

Name: _____

A Level History Summer Tasks Booklet

Instructions:

This booklet contains clear information about starting this A level. Please read it carefully before starting in September.

Please complete all of the tasks set in this booklet before beginning your A-Level History course in September.

Before joining the course officially, this book must be totally completed and handed in on your first day.

Failure to complete this booklet will result in your being sent away from your first History lesson.

The booklet is divided into two sections- **Russia: From Lenin to Yeltsin and The German Democratic Republic**

Any questions/ problems, please email :
mcocker@rodingvalley.net



Module Breakdown and Exam Overview

Year of study	Topic	How is it assessed	Percentage of total grade.
Year 12	Russia 1917-1991: From Lenin to Yeltsin	Exam 2 hours 15 mins 2x essay questions E.g. To what extent ... How far do you agree ... 1 x interpretations question E.g. How far do you agree with the view of interpretation __ that was responsible for the collapse of the USSR.	30%
	The GDR 1945-1990	Exam 1 hour 30 mins 1x source analysis question E.g. How far could a historian make use of sources _ and _ together to investigate the role of 1 x Essay question E.g. To what extent ... How far do you agree ...	20%
Year 13	Britain Losing and Gaining an Empire	Exam 2 hours 15 mins 2x essay questions E.g. To what extent ... How far do you agree ... 1 x source question E.g. How far could a historian make use of source _ to investigate _ and _	30%
	Coursework	One 4,000 word essay on an original topic focused on interpretations of history. Historians have disagreed about What is your view about ...	20%

Russia 1917-1991: From Lenin to Yeltsin

Overview

This option comprises a study in breadth, in which students will learn about the key political, social and economic features of communist rule in Russia during the twentieth century, an era that saw its authority and influence rise to the status of a superpower, only to diminish and decline later in the century.

The focus of study is on developments and changes over a broad timescale, and so the content is presented as themes spanning a significant duration: 1917–85. This option also contains a study in depth of historical interpretations on a broad question, which is contextualised by, and runs on from, the themes: reasons for the fall of the USSR, c1985–91.

Themes	Content
1 Communist government in the USSR, 1917–85	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Establishing Communist Party control, 1917–24: the creation of a one-party state and the party congress of 1921; the nature of government under Lenin; the growing centralisation of power.• Stalin in power, 1928–53: the elimination of opponents in government and party; the purges of the 1930s; Stalin's power over party and state.• Government, 1953–85: changes in leaders' control of the state across the period; Khrushchev's attempts to reform government including de-Stalinisation; the return to stability under Brezhnev, 1964–82; growing political stagnation, 1982–85.
2 Industrial and agricultural change, 1917–85	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Towards a command economy, 1917–28: the nationalisation of industry; War Communism and the New Economic Policy; state control of industry and agriculture.• Industry and agriculture in the Stalin era: the Five-Year Plans and industrial change; agricultural collectivisation and its impact; recovery from war after 1945.• Changes in industry and agriculture, 1953–85, including: the promotion of light industry, chemicals and consumer goods; investment in agriculture and the Virgin Lands Scheme; the limited attempts at reform after 1964; economic decline.

Themes	Content
3 Control of the people, 1917–85	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Media, propaganda and religion: state control of mass media and propaganda; attacks on religious beliefs and practices. The personality cults of Stalin, Khrushchev and Brezhnev. • The secret police: attacks on opponents of the government; the roles of Yagoda, Yezhov and Beria; Andropov's suppression of dissidents, 1967–82; the continued monitoring of popular discontent, 1982–85. • The state and cultural change: <i>Proletkult</i>, <i>avant-garde</i> and Socialist Realism, 1917–53; nonconformity from the 1950s; clashes between artists and the government to 1985.
4 Social developments, 1917–85	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social security: full employment, housing and social benefits, 1917–53. Khrushchev, Brezhnev and the promotion of a stable society, 1953–85. • Women and the family: the changing status of different groups of women in towns and countryside; changing government attitudes towards the family as a social unit. • Education and young people: the growth of primary, secondary and higher education; the reduction of illiteracy; state control of the curriculum.

Historical interpretations	Content
What explains the fall of the USSR, c1985–91?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The significance of the economic weaknesses of the USSR and the failure of reform. • The effects of Gorbachev's failure to reform the Communist Party and the Soviet government. • The impact of the nationalist resurgence in the late 1980s in the Soviet republics and in the communist states of Eastern Europe. • How far Gorbachev and Yeltsin can be seen as responsible for the collapse of the USSR in 1991.

The German Democratic Republic 1945-1990

Overview

This option comprises a study in depth of the creation, development, decline and collapse of the communist East German state, 1949–90. For the whole of its existence, East Germany was a key focus of world attention as it lay on the frontline of the Cold War, where contrasts between East and West could be seen at their starkest.

Students will gain an in-depth understanding of the political, economic and social policies of the East German government in this period, and their effects on the lives of its people.

Key topics	Content
1 Establishing and consolidating communist rule in the GDR, c1949–61	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• The post-war division of Germany; the Soviet zone; creation of the Socialist Unity Party (SED) 1946; growing divisions among the victor powers; formation of the GDR 1949.• The system of government: the head of state; the <i>Volkskammer</i>; the <i>Länderkammer</i>; the dominance of the SED and its General Secretary, Ulbricht.• Economic developments, 1949–61: the USSR's seizure of reparations from 1945; socialist economics and planning; industrial developments; agricultural collectivisation; opposition to socialist economics. The rising of June 1953. The impact of socialist economics on the GDR.• Defending the GDR, 1949–61: emigration in the 1950s and its impact on the country; reasons for the crisis of 1960–61; the building of the Berlin Wall and its importance; the influence of Khrushchev.
2 The development of the East German state, 1961–85	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Economic situation after 1961: the end of mass emigration; the New Economic System, 1963–68 and the Economic System of Socialism, 1968–71; increased economic production, including consumer goods; membership of COMECON and its importance.• Honecker and the development of a GDR identity; mass media; the importance of sport, especially Olympic successes and women's sports.• Relations with West Germany: <i>Ostpolitik</i>; the agreements of 1970–72; the relaxation of travel restrictions and the growth of communications with the Federal Republic. The impact of <i>Ostpolitik</i> on the GDR's economy and standard of living.• The growing international prestige of the GDR: international recognition of the GDR; state visits; relations with COMECON and the Warsaw Pact countries. The attitude of the Soviet government towards the GDR.

<p>3 Life in East Germany, 1949–85</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social change and welfare programmes: housing; education; the changing status and role of women; the development of an extensive social welfare programme. • Repression and control: the Ministry of State Security (the Stasi), its methods and activities; control of young people through the Free German Youth (FDJ); propaganda and censorship. Extent of popular support for the GDR. • The SED and the Protestant church: attacks on religious beliefs and practices; education and Protestant youth groups; the establishment of a dialogue between church and state. • Western influences on the GDR, including the impact of <i>Ostpolitik</i> on travel between the two German states; the influence of radio, television, films and popular music.
<p>4 Growing crises and the collapse of communist rule in the GDR</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic situation in the 1980s: the growing national debt; high spending on health and welfare; the poor quality of consumer and other goods; economic relations with West Germany. • Gorbachev's influence: the impact of <i>perestroika</i> and <i>glasnost</i> on the GDR's government and people. The pressure for reform; the role of Protestant opposition groups; the declining authority of the SED government. • The events of 1989, including the opening of Hungary's border with Austria, emigration from the GDR, Gorbachev's visit to East Berlin in October, the decline of Honecker's influence and his dismissal, Krenz and the opening of the Berlin Wall. • The end of the GDR, 1989-90: the collapse of the SED government 1989 and the elections of March 1990; the reunification of East and West Germany, March–October 1990; the attitudes of Kohl, Britain, the USA and the USSR; the accession of the eastern territories to West Germany.

Year 12 PLCs:

Paper 1 Route E: Russia 1917-91: From Lenin to Yeltsin

Key Questions	Notes / Mind Map	Cue Card	Practice Question
Theme 1: Communist government in the USSR, 1917-91: Key Questions			
How did the Bolsheviks establish a one-party state between 1917 and 1924?			
How did Stalin exercise power over the Communist Party and the Soviet State?			
To what extent did the nature of Communist Party rule change after the death of Stalin up to 1985?			
Content			
Establishing control 1917-24			
<i>a)the creation of a one party state and the party congress of 1921</i>			
<i>b)the growing centralisation of power</i>			
<i>c)the nature of government under Lenin</i>			
<i>d)the power struggle of 1924-28</i>			
Stalin in power 1928-53			
<i>a)the elimination of opponents in government and party</i>			
<i>b)the purges of the 1930s</i>			
<i>c)Stalin's power over party and state</i>			
<i>d)WW2 and post war Stalin era</i>			
Reform, stability and stagnation 1953-85			
<i>a)Khrushchev's reforms including de-Stalinisation</i>			
<i>b)Stability/stagnation under Brezhnev 1964-82</i>			
<i>c)Attempts to end political stagnation 1982-85 Andropov and Chernenko</i>			
Theme 2: Industrial and agricultural change 1917-24 Key Questions			
<i>How did the government exercise control over the economy between 1917-28?</i>			
<i>What was the impact of the five year plans and collectivisation under Stalin?</i>			
<i>How far did economic policy change between 1952 and 1985?</i>			
Content			
Towards a command economy 1917-28			
<i>a)the nationalisation of industry</i>			
<i>b)state control of industry and agriculture</i>			
<i>c)war communism and the New Economic Policy</i>			
<i>d)the switch to collectivisation and abandonment of the NEP 1927-29</i>			
Industry and agriculture in the Stalin era 1928-53			
<i>a)the five year plans and industrial change</i>			
<i>b)agricultural collectivisation and its impact</i>			
<i>c)recovery from the war after 1945:industry and agriculture</i>			

Changing priorities for industry and agriculture 1953-85			
<i>a)the promotion of light industry, chemicals and consumer goods</i>			
<i>b)investment and reform in agriculture and the Virgin Lands Scheme</i>			
<i>c)the limited attempts at reform after 1964-85</i>			
<i>d)economic decline</i>			
Theme 3: Control of the people 1917-85	Key Questions		
How did the Soviet government exercise control over the media, propaganda and religion?			
How did the use of the secret police change through the period 1917-85?			
How effective was the Soviet government's use of culture and the arts?			
Content			
Media, propaganda and religion			
<i>a)state control of mass media and propaganda</i>			
<i>b)personality cults of Stalin, Khrushchev and Brezhnev</i>			
<i>c)attacks on religious beliefs and practices</i>			
The secret police			
<i>a)the roles of Dzerzhinsky, Yagoda, Yezhov and Beria</i>			
<i>b)Andropov's suppression of dissidents 1967-82</i>			
<i>c)the continued monitoring of popular discontent 1982-85</i>			
The state and cultural change			
<i>a)Prolekult, avant-garde, cult of the little man and socialist realism 1917-53</i>			
<i>b)non conformity and dissidence from the 1950's</i>			
<i>c)'The Thaw' and clashes between artists and the government to 1985</i>			
Theme 4: Social Developments 1917-85	Key Questions		
How successful was the government in providing social security for the Soviet people between 1917-85?			
To what extent did the role of women and the family change between 1917 and 1985?			
How successful was the Soviet government's attempts to improve the provision of education?			
Content			
Social security			
<i>a)full employment, housing, healthcare and social benefits 1917-53</i>			
<i>b)Khrushchev, Brezhnev, Andropov and Chernenko and the promotion of a stable society 1953-85</i>			
<i>c)protests</i>			
Women and the family			
<i>a)the changing status of different groups of women in towns and countryside</i>			
<i>b)changing government attitudes towards the family as a social unit</i>			

Education and young people			
<i>a)the growth of primary, secondary and higher education</i>			
<i>b)the reduction of illiteracy</i>			
<i>c)state control of the curriculum</i>			
Theme 5: The fall of The Soviet Union 1985-91:	Key Questions		
How important were economic weaknesses in bringing about the fall of the USSR?			
How significant were the failures of Gorbachev's political reforms?			
What impact did the resurgence of nationalism have on the collapse of the USSR?			
How far were Gorbachev and Yeltsin responsible for the collapse of the USSR?			
Content			
a)the significance of the economic weaknesses of the USSR and the failure of reform			
b)the effects of Gorbachev's failure to reform the Communist Party and the Soviet government			
c)the impact of the nationalist resurgence in the late 1980s in Soviet republics and in communist states of Eastern Europe			
d)how far Gorbachev and Yeltsin can be seen as responsible for the collapse of the USSR IN 1991			

	A Level
Section A	Students will answer one breadth question from a choice of two. At A level any second order concept can be assessed (cause, consequence, similarity, difference, significance)
Section B	Students answer another breadth from a choice of two. Any second order concept can be addressed.
Section C	Students must answer a question asking them to evaluate two historical interpretations.

Year 12 PLCs:

German Democratic Republic, 1949-90

Key Questions	Notes/ Mind map	Cue Card	Practice Question
1. Establishing and consolidating communist rule in the GDR c. 1949-61			
Why did events in the years 1945 to 1949 lead to the division of Germany?			
Why was there a severe refugee crisis in post war Germany?			
To what extent was the system of government in the GDR democratic?			
Why did the SED gain control in the Soviet Zone?			
How successfully had the policy of De-nazification, as agreed at the Potsdam conference, been carried out by the mid 1950s?			
How successful was the development of the GDR's economy in the years 1949-61?			
Why did the GDR find it necessary to build the Berlin wall in 1961?			
What were the reasons for the Berlin Crisis 1960-1961?			
To what extent was Khrushchev responsible for the decision to build the Berlin Wall?			
What was the Impact of the Berlin Wall?			
2. The development of the East German State			
To what extent did the FRG and the GDR become models of their respective ideological systems?			
To what extent did the GDR's economy stabilise after 1961?			
Why did the NES fail in 1968?			
Why did the ESS fail in 1971?			
What was the significance of the Basic Treaty 1972?			
How significant were economic inequalities in the GDR?			
In what ways did the economy of the GDR develop under Ulbricht?			
What were the weaknesses of the GDR's economy under Ulbricht?			
How important was membership to COMECON for the GDR?			
How successful was Honecker in developing a distinct identity for the GDR?			
What was the role of sport in developing the international reputation of the GDR?			
How far did relations between the GDR and the FRG improve in the years 1961-85?			
What was Ostpolitik and why was it important?			
How did the agreements of 1970-72 improve international relations for the GDR?			
What was the impact of Ostpolitik on the GDR's economy and standard of living?			
How successful was the GDR in improving its international prestige in the years 1961-85?			
What was the attitude of the Soviet government to the GDR 1961-85?			
3. Life in East Germany			
Did the GDR create a successful welfare state?			
How did the status of women change in the GDR in the 1970s 1980?			
How effective were the social welfare programmes of the GDR in meeting the			

needs of its population between 1949 and 1985?			
How extensive was surveillance by the Stasi in the GDR?			
Did a combination of repression and support keep the SED in control?			
Why did people collaborate with the Stasi?			
To what extent did the FDJ gain popular support for the SED?			
What methods of control did the SED use in the GDR?			
To what extent was there popular support for the GDR?			
What was the role of the protestant church in the GDR?			
How did the church establish a dialogue between the people and the SED?			
How far did western influences impact life in the GDR?			
What affect did Gorbachev's reforms have on the GDR?			
What was the impact of Ostpolitik on travel between the two German states?			
How far did television, film and music undermine influence the lives of ordinary Germans in the GDR			
4. Growing crisis and the collapse of communist rule in the GDR 1985-90			
Why were the economic problems of the GDR so severe by the late 1980s?			
How significant was Gorbachev's refusal to continue to support the GDR?			
What was the impact of Glasnost and Perestroika on the reform movement in the GDR?			
To what extent did support for the SED in the late 1980s decline?			
Why did the events of 1989 lead to such a sudden opening of the Berlin Wall?			
Why was reunification of the GDR and FRG so rapid?			
What were the consequences of reunification on the people of the GDR?			
What were the causes of growing dissatisfaction with the GDR in 1989?			
Why was the Two-Plus-Four Treaty and why was it significant?			

Section	Question
<p>A – Source Analysis</p> <p>1 compulsory question</p> <p>20 Marks</p> <p>45 mins</p>	<p>How far could the historian make use of sources 1 and 2 together to investigate...?</p> <p>You should examine each source separately and make 3 points for each.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Value of the content - Reliability - Contextual knowledge to assess accuracy/ comprehensiveness <p>Your conclusion should assess the value of the sources as a set.</p>
<p>B – Explanation question</p> <p>Choose 1 of 2 questions</p> <p>20 marks</p> <p>45 minutes</p>	<p>How far...</p> <p>To what extent...</p> <p>How accurate is it to say...</p> <p>The time period may be as short as a single year so make sure your knowledge is relevant to the time period of the question.</p>

Russia 1917-1991: Lenin to Yeltsin - Summer Task

Task 1: Find definitions of the following words and write them below:

Lenin

Stalin

February Revolution of 1917

October Revolution of 1917

Communism

Bolshevism

Tsarism

Autocracy

Tsar Nicholas II

Regime

Coup

Soviet Union / USSR

Provisional Government

Duma

Petrograd Soviet

Karl Marx

Civil War

One Party State

Bourgeoisie

Proletariat

Dictatorship of the Proletariat.

Task 2: Read the sources below about Tsar Nicholas II. He was the last Russian Tsar and was Russian leader until his death during the Russian Revolution in 1918. Use the sources to list his weaknesses as a leader then answer the 20 mark hypothesis question about Tsar Nicholas' leadership.

Central War Industries Committee

This was set up in 1915 to help armaments production. It was a non-governmental body whose members were drawn from *zemstva*, industrialists and workers.

In the opinion of the spokesmen of the labour group of the **Central War Industries Committee** the industrial proletariat of the capital is on the verge of despair and it believes that the smallest outbreak, due to any pretext, will lead to uncontrollable riots, with thousands and tens of thousands of victims. Indeed, the stage for such outbreaks is more than set: the economic position of the masses ... is distressing.

Even if we assume that wages have increased 100%, the cost of living in the meantime has risen by an average of 300%. The impossibility of obtaining, even for cash, many foodstuffs and articles of prime necessity, the waste of time involved in spending hours waiting in line in front of stores, the increasing morbidity due to inadequate diet and insanitary lodgings (cold and dampness as a result of lack of coal and firewood) etc. all these conditions have created such a situation that the mass of industrial workers are quite ready to let themselves go to the wildest excesses of a hunger riot.

In addition to economic hardships the 'legal disabilities' of the working class have of late become 'intolerable and unbearable', the denial of the mere right to move freely from one factory to another has reduced labour, in the opinion of the Social-Democrats, to the state of mere cattle, good only for 'slaughter in the war'. The prohibition of all labour meetings ... the closing of trade unions ... and so on make the labour masses, led by the more advanced and already revolutionary-minded elements, assume an openly hostile attitude towards the Government and protest with all the means at their disposal against the continuation of the War ... A saying by one of the speakers at a meeting ... 'You must end the War if you do not know how to fight' has become the war cry of the Petrograd Social Democrats.

The close relations between the workers of Petrograd and the army also indicate that the atmosphere at the front is disturbing, not to say revolutionary. The high cost of living and the shortage of foodstuffs from which soldiers' wives are the first to suffer have been made known to the army by soldiers returning from leave.

Revolutionary circles, then, have no doubts that revolution will begin soon, that its unmistakable precursors are already here, and that the Government will prove incapable of fighting against the revolutionary masses, which are the more dangerous because they consist largely of soldiers or former soldiers

SOURCE A

From a Police Department report in October 1916, quoted by M. Florinsky, The End of the Russian Empire, Collier Books, 1961.

The situation is serious. The capital is in a state of anarchy. The government is paralysed; the transportation system has broken down; the supply systems for food and fuel are completely disorganised. General discontent is on the increase. There is disorderly shooting in the streets; some of the troops are firing at each other. It is necessary that some person enjoying the confidence of the country be entrusted immediately with the formation of a new government. There can be no delay. Any procrastination (delay) is fatal. I pray God at this hour the responsibility not fall upon the sovereign.

I think the Red terror has already made some people, and will make many others, reconsider the personal responsibility of Nicholas II for the horrors of his reign. I for one do not think he was the outcast, the inhuman monster, the deliberate murderer I used to imagine. I began to realise there was a human side to him. It became clear to me he had acquiesced in the whole ruthless system without being moved by any personal ill will and without even realising that it was bad. His mentality and his circumstances kept him wholly out of touch with his people. He heard of the blood and tears of thousands upon thousands only through official documents, in which they were represented as 'measures' taken by the authorities 'in the interest of the peace and security of the state'

From his youth he had been trained to believe that his welfare and the welfare of Russia were one and the same thing. So that 'disloyal' workmen, peasants and students who were shot down, executed or exiled seemed to him mere monsters that must be destroyed for the sake of the country and the 'faithful subjects' themselves.

SOURCE B

From the Duma leader Rodzianko's telegraph to Nicholas, 27 February 1917, quoted by David Christian, Imperial and Soviet Russia: Power, Privilege and the Challenge of Modernity, Addison-Wesley Longman, 1986.

SOURCE C

From the socialist member of the third and fourth Dumas, and Prime Minister August to October 1917 Alexander Kerensky, The Catastrophe, published in 1929 (quoted by A. Mazour, Rise and Fall of the Romanovs 1960) in which he describes a visit to Nicholas after his abdication.

His character is the source of all our misfortunes. He is incapable of steering the ship of State into a quiet harbour. His outstanding failure is a lack of willpower. Though benevolent and not unintelligent, this shortcoming disqualifies him totally as the unlimited autocratic ruler of the Russian people.

The Emperor's character may be said to be essentially feminine... His Majesty would not tolerate about his person anyone he considered

SOURCE D

From Count Sergei Witte, Memoirs, Heinemann, 1921, in which the former minister Chairman of the Committee of Ministers 1903–5 describes Nicholas' character and view of his role.

more intelligent than himself or anybody with opinions differing from those of his advisors...

(Nicholas II) I do what I please, and what I please to do is good. If people do not understand it, that is because they are ordinary mortals, while I am God's anointed.

view of his role.

If Nicholas was weak-willed and devious if he had so little confidence in his own judgement that he distrusted his ministers and failed to back them up, was this not as much an indictment of autocracy as of the autocrat? ... Nicholas was not lacking in firmness or, depending on one's view, obstinacy ... when it came to the integrity of his power or the defence of cherished prejudices ... The problem was rather an excess than a want of firmness; more precisely, an inability to distinguish between flexibility and weakness, strength and mulishness.

Even more poorly prepared than his father for the burdens of kingship, Nicholas had no knowledge of the world of men, of politics or government to help him make the difficult and weighty decisions that in the Russian system the Tsar alone must make. His training was adequate only for the one role he would not play, the ceremonial one of the constitutional monarch. The only guides he recognised were an inherited belief in the moral rightness and historical necessity of autocracy, and a religious faith, bordering on fatalism, that he was in God's hands and his actions divinely inspired.

A simple man himself, he was convinced until the very end that the simple people were on his side and that this made him the best judge of the country's mood. Protest and dissent were temporary aberrations traceable to agitators, Jews or selfish politicians.

SOURCE E

From Hans Rogger, *Russia in the Age of Modernisation and Revolution*, Longman, 1983.

It is hard to imagine anyone less well equipped to steer Imperial Russia into the twentieth century than Nicholas II. A family man first and foremost ... as an autocrat he was hopeless. He had not even had the benefit of proper preparation for his task. His education had essentially been that of a cavalry officer ...

Nicholas' personality did not help him overcome the limitations of his education. A short neat figure of a man, five feet seven inches tall, he was timid, introverted and weak, in the sense that he was incapable of making up his mind and sticking to his decisions. However, it must be said that he always commanded great love and loyalty in his immediate entourage, together with a considerable amount of respect. He had great charm ...

Yet despite his considerable majesty of manner, as an emperor he lacked stature and that taste for power ... which is vital for an autocrat ...

Yet weak though he may have been as a ruler he possessed that peculiar dogged obstinacy that sometimes accompanies weak men in power. On the rare occasions on which he made up his mind definitely he was impossible to move; no argument, however convincing,

could reach him. Nicholas sincerely believed that he had received Russia from God, and was personally responsible for her well being. This meant he did not have the right to delegate or dilute his power in any way. It also meant that when he heard the voice of conscience advise a certain course nothing could dissuade him from taking it. Obstinacy, mysticism, and weakness combined to shape perhaps the most disastrous of all his characteristics: a deadly fatalism.

SOURCE F

From A. De Jonge, *Life and Times of Rasputin*, 1983.

Question 1: Using the sources you have just read what were the weaknesses of Tsar Nicholas II as leader?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

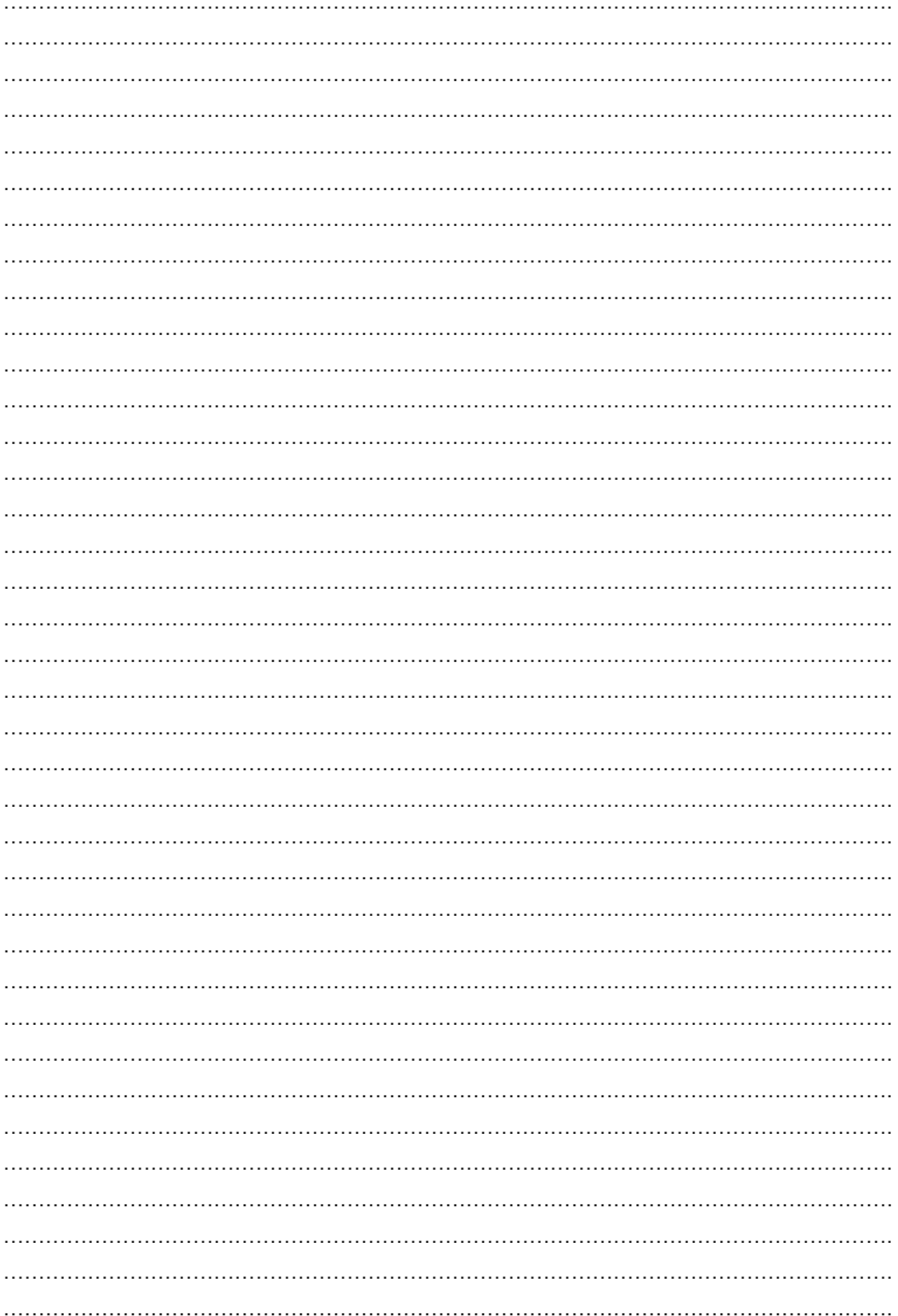
.....

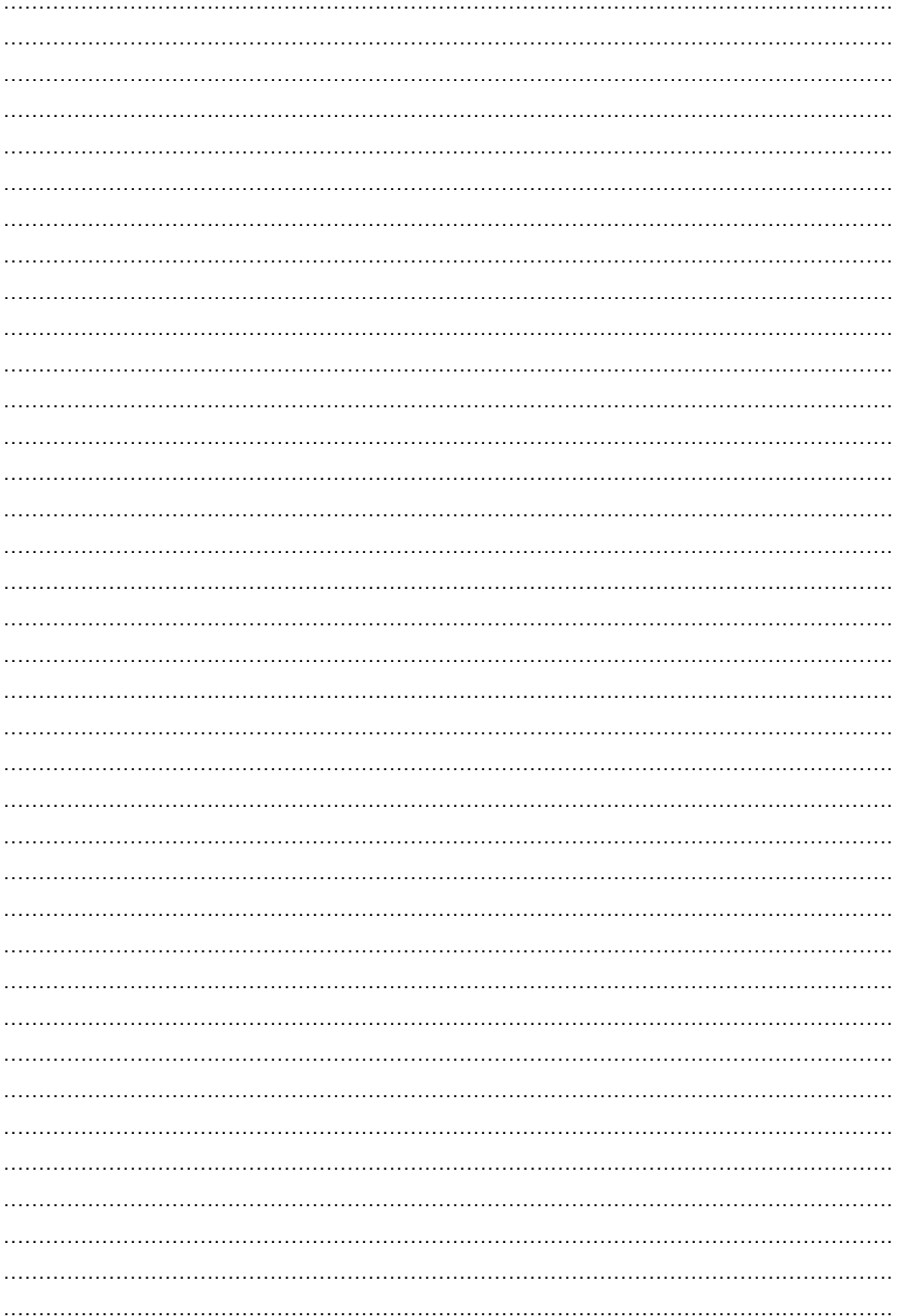
Question 2: 'Tsar Nicholas was totally unfit to deal with the many challenges facing Russia'. How far do you agree?

Paper 1 - USSR success criteria	RAG 1
Question 1 and 2	
You have explained the key features that are relevant to the topic and time period of the question.	
You have linked all your points back to the question (e.g. which is the most important feature or how the features have changed over time).	
You have shown depth of your own knowledge by giving examples to support and challenge the points you have made in each paragraph.	
You have used clear criteria related to the topic of the question in each paragraph to support your conclusion. Your criteria are clearly set out in your introduction and referred to in your conclusion.	
Your answer is structured into clear paragraphs that are linked together.	
You have used technical vocabulary correctly.	
Your conclusion contains an overall judgement on the question focusing on the relative significance (weight) and referring to your criteria	

.....

.....



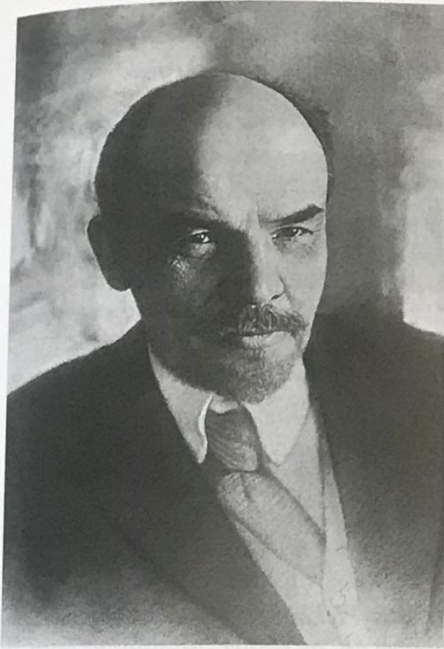


A large area of the page is filled with horizontal dotted lines, providing space for taking notes.

Task 3: Read the article below and make a mind map of Lenin's qualities as a leader.



Lenin's
leadership



LENIN – THE ABSENT REVOLUTIONARY

It is strange to think that Lenin had been absent from Russia for seventeen years (apart from six months in 1905–6) before his return in April 1917. He was a professional revolutionary who knew very little about the people he had come to lead to revolution, and they knew virtually nothing about him. After the July Days he went into exile again and was not seen again until he returned secretly in October. Most people did not recognise him even in the period after the Bolsheviks took power. Trotsky was much better known and much more popular. Commentators have said that Lenin had no real knowledge of ordinary Russian people and no experience of their everyday working lives (he had only had a paid job for two years). Maxim Gorky said that his ignorance bred contempt for ordinary people and the suffering they endured.

C Summing up Lenin

Lenin had many qualities that proved invaluable in pushing through the October uprising in 1917 and ruling Russia in the post-revolutionary period. He had great organisational abilities and leadership skills, together with a strong personality to force through decisions in the Politburo and Central Committee. He was tough, hard and calculating, totally dedicated to politics and revolution. From October 1917 until his last major stroke in March 1923, he spent up to sixteen hours or more a day, running the Bolshevik government, making sure that the revolution survived.

Lenin was a good orator, though not brilliant in the way that Trotsky was. He did not bring his speeches to life with metaphors and well-crafted phrases. Rather his skill lay in his ability to express ideas simply and make his audience understand complicated political concepts. He was good in argument, bringing people around to his views, an essential quality in a leader. He was forceful and persuasive.

Lenin did not look for personal gain from the Revolution. He did not seek the pleasures of life like some other Bolshevik leaders. His one diversion was his romantic friendship with Inessa Armand. He lived simply with Krupskaya, whom he called 'comrade', and his sister in a three-bedroomed apartment in the Kremlin and often slept in a small room behind his offices. They ate their meals in the cafeteria. He continued the austere life of the revolutionary that he was used to. He liked things to be orderly and tidy with fixed hours for meals, sleep and work. He had little private life: his life was the Revolution.

Politics also dominated his personal friendships. He would cut off personal connections with people with whom he fell out over politics. Martov, who was a close personal friend in the early days of the Social Democratic Party, was cast off when he became a Menshevik and Lenin poured scorn upon him, something he regretted when Martov died. Lenin's attitude to political opponents was vitriolic. According to the Russian writer Maxim Gorky in 1918, Lenin's attitude was that 'who is not with us is against us'.

Lenin had a strong streak of ruthlessness and cruelty. In the late 1980s and 1990s, Soviet archives were opened up as the Communist regime came to an end. These revealed a much harder, more ruthless Lenin than the 'softer' image he had enjoyed amongst left-wing historians and groups. For instance, a memorandum, first published in 1990, reveals his ordering the extermination of the clergy in a place called Shuya after people there fought off officials who had come to raid the church. The Politburo voted to stop further raids on churches but Lenin countermanded them (see page 300). Similarly, he was vitriolic about the peasants, ordering the hanging of a hundred kulaks as a lesson to others (see page 144).

Lenin believed that revolutionaries had to be hard to carry out their role, which would inevitably involve spilling the blood of their opponents. Although hard and tough on others, it seems that Lenin was not personally brave. He was not a revolutionary who rushed to the barricades. He left the fighting to others. According to Valentinov, a revolutionary who knew him well, Lenin's rule was to 'get away while the going was good'.

Lenin's domination of the party is one of the key factors in his success. There were many disputes and splits in the party, such as the serious split over the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, right into the 1920s. But in the end he always managed to bring the party behind him and keep it united. According to Beryl Williams (*Lenin*, 2000, page 15), Lenin's contemporaries attested to his 'hypnotic influence'. His personal magnetism and charisma are not in doubt. But he also had tremendous political skills – of knowing when to persuade, when to cajole, when to give in, when to threaten to resign and when to get really tough and demanding. Above all, Lenin was convinced of his role and his destiny (see Source 9.8 on page 176). He never had any doubt that he knew the right path and could lead the party along it.

Task 4: Answer the following questions below in full sentences:

A. What do you think was the most important quality in making Lenin a strong leader? Why?

B. What is meant by the phrase “the absent revolutionary”?

C. How did the way historians remember Lenin’s legacy change in the late 1980s and 1990s? Why?

D. Make a list of any words / phrases you did not understand and find the definitions to them.

Task 5:

So that you are ready for the course when you arrive to your first lesson you will need to watch *The Russian Revolution in Colour*. It is one and a half hour long documentary using original film, dramatized docudrama and the views of historians.

[Russian Revolution in Colour Part 1](#)

Answer the following questions. They are not A level style questions but it will show your understanding of the events. We will be discussing it in the lesson so you will need your answers to take part in the lesson.

- 1) The proportion of the world who ended up living under Communist rule was...
- 2) The capital of Tzarist Russia was called ...and then was renamed...?
- 3) There were two 'successful' revolutions in 1917. What two separate months were they?
- 4) According to the historian Steve Smith what happened on the 23rd and how many people took part?
- 5) According to the historian Chris Reed Cossacks supported the police. What did the Cossacks do that made some call them *Brother Cossacks*?
- 6) Where was Tzar Nicholas at this point?
- 7) What did the troops do that the Cossacks did not?
- 8) According to Chris Reed what was The Tzar's level of political intelligence?
- 9) What role do the sailors at Kronstadt take from this point? How do they involve themselves?
Two sentences will suffice.

- 10) What happened to the Tzar's train on the way to Petrograd and what did he do?

- 11) The Revolution led to The Provisional Government taking charge.

It was a mixture of...(What sort of people formed this government?)

- 12) Lenin is allowed to return to Russia. Why?

- 13) The Provisional Government is often blamed for causing its own downfall. What did they do that created the mutiny that led to the attempted July Revolution?

- 14) How did the Kronstadt sailors think Russia should be governed?

- 15) What exactly is a Soviet?

16) Why did The Provisional Government give them weapons even if they did not necessarily like them?

17) Lenin flees but returns and persuades the sailors to support the Bolsheviks (later called The Communist Party). Why do the sailors agree?

18) What was The Cheka?

19) The sailors take control of the palace and the government falls. This second revolution was known as the ----- Revolution.

20) The Constituent Assembly was supposed to be the new democratic parliament. Who seized control of it to gain all the power?

Part 2

[Russian Revolution in Colour Part 2](#)

Now watch the second 45 minute section. At the end of it write a page summarising 1918-21. The Civil War. You must include...

The Red Terror

The Whites (sometimes called Mensheviks)

The role of Britain, France, Japan and USA

The famine (sometimes called the first famine)

The Kronstadt sailors under Petrochenko and their attempt to 'rescue the revolution.'

NO more than a page is necessary. Remember that this piece is simply to show your understanding of the events.

History A level- German Democratic Republic- RVHS- Ms Larkin

A warm welcome to the GDR course. This course is all about the creation and establishment of the 'German Democratic Republic'. The years you will study are between 1949-1989; this is a depth course.

This booklet is designed to prepare you for the learning you will do in Year 12 and give you some basic knowledge on this topic to build on from September.

Please complete the tasks below with as much detail as you can. These tasks will give you an excellent basis of knowledge.



Task 1- Read the article below and answer the questions that follow.

By John Simkin (john@spartacus-educational.com) © September 1997 (updated August 2014).

The German Democratic Republic (East Germany) was established in 1949 from the area of Germany occupied by the Soviet Union. East Berlin became the capital of the new country. As West Berlin remained part of the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany) the capital was the cause of great conflict.

The main political figure in the German Democratic Republic was **Walter Ulbricht** who served as General Secretary of the Socialist Unity Party (1946-1971) and Chairman of the Council of State (1960-1971).

On 7th June, 1953, hundreds of thousands took to the streets of East Germany in demonstrations which began as a protest against increased work quotas and spiralled into demands for free elections. Red Army tanks were brought in and the Soviet military commander declared a state of emergency. More than 50 people were killed. Of these, about 20 were executed, while more than 1,000 were convicted in the East German courts of having taking part in an "attempted fascist coup".

In 1955 the government of East Germany signed the Warsaw Treaty of Friendship Cooperation and Mutual Assistance with Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, Romania and the Soviet Union. The Warsaw Pact was created in response to the decision to allow the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany) to join the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO).

In the fifteen years following the Second World War over 3 million people emigrated from the German Democratic Republic to Federal Republic of Germany. In August 1961 the Berlin Wall was built to stem this flow of refugees.

In 1966 Willy Brandt became Foreign Minister in the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany). He developed the policy of **Ostpolitik** (reconciliation between eastern and western Europe). In 1969 Brandt became Chancellor of West Germany. He continued with his policy of **Ostpolitik** and in 1970 negotiated an agreement with the Soviet Union accepting the frontiers of Berlin. He also signed the Basic Treaty with the German Democratic Republic.

In 1972 the German Democratic Republic was admitted to the United Nations. With the collapse of communism in 1989 the two German republics were united.

By John Simkin (john@spartacus-educational.com) © September 1997 (updated August 2014).

Primary Sources

(1) **Waltraut Krugler**, quoted by Hubertus Knabe in his book 17th June 1953: A German Uprising (2003)

The street was full of people, saying 'come with us, do this with us'," she remembered. "At 2 o'clock in the afternoon, the street was black with people. The police said: 'All of you go home, and we will fulfil your demands.' But people shouted at the police and threw stones. Then the tanks came and people were killed.

(2) An East German joke about Walter Ulbricht and Willy Brandt told during the 1970s.

'Have you a hobby, Herr Brandt?'

'Yes, I collect jokes that people tell about me,' says Brandt. 'And you?'

'Oh, I collect people who tell jokes about me,' says Ulbricht.

(3) An East German joke about Walter Ulbricht told during the 1970s.

The Interior Minister telephones Walter Ulbricht.

'Thieves have broken into the Ministry this evening.'

'Have they stolen something?'

'Alas, yes. All the results of the next elections.'

(4) An East German joke that circulated in the 1970s.

A West German Communist was travelling on a train through the GDR. He got into conversation with an old lady.

'Back home in West Germany,' he told her, 'shirts cost forty marks each.'

'Shirts?' said the old lady ruefully. 'We had those here once.'

'Butter is terribly expensive in the West. We are forced to eat margarine,' he continued.

'Yes,' said the old lady, 'we had margarine here once, too.'

'Now look here!' shouted the West German, by now thoroughly exasperated, 'You don't have to tell me these fairy-stories, you know! I'm a Communist!'

'A Communist?' sighed the old lady. 'Yes, we had those here once, too.'

(5) Jeevan Vasagar, The Guardian (17th June, 2003)

A German historian has accused the British of "betraying" an anti-communist uprising in the early years of the German Democratic Republic which was eventually put down by Soviet tanks. In a book published to coincide with today's 50th anniversary of the uprising, Hubertus Knabe claims that the western powers, in particular Britain led by Winston Churchill, declined to intervene because they feared a reunited Germany.

Churchill rebuked a British commander who protested about the execution of a west Berlin student caught in the east and praised the Russians for their restraint.

Mr Knabe, author of *17th June 1953: A German Uprising*, said: "The demonstrators were bitterly disappointed, after the west's rhetoric about the liberation of Europe, and the encouragement of resistance, that when they went out on the streets, they received no support"

The anniversary has been trailed for weeks by political debates, television documentaries and theatre productions. In his book, the historian quotes Churchill expressing surprise that the British commander should have issued a complaint to the Russians without consulting London.

The then prime minister asked whether the Soviet Union should have allowed "the eastern zone to collapse into anarchy and revolt", according to a private message quoted by Mr Knabe, and went on: "I had the impression that the unrest was handled with remarkable restraint."

The west feared reunification. The foreign secretary, Selwyn Lloyd, told Churchill in a memo on June 22 that the allies felt "a divided Germany is safer at present. But none of us dare say so in public because of the impact on public opinion in Germany". The first East Germans to go out on the streets in 1953 were construction workers on Stalinallee, the Communist-era highway that slices through East Berlin.

Questions to accompany article:

1. *Using your previous knowledge of the Cold War and the information in this article- What was the Warsaw Pact and why was it set up in 1955?*

2. *Please create a mini character profile of **Walter Ulbricht** below including his years in office, his main political beliefs and any flashpoints during his career:*

3. Describe the key features of **Ostpolitik**:

4. Study primary source number 3- what is the key message of this joke?

5. Study primary source number 5- According to the historian, why would Churchill 'fear a reunited Germany.'?

Task 2- Key words for the course- please write a definition for each key term:

GDR:

FRG:

SED:

USSR:

Class struggle:

Stasi:

Eastern Bloc:

Ulbricht group:

Third Reich:

Democratic centralism:

Nationalism:

Centralised planned economy:

Stalinalee:

Junker:

Collectivisation:

Consumer socialism:

Détente:

Prefabricated:

Grundschule:

Propaganda:

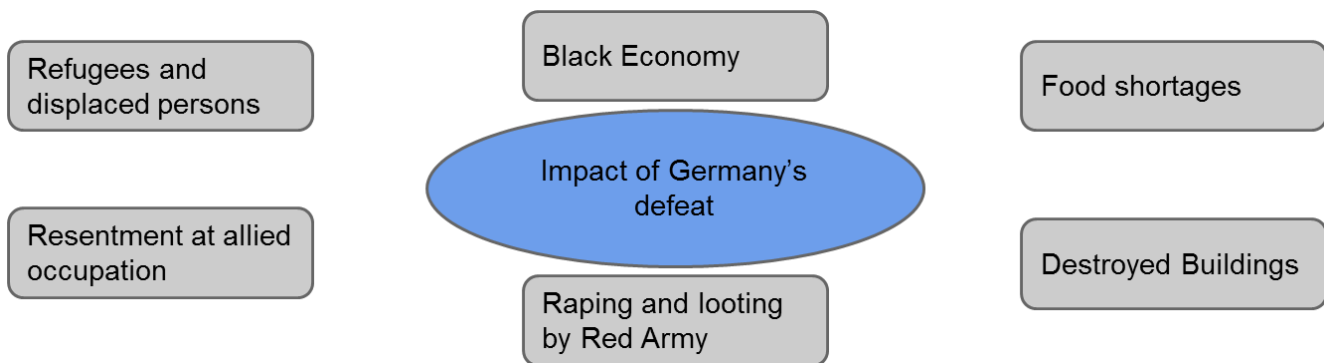
Censorship:

Niche Society:

Task 3- What happened to Germany after the Second World War?

Task 3

Please read the section of Access to History: Germany Divided and Reunited 1945-1991 below. Please complete the mind map below alongside the reading.



You must include as much detail as possible underneath each heading. In this case, please aim for a minimum of 3 bullet points per section.

Introduction: Germany 1945–91

This book is the study of how a devastated Germany in 1945 became a divided nation in 1949 and remained so for the next 40 years. During that period two German states successfully developed two contrasting models of government:

- a capitalist West Germany firmly allied to Western Europe and the USA, and
- a socialist East Germany allied to the Eastern bloc and the USSR.

This division seemed to have become permanent until a very rapid and unexpected chain of events from the summer of 1989 led to the formal reunification of Germany in October 1990. Today, Germany is a country still coming to terms with its turbulent past.

The key dates from the end of the Second World War to the reuniting of Germany are shown below.

Key dates

1945	April	Hitler committed suicide in Berlin
	May	The Allies accepted the unconditional surrender of Germany's armed forces
1949		The three Western zones under British, US and French occupation became West Germany (FRG). The Soviet zone of occupation became East Germany (GDR)
1955		The FRG became part of NATO followed by the GDR becoming part of the Warsaw Pact
1961	August	The construction of the Berlin Wall began
1989	November	The Berlin Wall opened
1990	October	The official reuniting of the GDR and the FRG
1991	June	The German government voted for Berlin to become the capital of a new reunited Germany

Key term

Eastern bloc
The collective name given to the socialist states in Eastern Europe allied to the USSR.

Key figures

Josef Goebbels 1897–1945
Appointed as the Nazi Minister for Propaganda and Enlightenment in 1933 and remained firmly committed to Nazi ideals and personally loyal to Hitler.

Heinrich Himmler 1900–45
Was in charge of the entire Nazi concentration and extermination camp system as well as head of the SS and Gestapo.

Key terms

Federal Republic of Germany
Otherwise referred to as West Germany or *Bundesrepublik Deutschland* with its capital in Bonn. It officially existed from May 1949 until October 1990.

German Democratic Republic
Otherwise referred to as East Germany or *Deutsche Demokratische Republik*. Its capital was referred to as East Berlin by the West, but as 'Berlin – Capital of the GDR' by the East. It officially existed from October 1949 until October 1990.

This was against a background of continuing Nazi government propaganda. Early in 1945 there were still radio broadcasts from the government announcing new secret weapons that would succeed the V1 and V2 rockets already in use. Even in early April 1945 Reich Propaganda Minister **Josef Goebbels** seized on horoscope readings to announce that there would soon be a change in Germany's military fortunes. The final stages of the war culminated in the Nazi leadership's declaration of a 'scorched-earth' policy: to destroy deliberately what remained of Germany's shattered infrastructure before the Allies entered its territory. Hitler showed no signs of remorse and blamed his armed forces and the German civilians themselves for the impending defeat of the 'thousand-year Reich'. Other leading Nazis, such as **Heinrich Himmler**, deluded themselves that Germany would be able to make peace agreements with US General Eisenhower and would then join the USA in a military alliance against the USSR. Himmler even concerned himself about whether when he met Eisenhower he should greet him with the Nazi salute or a handshake.

In this chaos, the surviving German population had to cope with a number of severe problems. They were already labelled as military aggressors. Soon they were going to be further stigmatised when the wartime atrocities committed in Germany itself and the Nazi-occupied territories, and the attempted extermination of the Jews and other groups became known around the world.

At the end of the Second World War, neither the Germans themselves nor the four Allied occupying powers (Britain, the USA, France and the USSR) had any firm idea what Germany's future would be. Thousands of Germans committed suicide at the sheer thought of being under Soviet control – a fear fanned by the relentless Nazi anti-Bolshevik propaganda under which many had grown up and had come to believe. Others, including many at the highest levels of Nazi leadership, had killed themselves fearing the repercussions for their participation in Nazi racial and social policies. In April 1945, Goebbels and his wife, spending their final days with Hitler in his bunker, had also murdered their six children before killing themselves. They preferred this to their children growing up in a Germany without National Socialism. The Allies themselves were also uncertain and divided over what Germany's fate should be. This was the situation which ultimately led to the eventual division of Germany for 40 years.

Developments in Germany after 1945

Both German states became largely successful, if not model states, in terms of their own respective economic, social and political ideologies. On the whole the **Federal Republic of Germany** (FRG – West Germany) became a stable, economically successful example of parliamentary democracy and capitalist economics while the **German Democratic Republic** (GDR – East Germany)

The chaos in the final stages of the war

The circumstances facing Germans trying to survive in the final stages of the Second World War were horrific. Over three million German soldiers had been killed and over three million more were held as Soviet prisoners of war. In the east, the roads were full of millions of refugees trying to flee the Soviets. Soon these would be joined by a further eight million displaced foreign workers and also millions of Germans forcibly expelled from German territory in the east. Almost half the population was on the move in 1945. Germany had also suffered heavy Allied bombing raids by the USA and Britain. Whether these intensive air raids were necessary is still a controversial subject today. Many Germans feared the activities of the SS – the Nazis' elite force – whose continued fanaticism meant that any Germans seen as being defeatist were often executed. Hitler Youth members as young as 12 years old continued desperately to try and defend Berlin.

Key question
What was the situation in Germany in 1945?



A young German boy walking past corpses from the Bergen-Belsen concentration camp in May 1945.

was based on Marxist–Leninist principles and was arguably the most successful **socialist state** in Eastern Europe.

Both the FRG and the GDR became valuable members of their respective military alliances: NATO and the Warsaw Pact. Both Germans represented the frontline of the **Cold War**. They faced each other across a heavily fortified 'inner-German' border and the city of Berlin was itself later physically divided from 1961 to 1989 by the Berlin Wall (see pages 62–71). The division of Germany most clearly exemplifies the **Iron Curtain** dividing the two Germanys for 40 years. Many Germans were brought up to see their neighbouring 'other Germany' as a hostile state, despite often having friends and family members on the other side of the border. Many East Germans welcomed visits and the sending of supplies of scarce resources, such as fruit and good coffee, from family and friends in the FRG, while at the same time having to label those personal contacts ideologically as class traitors from the neighbouring neo-fascist German state. However, as time passed and families and friends from the immediate post-war period died, the amount of contact and first-hand knowledge about the 'other Germany' obviously decreased.

Historians' views of post-war Germany

The differing historical analyses of post-war Germany are often heavily influenced by their respective Cold War considerations. Works by East German historians were in the official government sanctioned form. They denounced the FRG and they claimed the GDR was dutifully protecting its own citizens with the '**anti-fascist protective wall**'. The FRG claimed that the GDR was a brutal dictatorship and the GDR claimed that the FRG was a continuation from Nazism.

Many historians in the West portrayed the GDR simply as an oppressive and **totalitarian** regime which was under Soviet control. Even the more left-wing historians in the West did not see the GDR regime as an example of a humanitarian socialist society. Any publications in the West that portrayed a more complex picture of life in the GDR were usually written by GDR dissidents. Therefore, much history written during the period of the Cold War division of Germany has a clear political bias. Since the reunification of the two Germanys in 1990, historians have had increased access to archives and first-hand accounts. In many instances, this research has led to **revisionist** views which show a much less straightforward and more complex recent German past.

Key terms

Socialist state
In this instance, the following of Marxist–Leninist ideology by many countries in post-war Eastern Europe, which are also often referred to as communist.

Cold War
The period of hostility, but not outright war, between the USA and USSR and their Allies from the end of the Second World War until the early 1990s.

Iron Curtain
A term popularised in 1946 by Winston Churchill, Britain's wartime Prime Minister, to describe the increasing division of Europe between east and west.

Anti-fascist protective wall
The official name given by the GDR government to the inner-German border and later to the Berlin Wall.

Totalitarian
A form of government in which the state has total control over its society and people.

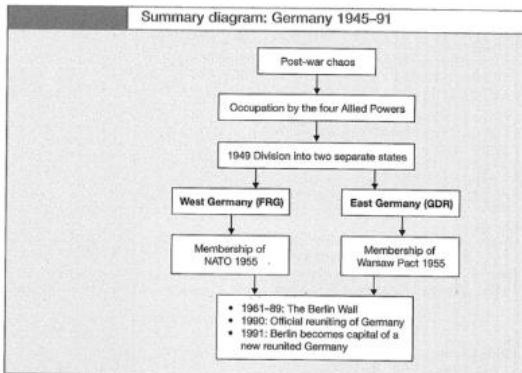
Revisionist
Historians whose views challenge former commonly accepted opinions.

Key question
How have attitudes within Germany changed since the reuniting of the GDR and the FRG?

Coming to terms with reunification

The painful reckoning and burden of the Nazi past has continued for several generations and is still an emotive issue in twenty-first century Germany. In 2007 for example, there was considerable controversy when it was decided to open to the public part of the Nazi war bunker system underneath Berlin. The pain and shame of the Third Reich's responsibility for the Holocaust still haunt Germany. In March 2008, discussions between Germany and Israel (between Chancellor Merkel and Prime Minister Olmert) faced fierce opposition from some Israeli MPs. The Second World War ended in 1945. But Germany was divided in 1949 and many of those Germans who found themselves growing up in what became the GDR, or had family and friends in the 'other Germany', maintain that the burdens of the Second World War were not finally lifted until the opening of the Berlin Wall in 1989.

Summary diagram: Germany 1945–91



1 Defeated Germany to Divided Germany 1945–9

POINTS TO CONSIDER

In the immediate post-war years it was by no means clear, either to the Allies or to the Germans, what the future of Germany would be. The purpose of this chapter is to examine the conditions facing the Germans and the Allies in the immediate post-war period and to explore how, against a background of increasing international tension, Germany became a divided nation. Throughout this study of Germany 1945–91 it is worth bearing in mind the extent to which the Cold War determined what happened to Germany – including the reuniting of East and West Germany in 1990. The major themes covered are:

- The seeds of Allied disagreements and tensions: the Potsdam Conference
- The conditions facing post-war Germany
- Denazification
- Developments in Germany 1945–8: the reasons for increasing division
- The establishment of two German states in 1949

Key dates

1945	May	Germany unconditionally surrendered
	July	Potsdam Conference
1946		Nuremberg Trials
1947	January	Formation of Bizonia
	March	Truman Doctrine announced
	July	US government announced the Marshall Plan
1948	June	Currency reform in the Western zones
	June	The Berlin Blockade and Berlin Airlift started
1949	May	The Berlin Blockade and Berlin Airlift ended
	May	Formation of the FRG
	August	Adenauer became first Chancellor of the FRG
	October	Formation of the GDR

Defeated Germany to Divided Germany 1945–91 | 7

Key question
What was decided at Potsdam and what issues were left unresolved?

1 | The Seeds of Allied Disagreements and Tensions: The Potsdam Conference

At the end of April 1945 Hitler committed suicide and the following short-lived German government unconditionally surrendered on 8 May. On 5 June, the Allies (Britain, France, the USA and the USSR) took over joint control of all government responsibilities in the defeated Germany. A major conference was then held at Potsdam just outside Berlin in July 1945. In relation to Germany, the conference aimed to deal with four main issues: disarmament, denazification, territorial adjustments and reparations. The German issue was only part of the conference discussions and much of the time was spent discussing the war which the Allies were still fighting in the Far East against Japan. The disagreements between the Allies at Potsdam provide an insight into the different aims and priorities of the occupying powers. The Potsdam Conference contributed to the increasing tension between the Soviet leader Stalin and the Western Allies by bringing out into the open differing views and priorities.

Demilitarisation

On the issue of demilitarisation the Allies found it easy to agree. Disarmament was a relatively straightforward process because all the Allies agreed that Nazi expansionist policies had been the cause of the Second World War. This meant that the Allies agreed to the dismantling or destruction of any German factories used for building weapons or armaments, as well as the disbanding of Germany's armed forces. It was not until the mid-1950s that both German states were able to develop – and then very controversially – their own armed forces. However, by then the FRG and the GDR were firmly integrated respectively into the two rival military alliances of NATO and the Warsaw Pact.

The Nuremberg Trials

The Allies agreed to put leading Nazis on trial as war criminals. These trials took place in the German city of Nuremberg in 1946, chosen because of its close associations with the Third Reich as the scene of Nazi rallies. Hitler, Goebbels and Himmler had already committed suicide. Altogether 22 leading Nazis were put on trial. Of these, 12 were sentenced to death on 1 October 1946 (Göring mysteriously managed to obtain poison and commit suicide the night before his execution, despite being held in a prison under Allied control and intense supervision), seven were given various prison sentences and three were acquitted.

The seven Nazis who were sentenced were sent to Spandau prison, just north-west of Berlin. These included Hess, Hitler's former deputy, sentenced to life imprisonment; and Speer, Hitler's Minister of Armaments and War Production from 1942.

The four occupying powers had not previously planned the prison arrangements. They eventually agreed that they would each staff Spandau prison on a monthly rotating basis and this arrangement continued for more than two decades. After Speer

8 | Germany Divided and Reunited 1945–91

was released in 1966, Hess remained a solitary figure there until committing suicide in 1987. In September 2007, British government papers revealed that US President Nixon had actually been willing to release Hess in the mid-1970s, but both the British and Soviet governments opposed this as they felt that Hess showed no signs of remorse and, that, if he were released, he might become a focus for a revival of Nazi politics.

Territorial adjustments to Germany

On the issue of territory and the future of Germany, there were clear signs of disagreement. When the Allied leaders gathered at Potsdam in July 1945 the situation was very different from when they had previously met at Yalta in February 1945. When Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin had met at Yalta, US forces on Germany's western borders were preparing to enter the Reich and military success seemed assured. There was more co-operation at this stage between the Allies as military strategy outweighed political considerations. In the following two months of fighting, the Battle for Berlin alone had cost the USSR more than 300,000 dead or wounded soldiers. These losses hardened Soviet attitudes with the result that by the time the Allies met again in July 1945 at Potsdam, clear differences of political opinion between them had emerged. Another significant difference at Potsdam was that, following the death of Roosevelt in April, the USA was represented by its new President, Harry S. Truman, who was a sterner anti-Communist than his predecessor. Furthermore, Churchill was replaced during the actual conference by Clement Attlee, as a result of the Labour Party's victory in the British general election in July.

Yalta

The wartime conference of February 1945 which decided that the countries in Eastern Europe that had been invaded by Germany should be re-established after the war.

Battle for Berlin

The name commonly given to the final few months of the Second World War in Europe which led to Soviet forces finally occupying the city itself.

Key dates

Germany unconditionally surrendered: May 1945
Potsdam Conference: July 1945
Nuremberg Trials: 1946

Key terms

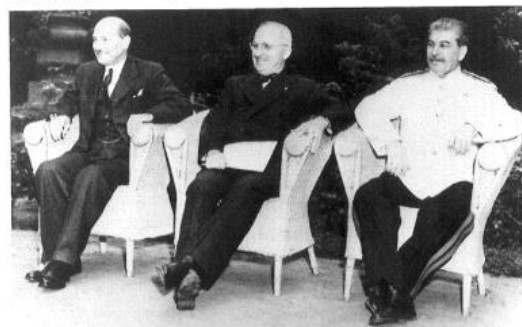
Denazification
The process of ridding Germany of the conditions and individuals that were responsible for Nazism.

Reparations
Payments by Germany as compensation for the damage caused during the Second World War.

NATO
The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation. A military alliance set up in 1949. It was made up of countries in Western Europe as well as the USA and Canada.

Warsaw Pact
Set up in 1955 as a military alliance of Eastern European socialist states by the USSR in response to FRG's membership of NATO.

Key terms



The Allied leaders at the Potsdam Conference, from left, British Prime Minister Clement Attlee, US President Harry S. Truman, and Soviet Union state and party leader Josef Stalin.

The discussions at the Potsdam Conference over territory most clearly showed the beginnings of tensions between the Allies. It also left certain territorial issues unresolved:

- Germany was to be divided into four zones: Britain, France (Stalin would only agree to a French zone if it was taken from existing Western zones) and the USA were to occupy areas in the west of Germany and the USSR was to occupy areas in the east. A common joke was 'America got the scenery, France got the wine and Britain got the ruins'. The Soviet zone was the largest (40 per cent of 1937 German territory and 80 per cent of its industrial production) and significantly it included Berlin, 200 km inside the zone. The Allies decided Berlin would remain as Germany's capital, but it would also be divided between the four occupying powers. What was still unclear was if the four zones would ever form a united country again and there was no agreement on Germany's long-term future. At this point it was by no means certain, or intended, that there would be a divided Germany.

There was also much friction over Poland. At Yalta, territorial changes and compensation for the USSR had been agreed in principle. But nothing had been finalised. By the time of the Potsdam Conference, Germany east of the Oder-Neisse had been occupied by Soviet troops. By early 1945:

- Poland already had a pro-communist government supported by the USSR
- five million Germans had been forcibly expelled from former German territory
- parts of eastern Poland had been incorporated into the USSR.

Immediately at the end of the Second World War it was Stalin's clear intention to establish a socialist government in Poland. This would secure the USSR's western border with eastern Germany. The Allies intended that another peace conference would be held to determine the final territorial boundaries. This never took place. It was only with the reunification of the two Germans in 1990 that Germany's eastern border with Poland was finally officially settled.

Reparations

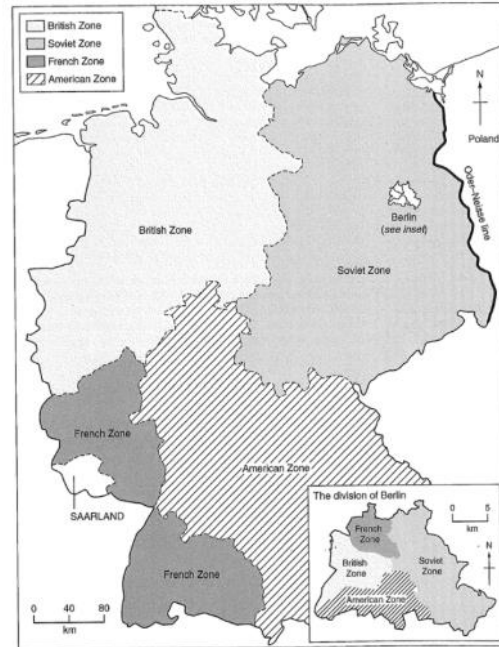
It was also agreed at Potsdam that payment to the Allies for war damage would take the form of the requisitioning of German machinery and industrial equipment rather than financial penalties. Lessons had been learnt from the Treaty of Versailles about how financial reparations had contributed to problems in Germany after the First World War. Nevertheless, there was a lack of consistency in the approach to reparations amongst the Allies. Although the Western Allies were keen not to repeat the same mistakes that had been made at Versailles, the USSR had not forgotten how harshly Germany had treated Russia at the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk in 1918. The approach to reparations was a major obstacle to immediate economic recovery in the Western and Eastern zones and soon became a major source of tension between the Western Allies and the USSR.

Key terms

Oder-Neisse
Rivers on the eastern side of Germany.

Treaty of Versailles
The 1919 settlement that forced Germany to give up territory, pay reparations, reduce its armed forces, and accept responsibility for the First World War.

Treaty of Brest-Litovsk
The punitive peace treaty imposed by Germany on Russia in 1918.



Allied occupation zones in post-war Germany.

Key question
Why were there disagreements over reparations?

Disagreements over reparations

Stalin's attitude

Friction quickly developed between the occupying powers over Stalin's attitude to reparations. Stalin felt justified, following the loss of 25 million Soviet lives and the devastation of so much Soviet territory during the war with Germany, in transferring entire factories, railway stock and even railway track to the USSR. There are some estimates that up to a quarter of all industrial goods were transferred from the Eastern zone back to the USSR. The policy was not only applied to material goods. There were even instances of German scientists and technological experts being forcibly taken to the USSR, sometimes with their entire families. From Stalin's perspective, the USSR needed to be secured from attacks from the west. Its territory had been occupied in three major invasions: in the Napoleonic Wars in the early nineteenth century, and in both the First and Second World Wars. For future Soviet security, Stalin was concerned that the USSR should not face a resurgent Germany on one side and a resurgent Japan on the other. It was not until 1948 that the USSR eventually stopped dismantling factories in the Eastern zone. It did so then only because it realised that it was highly likely that the Soviet sector would become one of the USSR's satellite states and thus a first line of defence against the West. The Soviet stripping of resources from the Eastern zone was to have a long-term effect on living standards and the subsequent development of the East German economy.

Tension between the allies

As well as increasing anti-Russian feeling in the Soviet zone of occupation, this stripping of Germany's resources created more friction with the Western Allies, who were angered even more when the USSR failed to fulfil another agreement from the Potsdam Conference. The Western zones contained the majority of Germany's industry while the Soviet zone was mainly agricultural. Therefore, it was agreed that industrial goods would be transferred to the Soviet zone, which would in turn provide food and raw materials to the Western zones. The failure of the USSR to keep to this agreement contributed to the severe food shortages in the Western zones. Stalin's policy strained relations between the Allied powers and led to retaliation. In 1946, the USA stopped sending goods from Western zones into the Soviet zone. The economy of the Soviet zone was also hampered by the absence of the significant financial support that the Western zones benefited from when the Marshall Plan (see page 23) was later introduced. Stalin has often been presented as the worst offender in the extraction of reparations from Germany. In fact the French, even though they had the smallest and poorest zone of occupation, extracted proportionately far more than the USSR. The French maintained that because they had not actually been present at the Potsdam meeting they could interpret its policies more loosely.

Summary diagram: The seeds of Allied disagreements and tensions – the Potsdam Conference

Key issue	Policy at Potsdam	Result
Demilitarisation to prevent further German militarism	To disarm Germany completely	Germany was disarmed, but in 1955 both parts were in their respective alliances. This rearmament was met with opposition inside both the GDR and the FRG (see Chapter 2)
Denazification	To rid society of Nazism by preventing former active Nazis from holding influential positions in society (see page 16)	Major Nazi figures were brought to trial at Nuremberg. The USSR and the Western allies had different ideological standpoints. Overall denazification became increasingly difficult to implement (see pages 16-17)
Territorial adjustments	The division of Germany and Berlin into four zones of allied occupation. This was intended to be a temporary measure. The four zones made up an area of approximately 75 per cent of Germany's 1937 borders	The Western zones later joined together (see pages 24 and 26) and the Soviet zone was increasingly organised on Marxist-Leninist principles. No further meeting was held. Germany eventually became two separate states (see page 27)
Reparations	The West was concerned that Germany should not be treated too severely. The USSR justified compensation for the damage and costs incurred during Second World War	The issue of reparations became a major source of tension between the Western powers and the USSR

2 | The Conditions Facing Post-war Germany

The extent of post-war dislocation and suffering

More German civilians died during the period 1945-7 than during the previous six years of fighting in the Second World War. There were millions of refugees, there were serious food shortages, and the winters were severe. Food supplies had collapsed so much that there were even rumours of cannibalism. Ration levels in 1946 and 1947 were lower than they had been during the Second World War. Some German refugees arrived naked and robbed of all their possessions, having been forcibly expelled from former German territories in what had now become parts of Poland and Czechoslovakia. Many Germans experienced more precarious conditions during the period of immediate post-war occupation than those they had suffered during the Third Reich and the Second World War.

Key question
Why was there such a severe refugee crisis in post-war Germany?

Refugees and displaced persons

It is notable how transient much of the population in Germany was at this stage. In June 1946, for example, over half a million Germans expelled from Czechoslovakia arrived in the Soviet zone. Refugees accounted for nearly a quarter of the population in the eastern sector. Many refugees had been former prisoners in Nazi concentration, extermination, forced labour or prisoner-of-war camps. Their hardship was all the more severe because they had no possessions to trade with. During this period money had become almost worthless as a form of currency and had been almost entirely replaced by goods such as potatoes or cigarettes. Displaced Persons Camps existed for many years in post-war Germany. Some of them were on the sites of former Nazi concentration camps, such as Dachau, near Munich. The last Displaced Persons Camp did not close until 1957.

To begin with the Allies tried to repatriate as many displaced persons as possible to their home country. Many did not want to return to those countries in Eastern Europe that were now setting up socialist governments and were becoming part of the USSR's system of satellite states. The USSR, however, demanded that any refugees in the Western sectors who had at some point been Soviet citizens must return. The Western Allies complied with this request. The principle of displaced persons' returning to their home country was a clearly a dilemma for the German Jewish survivors of the former Nazi camps because many were already in their home country. Many felt very uncomfortable about rebuilding their lives in a country which had tried to exterminate their entire race, and many also felt uneasy about emigrating to Palestine and the politics of **Zionism**.

Over time those displaced persons who could not be repatriated found new homes – especially in Britain, Canada, France, Germany, Israel and the USA. By the early 1950s, the FRG had set up a system for West German universities to accept a quota of displaced persons as students.

NEW TERM

Zionism

The movement for establishing an independent state of Israel.

Key question
Why was there resentment of Allied occupation?

Initial post-war Allied occupation of Germany

The initial occupation of Germany by Britain, the USA, the USSR and France led to resentment and tension between the occupying forces and the German population. This was partly because many Germans also regarded themselves as victims of the Second World War, not as perpetrators.

It is estimated that between 1945 and 1947 in the Soviet sector up to two million German women were raped by Soviet soldiers and that approximately 90 per cent of pregnancies in that sector were aborted. This figure does not include the very high number of privately arranged terminations. German men who tried to protect the women were sometimes shot. The high levels of rape continued until better controls were enforced by the USSR on its soldiers in 1947 and harsh penalties were introduced in 1949.

Looting was also very common by the Soviet soldiers in their zone of occupation.

In the Western zones, there was some resentment among German civilians at the lifestyle enjoyed by the occupying forces, especially when Allied soldiers in the Western zones were later joined by their families, and local people were sometimes evicted to provide accommodation. A social club was built for the Western Allies in Berlin, the cost of which could have provided homes for 6000 Germans. The Allied forces and families began to enjoy food levels and accommodation that were in some cases actually better than they would have enjoyed at home. There were reports that these disparities were at their most extreme in the French zone. Segregation policies were also resented, whereby for example, hairdressers had cubicles for Allies and their families and separate ones for Germans, although some Germans acknowledged that this was not so very different to some of the early measures that the Nazis had taken against the Jews. Tensions also rose as war-weary German soldiers and prisoners of war returned home, to discover their wives or partners mixing with American, British and French soldiers. This is shown dramatically in Fassbinder's 1979 feature film *The Marriage of Maria Braun*. These liaisons between the Allied forces and local German women ranged from casual to long term, although US regulations meant that soldiers could not marry German women until both had left Germany. These relationships were also partly prompted by the fact that the presence of large numbers of Allied forces offered commercial sexual opportunities for German women who were financially desperate.

Dealing with shortages

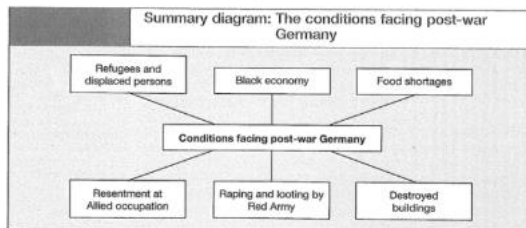
The winter of 1946-7 was extremely severe throughout Germany. There were reports of Germans freezing to death. Three-quarters of industry had to be temporarily shut down because of power shortages. In Hamburg, Germans attacked coal trains in search of fuel and the entire bread rations for the whole of March were used up within little more than a week. Food shortages were more severe in the Western zones because much of Germany's agriculture was in what was now the Soviet zone. Food rationing was implemented, but the rations were considerably lower than wartime levels. Some of the British Army officers administering the occupation of the British zone had to respond to complaints from Britain that they were not being harsh enough on the Germans, especially following the release of film footage showing conditions in the former Nazi concentration camp at Bergen-Belsen. The British occupying forces were able to say with truth that the rations were equivalent to those that prisoners had received in the former Nazi concentration camps. Conditions were so harsh that some Germans believed rumours that the Allies were following a deliberate plan to slowly exterminate the German population. Every scrap of land which could be used for growing food was put to use by ordinary Germans to combat this.



Berliners growing vegetables in front of the destroyed Reichstag building in 1946. One of the problems after planting potatoes was to keep starving thieves stealing the seed potatoes out of the ground.

Trümmerfrauen

More than a quarter of Germany's homes and half of its schools had been destroyed during the war. The Allies in all four zones conscripted all German women between the ages of 15 and 50 to clear the huge amounts of rubble. These groups of women were known as the *Trümmerfrauen* (literally 'rubble women') and most of the work was done by hand with chains of women collecting, moving and cleaning the debris from the Allied bombardments in preparation for the rebuilding of German towns and cities. In immediate post-war Germany, there were seven million more women than men. Their demanding and vital work has since been recognised throughout Germany with various memorials and exhibitions.



3 | Denazification

Implementing denazification

The leading members of the former Nazi government had been tried by a tribunal of the four Allied occupying powers at Nuremberg in October 1946. The issue of dealing with other Nazi figures and individuals was clearly going to be much more difficult. Some were in hiding, or had lied to avoid heavy fines or imprisonment. In many instances much of the evidence needed to convict individuals was lost or had deliberately been destroyed. There were also the immense practical difficulties of trying to run a devastated country and put Germany on the path to recovery. Individuals with vital skills such as doctors or teachers were desperately needed to aid Germany's recovery. The policy of denazification proved controversial and difficult to implement. Mary Fulbrook argues that the Western Allies in particular were never really clear about whether they were punishing or rehabilitating Germany, and that denazification by the Western Allies was therefore 'characterised by a degree of confusion and ultimate inefficiency'. There was also a very different ideological stance between the Western Allies and the USSR. The West saw Nazism as the result of the decisions and choices made by individuals. Because of this, their post-war policies emphasised the need for the re-educating of Germans in democratic values. The Soviets, however, interpreted Nazism as a consequence of capitalist social and economic structures and for them denazification was part of an ideologically driven process towards the creation of a socialist society. Denazification was used as a justification for extensive social and economic restructuring in the Soviet zone (page 21).

The inconsistent and sometimes indiscriminate approaches to denazification across the four different sectors caused resentment. This was especially during the initial, more punitive, phase when the Allies were keen on making former *Wehrmacht* soldiers face trial. Many Germans felt that ordinary soldiers had simply been doing their duty and that the Allies did not have a proper understanding of the nature of Nazism. In all four zones, there were cases of former soldiers being arrested, held for more than a year in internment camps, and then suddenly released without any charges having been brought against them. Some managed to escape completely, for example **Josef Mengele** escaped as far away as South America. Others were wrongly arrested, while some managed to secure high-ranking and influential positions in either East or West Germany.

Denazification in the Western zones

The very early stages of denazification proved to be administratively complex and time consuming. The Western Allies required Germans to complete questionnaires, following which individuals were assigned to one of five categories according to the extent of their involvement in Nazism. Individuals who were classified as not having been active

Key question
Why was denazification such a difficult issue?

Wehrmacht
The German armed forces from 1935 to 1945.

Key term

Josef Mengele 1911-79
An SS officer and doctor who was infamous for his experiments on prisoners at the Nazi extermination camp at Auschwitz 1943-5. He was never tried for war crimes and died in Brazil in 1979.

Key figure

Key question
How was denazification carried out in the Western zones?

Task 4- Please click on the link below

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=W0GFSUu5UzA&t=33s>

As you're watching the clip, please write a statement of around 300-500 words that explains the key features of Marxism as a political theory. Please note that the GDR's government was based on the ideology of Marxism- so having this fundamental knowledge will be very useful.

Key reading- here is a list of recommended reading before starting the course:

Textbooks used during lessons-

'Edexcel AS/A-level History- Communist states in the 20th Century- Pearson'
&
'History + for Edexcel A-level- Communist States in the 20th Century'

Further reading:

Applebaum, A., *Iron Curtain: The Crushing of Eastern Europe*

Bushnell, N., and Leanord, A., *A Germany divided and Reunited 1945-1991*, Hodder

Dale, G., *Popular protest in Easter Germany, 1945-1989*

Dennis, M., *The rise and fall of the GDR, 1945-1990*

Fulbrook, M., *Anatomy of a Dictatorship: Inside the GDR, 1949-89*

Grieder, P., *The German Democratic Republic*, Palgrave Macmillan

RVHS Academic Reading List

Subject: History	
Key Stage: 5	

V = Visit NFA = Non Fiction Article TB = School revision / Textbook	S = TV Drama Series D = Documentary N = Novel for Adults	YA = Novel for Teenagers F = Film NA = News Article
--	---	--

Year of Study	Topic	Suggested reading	Type
12	Life in the GDR	Iron Curtain Kid - Oliver Fritz	NF
		Stasiland - Anna Funder	NF
		Goodbye Lenin	F
		The Lives of Others	F
		Born in the GDR: Living in the Shadow of the Wall - Hester Vaizey	NF
		History+ for Edexcel A Level: Communist states in the twentieth century	TB
		Stasi: The untold story of the German Secret Police - John Koehler	NF
12	Life in the USSR	East Germany: The History and Legacy of the Soviet Satellite State Established after World War II - Charles River	NF
		History+ for Edexcel A Level: Communist states in the twentieth century	TB
		A People's Tragedy - Orlando Figes	NF
		Russia: a 1,000 year chronicle of the Wild East - Martin Sixsmith	NF
		A History of Modern Russia: From Lenin to Putin - Robert Service	NF
The Penguin History of Modern Russia: From Tsardom	NF		

		to the twenty first century - Robert Service The Last of the Tsars - Robert service The Soviet Union: A Very Short Introduction - Stephe Lovell	NF NF
13	Coursework - Independent research project	This will be dependent on your chosen subject. Previous topics have included: The Cold War The Cuban Missile Crisis The Kennedy Assassination The Fall of the Third Reich The European Witch Craze [Reading for many of these topics is already listed across KS3-5]	
13	British Empire	Empire: How Britain made the Modern World - Niall Ferguson The British Empire: A Very Short Introduction - Ashely Jackson Empire: What ruling the world did to the British - Jeremy Paxman Edexcel A Level History, Paper 3: Britain: losing and gaining an empire, 1763-1914 Student Book + ActiveBook The British in India: Three centuries of ambition and experience - David Gilmour	NF NF NF TB NF