis Pasteur
Key discovery: Germ Theory (1861)

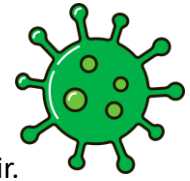


Louis Pasteur was a French chemist. He was a hugely determined man who made one of the most important breakthroughs in our understanding of the cause of disease.
Before Pasteur, people believed in the miasma theory of disease or spontaneous generation (that bacteria are the product of decay, rather than the cause).
Pasteur was asked to investigate why alcoholic drinks sometimes went sour. He concluded that the germs in the air caused the drinks to go sour. He introduced the method of *pasteurisation* – the process of heating liquids to kill off harmful bacteria.
He also speculated that germs might be getting into humans and causing disease.
Pasteur published his Germ Theory in 1861 – he was funded by the French government to continue his research to prove that the Germ Theory was correct.
In 1865, Pasteur was asked to help the silk industry and discovered that silk worms were catching a deadly disease from germs in the air. He then started to investigate human diseases, but he struggled to identify the specific bacteria which caused individual diseases.
Following the work of Robert Koch who started to identify the specific microbe that causes a particular disease, Louis Pasteur developed an animal vaccine for chicken cholera and then anthrax.
Pasteur then turned his research to human diseases and developed a vaccine for rabies.
Other scientists built on Pasteur's work in the 20th century and developed vaccines against diseases such as TB and measles.

For the first time, doctors understood what really caused diseases and this revolutionised medicine in many different ways.

✓New chemical drugs could be developed to kill off the bacteria that was causing a patient to be sick.
✓Safer surgical techniques were developed now that surgeons understood the importance of hygiene and *aseptic surgery.*
✓Public health improved as a result of councils and governments building sewers, keeping streets clean and providing clean water.

Key terms used in this unit:

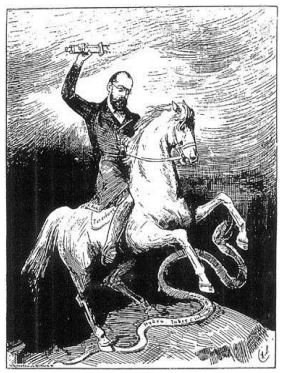


Spontaneous generation: the theory that decaying matter turns into germs.
Pasteurisation: a process of heating that destroys harmful bacteria.
Germ: a micro-organism that causes disease.
Germ Theory: the theory that germs cause disease, often by infection through the air.
Microbe: a tiny single-celled living organism too small to be seen by the naked eye. Disease-causing micro-organisms are called bacteria.
Aseptic surgery: the performance of an operation under completely sterile conditions.
Microscope: an instrument that produces magnified images of very small objects.

Key individual: Robert Koch
Key discovery: Linking bacteria to specific diseases

Microbe hunting

Koch was a German doctor who became interested in Pasteur's work and began to study bacteria himself.
The two men saw each other as rivals, especially after the war between France and Germany in 1870-1, which was won by Germany. Both men wanted to be successful to glorify their country.
In 1876, Koch and his research team made an important breakthrough when they found the bacteria that was causing anthrax (a disease that affected humans and animals). This is the first time anyone had identified the specific microbe that causes a particular disease.
Pasteur used Koch's findings to develop a vaccine against anthrax.
Koch developed a method of staining bacteria to make them easier to study under a microscope. They could be photographed using a new, high-quality photographic lens. This allowed other scientists to copy Koch's methods to discover bacteria that caused other diseases.
Koch wanted to be the first man to discover the specific germ that causes a human disease. He investigated the deadly disease of TB – he was able to stain the tiny bacterium so that it stood out from other bacteria and human tissue.
This was the major breakthrough he had been searching for. His research team followed this up by discovering the specific bacterium that causes cholera.
Other scientists joined in the microbe hunt. By 1900, different teams had found the bacteria that causes other killer diseases, such as typhoid and dysentery.



Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – Improved treatments in the 20th Century:

Factor: Individual genius | Factor: Science & Technology | Factor: Communication | Factor: Government | Factor: War

How did treatments improve in the early 20th Century?

Scientists used Pasteur and Koch's work to develop a range of vaccinations – *prevention is better than cure.*

Following the work of Pasteur and Koch, new chemical cures were developed. These were called 'magic bullets' as they destroyed the harmful bacteria that made people sick.

In 1909, Paul Ehrlich developed the first chemical cure for a disease – Salvarsan 606. This cured 10,000 people of syphilis within the first three years of it being used.

In the 1930s, Gerhard Domagk developed the second chemical magic bullet – Prontosil, which cured blood poisoning.

The important chemical in these cures was sulphonamide. Drug companies started to mass produce sulphonamide-based cures for diseases such as pneumonia and scarlet fever.

However, these cures could have damaging side effects and magic bullets could not kill the germs that caused most infections.

Despite these new treatments, most people were treated at home in traditional ways.

Home remedies - many people could not afford to pay to see a doctor or pay for medicines. These people relied on home remedies, often herbal, like people had for centuries.

Patent Medicines – sold by 'quack' doctors. These medicines were often known as 'cure-alls' and were big business. Some of these medicines were dangerous or they contained harmful ingredients with no medicinal properties.

Key individual: Fleming

Key discovery: the discovery of penicillin

During the First World War, Fleming was sent to France to study soldiers' wounds. Chemical antiseptics were not working and many soldiers were dying from their infected wounds.

Back home, Fleming worked on finding a way to deal with these bacteria – called *staphylococcus* germs, which caused major infections and often killed their victims.

In 1928, Fleming went on holiday and left some of his petri dishes containing bacteria on his laboratory bench. On his return, he noticed mould on one of the dishes – around the mould, the bacteria had disappeared.

He looked closer through his microscope and could see that the areas where the bacteria had died were covered with a mould called penicillin.

Fleming carried out experiments with the penicillin mould and discovered that when it was diluted, it killed bacteria without harming living cells.

He used penicillin successfully to treat another scientist's eye infection.

However, it did not seem to work on deeper infections and it was taking ages to create enough penicillin to use in his experiments, so he stopped his research.

Fleming published his research in a medical journal in 1929. It went largely unnoticed… for now!

Key terms used in this unit:

Magic Bullets: pills made from chemicals that kill particular infections inside the body.

Sulphonamide: an antibacterial drug used to treat infections such as bronchitis and pneumonia.

'Cure-alls': a medicine usually sold for a profit. In the 19th century they were often made from a mix of ingredients that had no medical benefits.

Antibiotics: a group of drugs used to treat infections caused by bacteria, e.g. penicillin.

Penicillin: the first antibiotic drug, produced from the mould penicillium.

Key individuals: Florey and Chain

Key discovery: the mass-production of penicillin

n 1938, Florey and Chain were working together at Oxford University, researching how germs could be killed. They read Fleming's article and asked the British government for funding to manufacture penicillin. They only got £25!

Florey and Chain persevered and they tested penicillin on mice – they discovered it helped mice to recover from infections, but to treat one person they would need 3000 times as much. So they began growing penicillin wherever they could, using hundred of hospital bedpans.

By 1941, Florey and Chain had enough penicillin to test it on one person. They tested it on a policeman, Albert Alexander, who had blood poisoning – the penicillin worked, but it ran out after five days and the policeman became ill again and died.

Florey and Chain had proved that penicillin worked and that it was not harmful to the patient, but they needed to find a way of making enough of it.

English factories were too busy making war supplies to help – so Florey went to America. It turned out to be the right time as America had entered the war following the Japanese attack of Pearl Harbour in 1941. The American government saw the potential of penicillin for treating wounded soldiers and gave interest-free loans to US pharmaceutical companies to buy the expensive equipment needed for making penicillin.

By 1944, there was enough to treat all the Allied wounded on D-Day in June – over 2.3 million doses.

Fleming's discovery set of a chain of events that saved millions of lives.

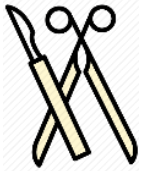
The impact of antibiotics in modern medicine has been far reaching. After 1948, government-funded NHS provided antibiotics free of charge and this helped to save the lives of people suffering from illnesses such as pneumonia, meningitis and similar infections.

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – The Transformation of Surgery in the 19th Century

What was surgery like at the beginning of the 19th Century?

Surgery was quick and painful due to no anaesthetics – patients were tied or held down.
Infection could spread easily due to a crowded, unclean operating environment; including a wooden operating table and surgeons wearing their normal clothes.
There was very basic technology, surgical tools and equipment.
High death rates – patients died from **pain (shock), blood loss and infection**.
Surgery was a last resort – for example, if a limb needed to be amputated.

Laughing gas and **ether** were used as anaesthetics in the first half of the 19th Century, but they had many limitations, meaning a more effective anaesthetic needed to be found.



Key terms used in this unit:

Amputation: the removal of a limb by surgery.
Anaesthetics: a drug given to produce unconsciousness before and during surgery (e.g. chloroform).
Antiseptics: chemicals used to destroy bacteria and prevent infection (e.g. carbolic acid).
Aseptic surgery: the performance of an operation under completely sterile conditions.

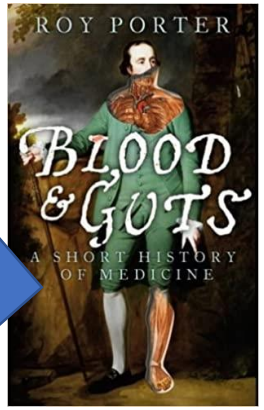
James Simpson and the use of Chloroform – *a turning point*

- James Simpson was Professor of Midwifery at Edinburgh University.
- **In 1847**, he discovered that **CHLOROFORM** was a very effective anaesthetic.
- He used it to help women in childbirth and in other operations.
- He wrote articles about his discoveries and other surgeons started to use it in their operations.
- Simpson faced opposition – Chloroform was new and untested; people believed pain was a good thing during surgery; in the short-term, the use of Chloroform **increased the risk of infection** as surgeons took longer and went deeper into the body now patients were unconscious (the 1850s became known as *'the black period of surgery'*)
- A breakthrough came in 1853, when Queen Victoria was given chloroform during the birth of her eighth child.
- In the long term, this led to other chemicals being used as anaesthetics and the development of local anaesthetics.

Joseph Lister and the use of Carbolic Acid – *a turning point*

- Before the Germ Theory, many patients dies from infection after an operation because surgeons reused bandages, they did not wash their hands before an operation, they did not sterilise their equipment and they wore dirty aprons.
- Lister was one of the outstanding surgeons of the 19th Century – he was keenly interested in science and he knew about Louis Pasteur's Germ Theory (1861) – this drove Lister to look for ways to kill bacteria in patients' wounds.
- **In 1864**, Lister observed how **CARBOLIC ACID** was used to reduce the smell of sewage and he realised its potential for killing the bacteria that was causing infections to develop in wounds.
- He encouraged the use of **carbolic soap, a carbolic spray to kill germs around the operating table and antiseptic ligatures** to tie up blood vessels after surgery.
- Lister published his results to show that the use of carbolic acid dramatically reduced deaths from infections.
- He faced opposition because not everyone accepted the Germ Theory; it slowed surgeons down and the carbolic spray was unpleasant for the surgeons; and it did not always work because other surgeons were less careful than Lister.
- Lister's demonstrations and teachings helped to overcome opposition, as did Koch's discovery of the bacterium which caused septicaemia.

"But things were changing: thanks to anaesthetics and antiseptics, surgery's horizons opened dramatically."
- Roy Porter *'Blood and Guts'*



Factors affecting the transformation of surgery in the 19th Century:

Science and technology

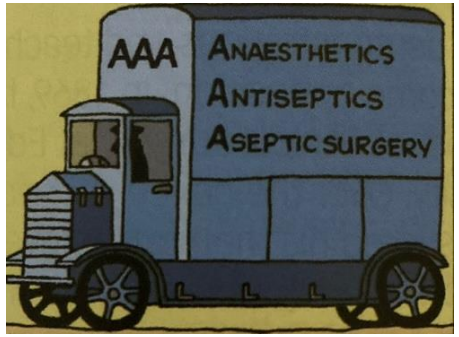
Individual genius

Communication

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – The Transformation of Surgery in the 20th Century

What was surgery like at the end of the 19th Century?

- By the late 1890s, antiseptic surgery had developed into aseptic surgery.
- To ensure absolute cleanliness:
  - ✓ Operating theatres and hospitals were carefully cleaned.
  - ✓ All instruments were steam-sterilised.
  - ✓ Surgeons wore surgical gowns and face masks.
  - ✓ Sterilised rubber gloves were introduced.
- With pain and infection now solved, surgeons attempted more ambitious surgeries:
- The first operation to remove an infected appendix came in the 1880s.
- The first heart operation was carried out in 1896, when surgeons repaired a heart damaged by a stab wound.



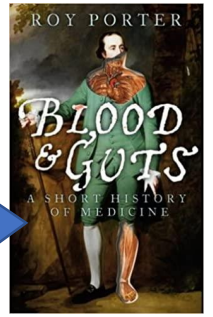
What was the impact of the First and Second World Wars on Surgery?

1. **X-rays –** In 1895, a German scientist, Wilhelm Röntgen, discovered X-ray. Within months, the first X-ray machines were being used in hospitals to identify diseases and broken bones. However, it was the **FIRST WORLD WAR** that saw the technology being widely used. Surgeons used X-ray to quickly find bullets or shrapnel embedded deep inside soldiers' bodies and remove them more easily, reducing infection. By 1916, all the major British army hospitals were using X-rays and ambulances were fitted with X-ray equipment.
2. **Blood transfusions and blood banks –** Blood loss remained a major problem at the end of the 19th Century. Karl Landsteiner discovered blood groups in 1901; this allowed for successful blood transfusions as long as the patient and the donor were of the same blood group. However, when doctors tried to store or transport blood, it clotted and could not be used. This problem was solved during the **FIRST WORLD WAR** when sodium citrate was added to prevent blood from clotting and ways were found to store blood in 'blood banks' for future use. Methods of storing blood continued to improve in the **SECOND WORLD WAR** and transfusions saved thousands of lives.
3. **Plastic surgery –** Now the problem of pain and infection had been solved, the way was paved for surgeons to repair some of the terrible wounds caused in war by bullets and shrapnel. Improvements to plastic surgery were made in the **FIRST WORLD WAR.** Harold Gillies was a pioneer of plastic surgery and he opened a specialist hospital in Kent to treat soldiers who returned from the war with horrific injuries. He performed over 11,000 operations using skin grafts to rebuild ex-soldiers' faces. Improvements to plastic surgery continued in the **SECOND WORLD WAR**, especially repairing burn damage. Archibald McIndoe was a prominent plastic surgeon who carried out 4000 operations on burns, using skin grafts to reconstruct faces and hands.

Key terms used in this unit:

Blood transfusion: using blood from a donor to replace lost blood in a patient.
Plastic surgery: the process of reconstructing or repairing parts of the body through surgery.

"As the twentieth century unfolded, surgery seemed to know no limits. Such progress would have been quite impossible without key technological innovations…"
- Roy Porter *'Blood and Guts'*



Modern Surgical Methods:

1. **Injected anaesthetics –** More precise dosages and longer operations. Local anaesthetics also developed.
2. **Radiation therapy and chemotherapy –** Marie Curie researched a treatment for cancers using beams of radiation (radiotherapy).
3. **Open-heart surgery –** By the 1970s, heart bypasses had become common and heart surgery quite routine.
4. **Transplant surgery –** The first heart transplant = 1967.
5. **Keyhole surgery –** Surgeons work through a tiny hole using a small instrument called an endoscope.
6. **Scanning machines –** CT, MRI and ultrasound scanners.
7. **Robotic surgery –** More precise than human surgeons.

Factors affecting the transformation of surgery in the 20th Century:

War

Science and Technology

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – Public Health in the 19th Century

What was public health like at the beginning of the 19th Century?

The **Industrial Revolution** was a period of drastic change in Britain (c.1750-1900) when the economy changed from being mainly based around farming to mostly industrial manufacture. This involved lots of people migrating from the countryside to the new industrial towns and cities to find jobs in factories, mines and mills.
Big factories were built for the new machinery and these factories were built in towns and cities.
People flooded to these for work leading to densely populated urban areas.
The housing was inadequate because it was built quickly and cheaply – large families lived in one room with poor ventilation, they often shared beds, there was no electricity, running water or flushing toilets. Disease spread quickly.
The government had a LAISSEZ-FAIRE attitude – this meant they were not prepared to interfere with how people lived their lives, or their working or living conditions.

Case Study 1: The Great Stink, 1858

- By the 1850s, there were over 2.5 million people living in London.
- Many Londoners got their drinking water from the River Thames, even though the river was also where they dumped their rubbish, including human waste.
- The summer of 1858 was very hot and a thick layer of sewage lay on the water – as temperatures topped 30 degrees, the smell became unbearable and it became known as the 'Great Stink'.
- In the Houses of Parliament, MPs found it impossible to use the rooms overlooking the river.

Case Study 2: Cholera epidemics

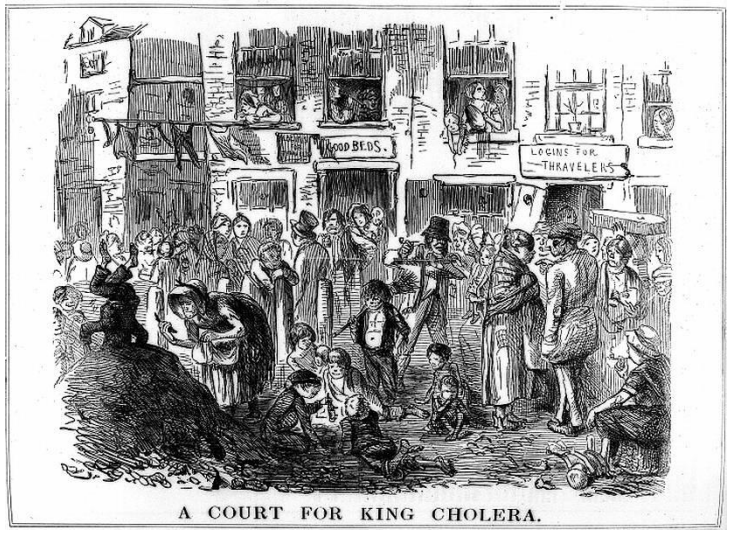
- There were frequent outbreaks of cholera and four major epidemics between 1831 and 1865.
- Cholera was as frightening as the plague had been in previous centuries. It was caused by drinking dirty water and it led to violent sickness and diarrhoea which often caused severe dehydration and death.
- Cholera could kill its victims in less than a day – the epidemic of 1848-9 killed over 53,000 people.
- Cholera spread because germs from infected cesspools infected the water supply, but people did not know this. Therefore, people tried to respond to cholera with a mixture of common sense and supernatural remedies.

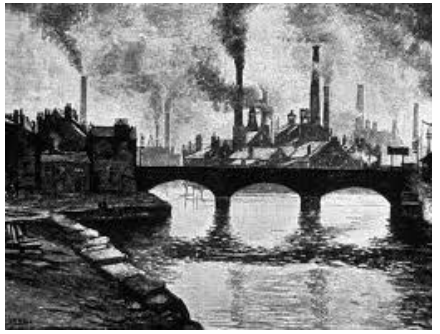
Case Study 3: Life expectancy in cities

- Liverpool was a large rapidly growing industrial town – the average life expectancy of a working-class person was 15 years.
- Rutland was a country area – here the average life expectancy of a working-class person was 38 years.
- The difference can be explained because of terrible living conditions in industrial cities, dangerous working conditions, a lack of fresh food, the cost of doctors and limited access to fresh, clean drinking water.

Key terms used in this unit:

Public Health: measures taken by the government to look after people's health (acts / laws passed to try and improve public health).
Laissez-faire: the belief that governments should not interfere in people's lives. It prevented public health schemes getting underway in the 19th century.
Cholera: a serious infection that causes severe diarrhoea, caused by drinking dirty water.
Epidemic: a sudden, widespread appearance of an infectious disease.
Cesspools: a place for collecting and storing sewage.





Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – Public Health in the 19th Century

Key Question: Were individuals the most significant factor in improving public health in the 19th Century?

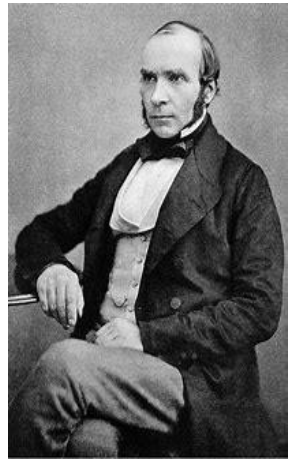
Key Individual: Edwin Chadwick

He was a civil servant who was concerned by the shocking conditions in Britain's industrial cities.
He published his *'Report on the Sanitary Conditions of the Labouring Population'* in **1842**.
He found that the poor were living in dirty and overcrowded conditions; this caused a huge amount of illness; many people were too sick to work which made them poorer; other people had to pay higher taxes to help the poor.
His solution was for the government to reform public health. He argued that the government could cut taxes and save money in the long run by doing the following:

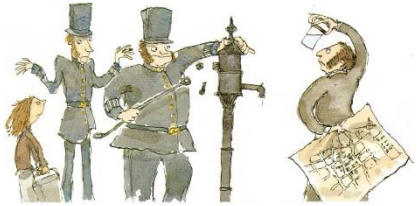
- ✓Improving drainage and sewers
- ✓Removing rubbish from streets and houses
- ✓Providing clean water
- ✓Appointing medical officers in each area to check these reforms were happening.

There was opposition to Chadwick's report as local tax-payers did not want to pay for these improvements and they did not see it as the national government's responsibility.
However, there was a cholera outbreak in 1847 and fear grew in Britain of the many deaths to come. Therefore, the government followed Chadwick's recommendations and passed a Public Health Act in **1848**.
As a result of this new Act, a national Board of Health was set up. In towns where the death rate was very high, the government could force the local council to improve water supply and sewerage, as well as appoint a Medical Officer of Health. Local councils were encouraged to make improvements by collecting taxes from the local people to pay for them.
However, the 1848 Act was not compulsory. *It encouraged change, but it did not force these changes*. Only 103 towns set up local boards of health and the majority of town councils did little to improve public health. The National Board of Health was abolished in 1854 after only six years.

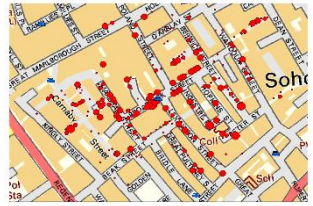
Key Individual: John Snow



John Snow was a doctor who was important in the story of public health improvements. In 1849, he published a book putting forward his view that cholera spread through water, not in 'bad air'. His suggestion was mocked by many doctors.
In **1854**, there was another cholera epidemic. Cholera had killed over 500 people around Broad Street in central London, near to Snow's surgery, in just ten days.
Snow carefully mapped out the deaths in detail. He linked all the deaths to a single water pump on Broad Street.
He found that a workhouse prison near Broad Street had virtually no cases as they had their own well.
Snow wrote a report on his findings. His evidence was so strong that the handle of the Broad Street pump was taken away and there were no more deaths.
It was later discovered that a cesspool, only a metre away from the pump, was leaking into the drinking water.
Snow had proven that clean water was essential for preventing the spread of cholera, but even this did not convince the government to act.



Snow proved the link between water and cholera, but he could not explain why there was this link. It was not until after Pasteur published his Germ Theory that anyone could begin to understand exactly why the water was causing cholera.
There was a further cholera epidemic in 1865, which killed 14,000 people, but even this did not force the government to act. A new law was not passed because wealthy people did not want to pay taxes to cover the costs, local councils did not want the national government interfering in how they ran their towns and there was a strong belief in 'laissez-faire'. Governments were still not expected to play a major part in improving the living and working conditions of the people.



Key terms used in this unit:

A civil servant: someone who works for the government.
Sewerage: a system of draining away human waste.
Medical Officer: a person appointed to look after the public health of an area.

Factors affecting public health in the 19th Century:

Individual genius

Science and technology

Government

Communication

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – Public Health in the 19th and 20th Centuries

Key Question: Were individuals the most significant factor in improving public health in the 19th Century?

Other factors that led to public health improvements in the 19th Century:

Individual genius, government, science and technology:

Joseph Bazalgette organised the building of London's sewer system in the 1860s. It was a major engineering achievement which is still in use today. There were 83 miles of large sewers built underground from brick, and 1100 miles of smaller connecting sewers from each street.

Individual genius, science and technology, communication:

Pasteur's Germ Theory was published in 1861. He proved that there was a link between dirt and disease. This was a turning point as people were more willing to pay taxes to cover the costs of cleaning up their towns and cities, and more councils accepted responsibility to improve public health.

Government:

Working men were given the vote in 1867. The number of voters doubled and this forced the government to promise to do things to help working men, not just the wealthy and middle class. This led to many new laws being passed in the 1870s and 1880s to improve the lives of ordinary people.

Government:

A new and more effective Public Health Act was passed in 1875. This act finally forced local councils to improve public health and it became compulsory for local councils to improve sewers and drainage, provide fresh water and appoint medical officers.

Individual genius, communication, government:

Octavia Hill showed how to provide healthy homes for working people and was influential in the Artisans' Dwelling Act in 1875 (this gave councils the power to knock down slum housing). She bought three London slum houses in 1865 and cleaned them up. Over time, she bought and improved 2000 houses. This led to similar schemes elsewhere.

Government:

More laws were passed to improve public health from 1875-1900. These included stopping the pollution of rivers, shortening working hours in factories for women and children, making it illegal to put unhealthy additives in food and making education compulsory.

Key terms used in this unit:

Poverty: when people are very poor and they struggle to look after themselves.
Reform: changes in the law.

What was the extent of poverty at the beginning of the 20th Century?

By 1900, life expectancy was starting to rise. It had reached 46 for men and 50 for women.

However, one major problem remained: **POVERTY**. This meant that many people still suffered major health problems.

The government gave no help for the sick, unemployed or elderly. Those who could not get help from friends, family or charities had to go into a workhouse, run by the local council.

The infant death rate was still very high with 1 in 7 babies dying before their first birthdays.

Social investigators like Charles Booth and Seebohm Rowntree published reports to raise awareness of how poor many people were and they also showed the links between poverty and ill-health.

Seebohm Rowntree published a study of living conditions in York in 1901. He found that a quarter of the people in York were living in poverty and that this was seriously harming their health.

Charles Booth researched poverty in the East End of London between 1889 and 1903. He discovered that 35% of people were living in poverty. Booth argued that the government should take responsibility for caring for people in poverty.

Probably even more shocking to the government was that an incredible 38% of potential recruits who had put themselves forward to fight in the Boer War were unfit for medical service. This worried the government who relied on a strong and healthy army.

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – Public Health in the 20th Centuries

Key terms used in this unit:

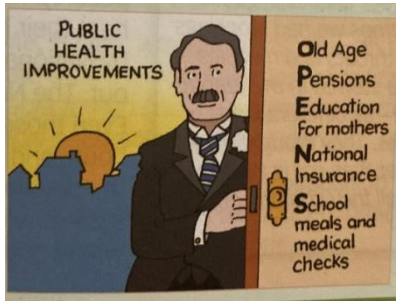
Welfare State: a system by which a government takes responsibility for the health and well-being of the population.
Chancellor of the Exchequer: decides on how the government raises and spends its money.
National Insurance: gave workers medical help and sick pay if they could not work through illness.

How was public health improved in the 20th century?

THE SOLUTION: in 1906, the new Liberal government was elected by a vast majority – their election campaign had included promises to tackle poverty and over the next six years they delivered. Lloyd George was the Chancellor of the Exchequer and he increased the taxes paid by the rich to pay for the following reforms that would help the poor:

- 1906 – Free school meals
- 1907 – All births had to be reported to the local Medical Officer and a health visitor would visit each mother to help them keep their babies healthy. Free medical checks were also introduced for school children.
- 1908 – Old-age pensions were introduced for people over 70.
- 1909 – New laws enforced higher standards of house building.
- 1911 – National Insurance Act provided help for the sick. This gave workers free medical help and sick pay for up to 26 weeks if they were too unwell to work. The scheme required the worker, his employer and the government to pay into a sickness fund every week. The scheme did not cover most women, children, the unemployed, the elderly or anyone who had a long-lasting illness.
- 1912 – Clinics set up to provide free medical treatment for children in school.

This was the beginning of a welfare state where the government started taking responsibility for the health and well-being of the population.



What impact did WWI and WW2 have on public health?

During WWI, Lloyd George promised 'Homes fits for heroes' for the returning soldiers. This led to the 1919 Housing Act. This forced local councils to provide good homes for working people to rent – it also set new standards for space, water supply and drainage.

In the early 1920s, a quarter of a million new homes were built.

In the 1930s, many old, unhealthy slum houses were demolished and another 700,000 new houses were built.

1930s: Britain suffered a severe economic depression. Unemployment rose to more than 3 million – this caused widespread poverty.

Only about half the population was covered by National Insurance. The scheme did not help the unemployed and even those with jobs faced problems as employers reduced working hours and wages. Many could not afford their payments which guaranteed them free medical help. ***The 1911 system was failing.***

WW2 put a severe strain on the British people: 400,000 British soldiers died and 60,000 civilians were killed in bombing raids. After these sacrifices, people wanted a better future.

The war also opened people's eyes to poverty – middle-class families in the countryside were appalled at how unhealthy some evacuee children from the towns were.

During the war the government had to provide free medical care to keep the country running and because of civilian casualties. This set a new pattern of government help.

The Beveridge Report: In 1941, the national coalition government asked William Beveridge to write a report on what should be done to improve people's lives after the war. In his report, he set out measures to slay the five giants of *squalor (poor housing), ignorance (bad education), want (poverty), idleness (unemployment) and disease*. His main recommendations were:

- A National Health Service, free to everyone and paid for from taxes.
- Universal National Insurance – everyone in work would contribute out of their wages. This would pay benefits (sick-pay, old-age pensions, unemployment pay) to everyone, whether they had been workers or not.

The Beveridge Report spelled out a cradle-to-grave welfare state. It was greeted with enthusiasm. 600,000 copies were sold.

What to do with the Beveridge Report became a key issue in the post-war election. The Labour government promised to establish a national health service. They won a landslide victory.

The new health minister was Aneurin Bevan who was determined to improve life for working people.

In July 1948, the NHS was introduced, providing free medical services for everyone.

NHS

Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – Public Health in the 20th Centuries

What impact did the NHS have on medicine in Britain?

Until 1948, 8 million people had never seen a doctor. Now the NHS provided free medical treatment for everyone.

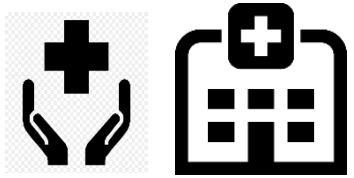
The NHS provided **a range of services**:

- The national government took control of all hospitals; many were rebuilt and facilities were improved.
- Health centres were set up.
- NHS hospitals provided maternity care, child welfare services and ambulances.
- 'Family doctors' or GPs worked for the NHS and provided care and advice for people in the community.
- Hospital doctors were paid by the government.
- Free dentistry, spectacles and medicines were provided.
- Vaccination programmes were organised and funded through the NHS.
- The NHS spent money on training specialist staff and grants were provided to help fund degrees and qualifications linked to medicine.
- The NHS also funded medical research.

NHS

Despite the general enthusiasm for creating a national health service, **there was powerful opposition**:

- Doctors themselves feared they would lose their independence and they were also afraid that they would no longer be able to treat their private patients who were willing to pay high fees to see the very best physicians. Bevan dealt with this opposition by agreeing that doctors could continue to treat patients privately and charge them fees, as well as working for the NHS.
- Some people believed that the poor should not be helped as they would grow lazy if they were getting something for nothing.
- Some local councils and charities did not want the government taking over control of their hospitals.



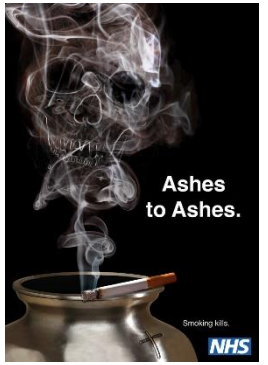
Factors affecting public health in the 20th Century:

Government

Science and technology

The main changes to the NHS since 1948:

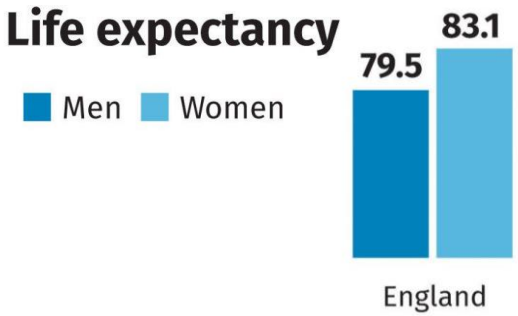
- **Many more staff are employed** – with 1.7 million people working for it, the NHS is the fifth largest employer in the world. There are ten times as many doctors as there were in 1948 and the number of nurses has trebled.
- **The NHS costs the country a lot more money** – since 1948, governments have had to invest more and more money in the NHS. Hospitals have to be rebuilt to meet modern standards. The amount spent on health is now 12 times more than in 1948 and costs are likely to carry on increasing.
- **Some patients are now charged for NHS services** – in the early 1950s, the government struggled to keep up with the demand for free healthcare and charges were introduced for prescriptions, dental work and spectacles.
- **Number of hospital beds cut** – there are now far fewer beds. In 1948, there were 480,000 hospital beds and now there are just 120,000. This is because there is more healthcare in the community and people spend less time in hospital.
- **The NHS now focuses on prevention as well as treatment** – there are lifestyle campaigns to warn of the dangers of smoking and of a lack of exercise. This is to help reduce the deadly impact of illnesses such as cancer and heart disease. In addition to this, there are now health checks every five years for everyone over the age of 40 to prevent and reduce death and illnesses in five major areas: heart disease, cancer, mental illness, HIV/AIDS and accidents.



Knowledge organiser: Health and the People – Public Health in the 20th Centuries

The impact of the NHS:

- **Babies are less likely to die** – most births now take place in hospitals, rather than the home. Hospitals can provide specialised support and equipment.
- **Immunisation campaigns have eradicated some illnesses** – a comprehensive vaccine programme in childhood has led to protection against meningitis, mumps and whooping cough. The polio vaccine was introduced in the 1950s and there has not been a single case of polio in Britain since the 1980s.
- **People live longer** – on average, people now live 13 years longer than they did in 1948. In 2018, the life expectancy for a man was 79.5 years and 83.1 years for a woman.



- **As life expectancy has increased, the causes of deaths have changed** – improved healthcare and vaccination programmes mean infectious diseases, heart attacks and strokes no longer kill as many people as they once did. Instead, people are more likely to be living with long-term conditions for which there are no cures. One example is dementia.

Factors affecting public health in the 20th Century:

Government | Science and technology | Individual genius

The development of the pharmaceutical industry, new treatments and new diseases:

- **Pharmaceutical companies have competed to make more effective drugs** – drug manufacture has become big business and drug companies can make a lot of money, save many lives and reduce suffering. For example, developments in science have enabled aspirin to be manufactured in huge quantities. Aspirin has been found to help thin the blood, prevent blood clots and reduce the risk of heart attacks.
- **The discovery of DNA has uncovered the genetic causes of disease** – in 1953, **Francis Crick and James Watson** discovered the structure of human DNA and how it passes from parents to their children. This has helped to gain a greater understanding of genetic diseases such as Alzheimer's disease, diabetes, Parkinson's disease and some forms of cancer. It has also led to scientists finding new ways of treating specific genetic diseases and boosting chances of survival.
- **The fight against disease is not straightforward…**

✓ In the late 1950s, **thalidomide** was introduced as a 'safe' sleeping tablet. It was later given to women to reduce morning sickness during pregnancy. However, this drug had not been fully tested and led to children being born with severely deformed limbs (around 10,000 children worldwide were affected). It was banned in 1961 and the impact of thalidomide has led to much more thorough testing of drugs before use.

✓ Since the development of penicillin, new stronger antibiotics have been produced and it has been estimated that 200 million lives have been saved in 70 years. However, some bacteria began to develop immunity to the drugs. An example of one of these '**superbugs**' is MRSA. Overuse of antibiotics has made them less effective and this has become a major concern.

✓ New diseases have appeared in the modern period – in 1982, doctors recognized a new disease called **AIDS**, which destroys the body's immunity to other diseases. AIDS is transmitted through sexual fluids and blood. More than 40 million people worldwide have died of AIDS-related illnesses. A cure or effective vaccine has yet to be found. However, in the 1990s, new treatments were introduced that helped to improve long-term survival rates.

✓ **Alternative treatments and lifestyle remedies**: doctors are now keenly aware that the biggest medical problems facing people in Britain are not infectious or genetic diseases, but the choices people make and the way they live their lives. Mental health problems, breathing difficulties caused by polluted air and obesity are all new challenges for the medical profession.

✓ **Traditional remedies**: acupuncture has been used in China for 4,000 years. It is used both to treat disease and as a painkiller during surgery. Many health shops sell 'herbal remedies' made from plants and animal substances which have been used in medicine for centuries.

Key terms used in this unit:

Pharmaceutical industry: large businesses that mass produce drugs for medicine and health care.
Thalidomide: a drug to help morning sickness that was withdrawn in 1961 after it was found to cause limb deformities in babies.
Superbugs: bacteria that have developed immunity to treatment by antibiotics or methods of destroying them by cleaning.
Alternative treatments: a way of treating an illness that is not based on mainstream, scientific medicine.