GERMANY
1918-1945
GCSE STUDY GUIDE
Contents

PROLOGUE
The German Empire 2-3

PART I THE WEIMAR REPUBLIC
1.1: Defeat and Revolution 5-7
1.2: Weimar Constitution 8-10
1.3: Treaty of Versailles 11-13
1.4: Crisis of the Ruhr 14-16
1.5: Enter the Nazis 17-19
1.6: The Golden Twenties 20-22
1.7: Rise of the Nazis 23-25
1.8: Machtergreifung 26-28
1.9: Dictatorship 29-31

PART II THE NAZI DICTATORSHIP
2.1: The Police State 33-35
2.2: Propaganda and Culture 36-38
2.3: Nazi Economic Policy 39-41
2.4: Control of Labour 42-44
2.5: Youth and Education 45-47
2.6: Women and Family 48-50
2.7: Nazi Eugenics 51-53
2.8: The Holocaust 54-58
2.9: Resistance 59-61

APPENDICES 62-
Glossary 67-79
PROLOGUE: THE GERMAN EMPIRE
1871-1914

KEY FIGURES
- Kaiser Wilhelm II

KEY ORGANIZATIONS
- Reichstag

KEY TERMS
- Militarism
PROLOGUE:
THE GERMAN EMPIRE

1871: The FORMATION OF THE EMPIRE

Before 1871, the area of Europe we call Germany had been made up of many separate Germanic states. These states shared a common history, culture and language but had never been united as a single nation. Prussia was the largest and strongest of the German states and in 1870-1871, it defeated France in a short war. Victory over France marked Prussia as a major European power and the German states united behind Prussia to form the German Empire. The formation of the German Empire created a new super-state which stood to dominate both Eastern and Western Europe. The Empire covered a vast area, had fertile farming land, rich natural resources and the largest population in Western Europe. Prussian power ensured that the German Empire was also possessed of a very formidable military.

GOVERNMENT IN THE GERMAN EMPIRE

As Prussia was the driving force behind the unification of the German states, its leaders dominated the Empire. The King of Prussia, Wilhelm I, became the Kaiser (‘Emperor’) of Germany while the Prussian Prime Minister, Otto von Bismarck, became the Chancellor of Germany.

Bismarck created the Constitution of the German Empire which at face-value did include a degree of democracy. The title of Kaiser was hereditary and was to be passed down through the Prussian House of Hohenzollern. The Kaiser would appoint his Chancellor, but the Empire was to have an elected Reichstag. Only the Kaiser could write laws but the Reichstag had the right to approve, amend or reject these laws. In practice, democracy in the Empire was very limited as the Kaiser and the Prussian aristocracy ensured that they retained ultimate political power.

WILHELM II AND THE ROAD TO WAR

Wilhelm II became the third Kaiser of Germany in 1888. In 1890, he entered into a quarrel with Bismarck which resulted in him dismissing ‘The Iron Chancellor’. Wilhelm’s treatment of Bismarck was typical of the manner in which he ruled Germany, consistently rejecting the counsel of his advisers and the Reichstag, preferring to rule in the manner of an absolute monarch.

Wilhelm II was an enthusiastic supporter of German militarism and in the 1890s he supported a massive build-up of the German military, especially its navy. At the same time that Germany increased its military power, Wilhelm pursued aggressive foreign policy toward Britain, France and Russia whilst affirming Germany’s alliance with Austro-Hungary and Italy. Alarmed by Germany’s aggression, Britain, France and Russia formed their own reciprocal alliances. In 1914, tensions between the two power blocs erupted into war.
PART 1

THE WEIMAR REPUBLIC

1918-1933
1.1: DEFEAT AND REVOLUTION
1918-1919

**KEY FIGURES**
- Friedrich Ebert
- Karl Liebknecht
- Rosa Luxemburg

**KEY ORGANIZATIONS**
- Social Democratic Party (SPD)
- Council of People’s Representatives
- Spartacus League
- Free Corps

**KEY TERMS**
- Abdicate
- Democracy
- Socialism
1.1: DEFEAT AND REVOLUTION
THE EVENTS

SEPTEMBER - OCTOBER 1918: DEFEAT

By the early autumn of 1918, Germany was facing certain defeat in World War I after suffering a series of major defeats on the Western Front. In September 1918, the German High Command approached the Allies for peace terms but the USA refused to negotiate with Germany while Kaiser Wilhelm II remained on the throne.

As the war dragged on, the morale of both the German people and the military deteriorated. On the 29th October 1918, sailors at the Wilhelmshaven naval base mutinied after being ordered to attack the British Fleet in the English Channel. The mutiny sparked off a surge of protest against the imperial regime and several German cities experienced socialist-led revolts in what would become known as ‘The November Revolution’.

THE NOVEMBER REVOLUTION

Faced with the prospect of an all-out revolution, the Kaiser abdicated on the 9th November 1919. On the same afternoon, SPD politician Phillip Scheidemann declared the ‘German Republic’ from the Reichstag building while the radical socialist revolutionary Karl Liebknecht sought to encourage the continuation of the ‘November Revolution’ by declaring Germany to be a ‘Socialist Republic’.

A temporary government in the shape of the Council of People’s Representatives was hastily formed by Friedrich Ebert, the chairman of the SPD and acting Chancellor of Germany. One of the first acts of the council was to authorise Germany’s surrender to the Allies on the 11th November 1918. Radical socialists opposed the authority of the council and attempted to bring about a communist revolution in Germany of the kind that had taken place in Russia in October 1917.

JANUARY 1919: THE SPARTACIST REVOLT

On the 5th January 1919, the newly formed KPD under the leadership of Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg attempted to seize political power from the council through armed revolt. With the regular German military in disarray and the local Police incapable and unwilling to subdue the revolt, the Council of People’s Representatives turned to the nationalist Free Corps to defend Berlin against the communists. The Free Corps deployed against the revolutionaries on the 8th January and a week of intense street fighting followed. By the 11th January, the ‘Spartacist Revolt’ had been crushed and over 1500 revolutionaries had been killed by the Free Corps. Many surviving revolutionaries, including Liebknecht and Luxemburg, were taken prisoner by the Free Corps only to be summarily executed in the following days.
1.1: DEFEAT AND REVOLUTION
ANALYSIS

WHY DID THE GERMAN MONARCHY COLLAPSE IN 1918?

WAR WEARINESS
- German people were tired of loss of life and food shortages caused by World War I.
- Many people blamed the Kaiser for the continuation of the war and so the Kaiser became increasingly unpopular with the German people; the German people gradually accepted that the loss of the Kaiser was a necessary price to pay for peace.

PRESSURE FROM THE ALLIES
- The Allies saw World War I as being the ‘Kaiser’s War’ and refused to enter into peace negotiations with Germany while the Kaiser remained on the throne.
- The German High Command understood that Germany could not win World War I but could not surrender unless the Kaiser was removed from power.

LOSS OF POWER
- The Kaiser’s impulsive nature meant that he quickly lost the confidence of the German High Command during World War I.
- By 1918, the German High Command had practically taken control of Germany leaving the Kaiser a mere figurehead leader and a dispensable monarch.

CALLS FOR INCREASED DEMOCRACY
- Many Germans believed that the monarchy was outdated and wanted to see it replaced with a parliamentary democracy.
- As the Kaiser lost the respect and confidence of the German people, the calls for the introduction of true democracy in Germany increased.
1.2: THE WEIMAR CONSTITUTION

1919

KEY FIGURES
- Phillip Scheidemann

KEY ORGANIZATIONS
- National Assembly
- The Weimar Coalition

KEY TERMS
- Constitution
- Republic
- Proportional Representation
1.2: THE WEIMAR CONSTITUTION

THE EVENTS (See also Appendix 2)

JANUARY 1919: ELECTIONS

The members of the Council of People’s Representatives always regarded themselves as a temporary government and Ebert wanted to hand over power to an elected National Assembly as soon as Germany was stable enough for national elections to be held. Despite the chaos which prevailed in many regions of Germany, a general election was held on 19th January 1919. The SPD won the largest share of the vote with 38% and were awarded 165 of the 423 seats available in the National Assembly. The majority of the remaining seats were divided amongst the Centre Party, the DDP and the DNVP.

THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

Due to ongoing street violence in Berlin, the National Assembly first convened in the town of Weimar on 6th February 1919. The Assembly elected Friedrich Ebert as President of the Republic whilst Ebert’s fellow SPD member Philipp Scheidemann was appointed as Chancellor. Scheidemann’s government was a coalition of the SPD, DDP and Centre Party; this grouping of political parties would eventually become known as ‘The Weimar Coalition’.

Between February and June 1919, the National Assembly set to work on the writing of a constitution for the new Republic. The majority of the detail was completed by Hugo Preuß, a professional lawyer and member of the DDP. The National Assembly elected to adopt the Constitution in July 1919 and Friedrich Ebert passed it into law on the 11th August.

MARCH - AUGUST 1919: THE CONSTITUTION

The Constitution determined that Germany would be a parliamentary republic with universal adult suffrage. The head of state was to be a popularly elected president who would be given considerable power over foreign policy and the armed forces. Under the terms of Article 48, if the Republic was confronted with a severe crisis, the president could suspend normal parliamentary process and rule by decree. The president was empowered to select the Chancellor, whose government required the support of the Reichstag which was itself elected by the people through a system of proportional representation.

Asides from the fact that the Constitution made Germany a Republic, contained a Bill of Rights aimed at doing away with the traditional privileges of the German aristocracy and granted universal suffrage, it’s detail preserved much of the Constitution of the German Empire. The continuity between the constitutions of imperial Germany and the German Republic only served to heighten the criticisms of the left-wing who viewed the National Assembly as conservative counter-revolutionaries.
1.2: THE WEIMAR CONSTITUTION
ANALYSIS

WHAT WERE THE MAIN STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF THE WEIMAR CONSTITUTION?

**STRENGTH**

**UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE**
- The Constitution introduced universal suffrage: the right for every adult citizen to vote.
- Universal suffrage was not commonplace in nation states at the beginning of the 20th century and its inclusion in the constitution made Germany one of the most progressive democracies in Europe.

**BILL OF RIGHTS**
- The Constitution guaranteed that all citizens had certain basic rights such as freedom of speech, freedom of movement and choice of religion; these rights were protected under law.
- This Bill of Rights removed the strict censorship laws which had been in place in Imperial Germany and stripped the German aristocracy of the powers and privileges they had held under the imperial regime.

**ARTICLE 48**
- Article 48 allowed the president of the Republic to pass laws at a time of crisis without the consent of the Reichstag.
- This measure gave the president potential access to almost unlimited political power and was open to abuse by a president who wished to turn himself into a dictator.

**WEAKNESS**

**PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION**
- There were many different political parties in Germany during the Weimar era and proportional representation meant that the Reichstag was constantly divided amongst these parties.
- The division of the Reichstag made it impossible for any one party to gain a majority in the Reichstag and create strong, unified government.
1.3: THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES
1919

KEY FIGURES

- Georges Clemenceau
- David Lloyd-George
- Woodrow Wilson

KEY TERMS

- Treaty
- Reparations
1.3: THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES
THE EVENTS (See also Appendix 3)

JANUARY - APRIL 1919: THE PARIS PEACE CONFERENCE

On 18th January 1919, representatives from 27 nations met at the French foreign ministry in Paris to begin negotiations for a treaty intended to bring a lasting peace to Europe. From April 1919, the main negotiations over the terms of the treaty took place between the respective heads of state of France, Great Britain and the United States of America, the three major powers which had defeated Germany and its allies in World War I. These three nations were collectively known as ‘The Big Three’.

APRIL - MAY 1919: GERMANY EXCLUDED

The newly formed German government initially had high hopes that the Paris Peace Conference would provide support for Germany as it struggled to establish itself as a modern democracy. It seemed that there was good cause for Germany to be optimistic; Woodrow Wilson, the president of the United States of America, was known to be sympathetic toward Germany while the Prime Minister of Great Britain, David Lloyd-George, also favoured a treaty which brought about the long-term rehabilitation of Germany.

However, a German delegation was not invited to the conference until April and was not permitted to take part in negotiations. The delegates withdrew in May as it became increasingly obvious that the terms of the treaty were being dictated by French Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau who wanted a treaty which punished rather than assisted Germany.

JUNE 1919: THE GERMAN REACTION

When the final terms of the treaty were revealed in June 1919, the harshness of the punishments levelled against Germany was met with shock and outrage amongst the German people. Scheidemann was so angered by the treaty that he refused to sign it on Germany’s behalf and resigned from government along with the DDP members of his cabinet. Yet when it became clear to the German government that the Allies would resort to military action unless Germany accepted the terms of the treaty, Scheidemann’s successor Gustav Bauer had little choice but to comply. The Treaty of Versailles was signed on 28th June 1919. To the German people, the treaty would always be known as ‘The Dictated Peace’.
1.3: THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES
ANALYSIS

WHAT PROBLEMS DID THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES CAUSE FOR THE WEIMAR REPUBLIC?

CRISIS OF THE RUHR
- Germany was both unable and unwilling to pay the reparations levied against her under the terms of the Treaty of Versailles.
- Between 1922 and 1923, Germany consistently defaulted on reparations repayments and the Crisis of the Ruhr in 1923 was a direct consequence of Germany’s failure to meet reparations payments.

GROWTH OF NATIONALISM
- Many Germans felt that their country had been victimised by the Allies and humiliated by the terms of the Treaty of Versailles.
- The resentment which people felt over the treaty led to the growth of nationalism and kindled support for ultra-nationalist groups such as the Nazi Party.

WEAKENED REICHSTAG
- Many Germans believed that the Weimar Coalition government had betrayed Germany by signing the Treaty of Versailles.
- The anger which people felt toward the government led to a loss of support for the parties of the Weimar Coalition and so added to the political divisions in the Reichstag.

THE KAPP PUTSCH
- The restrictions in manpower placed on the German military meant that the government had to order the Free Corps to disband.
- An ultra-nationalist Free Corps regiment led by Wolfgang Kapp saw this as a betrayal and occupied Berlin in March 1920.
- The Kapp Putsch was defeated by a general strike staged by Berlin workers.
1.3: THE CRISIS OF THE RUHR

1919

KEY FIGURES

- Gustav Stresemann

KEY TERMS

- Hyperinflation
- Passive Resistance
- Rentenmark
1.4: THE CRISIS OF THE RUHR
THE EVENTS

DECEMBER 1922: OCCUPATION

By late 1922, Germany and the Allies had entered into a stand-off over the issue of reparation repayments. Germany had defaulted on its reparations payments to such an extent that the governments of France and Belgium ordered troops to occupy the Ruhr, a major industrial region in western Germany. The French and Belgian governments intended that their troops would supervise the extraction and confiscation of coal from German mines in the Ruhr in lieu of reparation repayments.

JANUARY - AUGUST 1923: HYPERINFLATION

The Franco-Belgian occupation of the Ruhr began in January 1923. German miners in the Ruhr met the occupation with passive resistance, embarking on strike action and a series of ‘go-slow’. The German government, led by Chancellor Wilhelm Cuno, encouraged the campaign of passive resistance and attempted to support the campaign by continuing to pay wages to miners in the Ruhr whilst they were on strike.

From 1919, successive governments had attempted to pay-off Germany’s war debts and reparation obligations by printing increased quantities of money. By 1923, this policy had brought the German economy to the brink of hyperinflation and Cuno’s decision to further increase the printing of currency rapidly drove the economy into a state of terminal hyperinflation. By the autumn of 1923, prices of basic commodities had spiralled out of control and there were 4.2 trillion German marks to the US dollar.

SEPTEMBER - DECEMBER 1923: STRESEMANN

Cuno was forced to resign as Chancellor in August 1923 after the Reichstag passed a motion of no confidence in his government. Cuno was succeeded by DVP politician Gustav Stresemann who immediately took a series of measures aimed at bringing an end to hyperinflation and reopening negotiations on reparation repayments with the Allies. By the end of 1923, Stresemann had succeeded in stabilising the German economy whilst his negotiations with the Allies eventually brought an end to the occupation of the Ruhr.
1.4: THE CRISIS OF THE RUHR

ANALYSIS

HOW DID GUSTAV STRESEMANN SOLVE THE CRISIS OF THE RUHR?

END OF PASSIVE RESISTANCE
- Almost as soon as he became chancellor, Stresemann called for an end to passive resistance in the Ruhr.
- The end of strike action in the Ruhr not only relieved the German government of the obligation to pay a striking workforce, it also ensured that coal production resumed within the Ruhr and enabled Germany to restore a source of much needed income.

INTRODUCTION OF THE RENTENMARK
- Stresemann realised that only the issue of new currency would bring hyperinflation under control and in October 1923, Stresemann introduced a new, temporary currency called the Rentenmark.
- The Rentenmark was backed by funds raised from mortgaging German land and industry.
- The Rentenmark was issued in strictly controlled quantities and successfully stabilised the German economy.

NEGOTIATION OF THE DAWES PLAN
- As a result of the Crisis of the Ruhr, the Allies set up a committee to solve the problem of how Germany was going to pay reparations.
- The committee was led by American banker Charles Dawes who suggested that the USA make a huge loan to Germany to rebuild German trade and industry.
- The Dawes Plan was accepted by both the Allies and Germany in August 1924.
1.5: ENTER THE NAZIS
1919-1923

KEY FIGURES
- Adolf Hitler

KEY ORGANIZATIONS
- National Socialist German Workers’ Party (NSDAP) (Nazi Party)

KEY TERMS
- Nationalism
- Paramilitary
- Putsch
1.5: ENTER THE NAZIS
THE EVENTS (See also Appendix 4)

1919 - 1921: ORIGINS

The German Workers Party (DAP) was formed by Munich locksmith Anton Drexler in January 1919. Adolf Hitler began to attend DAP meetings soon after the formation of the party and became a member in July of 1919. Hitler’s energy together with his skills as a public speaker soon made him an influential figure within the DAP and between 1920-1921, Hitler took the leadership of the party from Drexler and renamed it the National Socialist German Workers’ Party (NSDAP/Nazi Party).

NOVEMBER 1923: THE PUTSCH

Under Hitler’s leadership, the party grew steadily between 1921-1923. It organized strong-arm groups to protect its rallies and meetings. These groups drew their members from the Free Corps and other right-wing paramilitary organizations and were eventually organized into the Stormtroopers (SA).

In 1923, inspired by surge in nationalist sentiment caused by the Crisis of the Ruhr, Hitler and his followers felt strong enough to attempt to seize control of the Bavarian state government. The Nazis believed that a successful Nazi putsch in Bavaria would trigger a nationwide right-wing uprising against democratic government. The putsch attempt began in a Munich beer hall on 8th November 1923 but failed almost immediately after it became apparent that local army commanders would not support the Nazi bid for power. On the morning of the 9th November, the SA staged a march through Munich in the hope of gaining the support of the people. The march led to a confrontation and gun fight with state police units in which sixteen Nazi supporters and four police officers were shot dead.

FEBRUARY - DECEMBER 1924: PRISON

Hitler was arrested on 11th November and in February 1924 he was placed on trial for high treason. Although found guilty, Hitler and his co-conspirators benefited from the sympathetic attitude of the Bavarian authorities toward the nationalist cause and received a sentence of only five years imprisonment. Hitler was incarcerated in Landsberg prison where he was permitted to live in relative comfort until he received a pardon after serving only eight months of his sentence. During his time in prison Hitler wrote the autobiographical ‘My Struggle’, a book which eventually became a manifesto for National Socialism.
1.5: ENTER THE NAZIS

ANALYSIS

- SHOULD THE MUNICH PUTSCH BE CONSIDERED A SUCCESS OR FAILURE FOR THE NAZI PARTY?

LACK OF SUPPORT FOR THE NAZI CAUSE
- Neither the people of Bavaria nor local military units were willing to give the Nazis the support they needed for the Munich Putsch to succeed.
- The failure of the Munich Putsch demonstrated that in 1923, the Nazis lacked popular support at both a national and local level.

SUPPRESSION OF THE NAZI PARTY
- The failure of the Munich putsch led to the imprisonment of the Nazi leadership and the temporary suppression of the Nazi Party as a whole.
- Between 1923 and 1925, the Nazis were not permitted to hold rallies or mass meetings in public and the paramilitary units of the Nazi Party were made illegal.

NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL PUBLICITY
- The Munich Putsch drew the attention of the world’s media and provided Hitler and the Nazi Party with a huge amount of publicity.
- Hitler subsequently became a political celebrity within Germany and was seen as a hero and leader figure by German nationalists.

CHANGE IN NAZI STRATEGY
- The failure of the Munich Putsch led Hitler to understand that the Nazis would not gain political power by use of force alone.
- Hitler decided that the Nazi Party should reorganize and focus its efforts on gaining political representation within the Reichstag.
- The new Nazi strategy was a vital factor in their eventual rise to political power in Germany.
1.6: THE GOLDEN TWENTIES
1924-1929

KEY FIGURES

- Paul von Hindenburg

KEY TERMS

- League of Nations
1925: THE LOCARNO TREATIES

Friedrich Ebert died in February 1925 and was succeeded as president by Paul von Hindenburg. Hindenburg’s election as President of the Republic marked the beginning of a five year period which is frequently referred to as ‘The Golden Age of Weimar’. The loans made to Germany by the USA under the Dawes Plan enabled the German economy to recover from the crises of the early 1920s and some sectors of German society began to enjoy a degree of prosperity.

Economic recovery was accompanied by the reintegration of Germany into the international community, largely as a result of Gustav Stresemann’s work as Foreign Minister. Although Stresemann himself was a nationalist, he believed that the best way to improve Germany’s international status was to seek reconciliation with the Allies. The Locarno Treaties which Stresemann negotiated with major European nations in October 1925 were a crucial first stage in rebuilding relations between Germany and the major European powers.

1926 - AUGUST 1929: LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Stresemann’s willingness to sign the Locarno Treaties led to Germany being accepted into the League of Nations in September 1926. Germany’s foreign relations were further improved in August 1928 when Stresemann agreed to make Germany a signatory to the international Kellogg-Briand Pact.

Germany’s reintegration within the international community led to the Allies making a second reassessment of Germany’s reparations obligations and in August 1929, the sum of reparations payments imposed on Germany under the Treaty of Versailles was further reduced through the implementation of the Young Plan.

1925 - 1929: WEIMAR CULTURE

As the Republic stabilised, German art and culture entered into an era of remarkable creativity in which new and significant developments were made in painting, cinema, architecture and design. At the same time, Berlin became world famous for its exciting nightlife as numerous nightclubs provided venues for daring floor shows in which sex was a prominent theme. However, not all Germans were appreciative of Weimar culture. Many viewed the nature of Berlin nightlife as scandalous whilst the Nazis branded much of the art and culture produced within the Republic as ‘degenerate’.
1.6: THE GOLDEN TWENTIES

ANALYSIS

HOW DID GERMANY RE-JOIN THE INTERNATIONAL COMMUNITY BETWEEN 1925 AND 1929?

THE LOCARNO TREATIES
- In the Locarno Treaties of 1925, Germany agreed to accept her western boundaries as defined in the Treaty of Versailles.
- The treaties helped reduce French suspicions that Germany wanted to seize territory held by France and so helped lessen the hostility which France had demonstrated toward Germany from the end of World War I.

ENTRY INTO THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS
- After the signing of the Locarno Treaties, the western European powers began to regard Germany as a neighbour state rather than as a defeated enemy; Germany was consequently granted entry into the League of Nations in September 1926.
- Entry into the League of Nations meant that Germany could influence international affairs and rebuild diplomatic relations with several nations.

THE KELLOGG-BRIAND PACT
- The Kellogg-Briand Pact of 1928 was a multi-national agreement in which signatory nations agreed to use negotiation rather than warfare as a means of settling international disputes.
- Germany's willingness to sign the pact served as further reassurance to western European nations that Germany was committed to peace in Europe.
1.7: RISE OF THE NAZIS
1930-1932

KEY ORGANIZATIONS

- Stormtroopers (SA)

KEY TERMS

- Economic Depression
- Populism
1.7: RISE OF THE NAZIS
THE EVENTS

OCTOBER 1929: WALL STREET CRASH

In October 1929, the American stock market collapsed in the Wall Street Crash. The crisis in the American economy marked the beginning of a worldwide slide into economic depression. Every industrialized nation was affected by the Great Depression but Germany was particularly badly hit as American banks called in the loans which propped up German industry.

1930 - 1931: THE TURN TO EXTREMISM

The Great Depression quickly brought about a massive drop in world trade and German exports slumped. As German businesses closed en masse, millions of people lost their jobs. Unemployment in Germany rose from just under 2 million in 1929 to 3 million in 1930 and 4.8 million in 1931.

The Weimar government seemed entirely unable to deal with the effects of the Great Depression. Many Germans lost faith in the moderate political parties which had made up the Weimar government since the formation of the Republic and turned to extremist parties on both the left and right-wing for solutions. In the national elections of September 1930, the Nazi Party won 107 Reichstag seats to become the second largest party in the Reichstag after the SPD. In the same election, the KPD won 77 seats.

1932: NAZI TRIUMPH

As unemployment reached 6 million, the Nazis realised that the Depression presented them with an ideal opportunity to gain political power. They made an extraordinary effort to win over the German people and in the national elections of July 1932, the Nazi Party won 230 seats to become the largest political party in the Reichstag.

The KPD also made gains in the July 1932 elections winning 88 seats. As political extremism increased, so too did politically motivated violence between the left and right-wing. A period of intense street battles between the SA and the paramilitaries of the KPD left over 500 people killed or injured.

Yet another national election was held in November 1932. This time, the Nazi share of the Reichstag dropped to 196 seats (largely as a result of a backlash against the violent conduct of the SA). Yet still the Nazis remained the largest party within the Reichstag and on the brink of winning political power.
1.7: RISE OF THE NAZIS

ANALYSIS

HOW DID THE NAZIS BECOME THE LARGEST POLITICAL PARTY IN THE REICHSTAG?

THE EFFECTS OF THE GREAT DEPRESSION
- The government’s inability to deal with the Depression caused the German people to experience a widespread loss of faith not only in the moderate political parties but also in democracy itself.
- A substantial number of Germans turned to political extremism for solutions to Germany’s economic crisis.
- Unemployment caused many men to join the SA and membership rose to 0.5 million in 1932.

USE OF POPULIST POLITICS
- The Nazis played on the resentments felt by many Germans and blamed the Great Depression on the moderate political parties and ‘weak’ democratic government.
- The Nazis promised to deliver to Germany what people wanted most in the midst of the Depression: the rebirth of a strong Germany and a return to full employment.

EFFECTIVE ELECTIONEERING
- The Nazi election campaigns of 1930 and 1932 were very well organised and made use of innovative electioneering methods.
- The SA were used to disrupt the campaigns of the Nazis’ political opponents, especially the KPD. While many Germans were appalled by the violent methods of the SA, elements of the middle-class found their assaults on the communists to be reassuring.

FEAR OF COMMUNISM
- The gains made by the KPD in the 1930 elections made many Germans fearful of a communist regime.
- The German middle-class in particular feared the rise of the KPD and gave their vote to the Nazi Party to prevent the communists from taking political power.
1.8: MACHTERGREIFUNG
1932-1933

KEY FIGURES

- Franz von Papen
- Kurt von Schleicher

KEY ORGANIZATIONS

- Camarilla

KEY TERMS

- Machtergreifung
MAY 1932: THE KAMARILLA

From 1930, Chancellor Heinrich Brüning had attempted to preserve the German economy from the effects of the Great Depression through a programme of tax increases, wage cuts and reduced unemployment benefit. These policies found little support in the Reichstag and Brüning could only make policy by appealing to President Hindenburg to use Article 48. When Brüning was forced to resign in May 1932, Hindenburg and his Camarilla of rich, conservative industrialists were effectively ruling Germany by decree.

JUNE - NOVEMBER 1932: PAPEN

In June 1932, Hindenburg appointed Franz von Papen as chancellor despite the fact Papen had no support in the Reichstag. Papen called an election in July 1932, hoping to gain a majority but it was the Nazis who made substantial gains winning 230 seats. Papen had little choice but to try and form a right-wing coalition government made up of the Nazis and other right-wing parties. Hitler, however, demanded that Hindenburg make him chancellor on the basis that he was the leader of the largest political party within the Reichstag. When Hindenburg refused to appoint Hitler, the Nazis responded by refusing to co-operate with Papen. Without the support of the Nazis, Papen was forced to call another election in November 1932. Papen again failed to win a majority and was left with no choice but to resign.

JANUARY 1933: CHANCELLOR HITLER

In December 1932, Hindenburg appointed Kurt von Schleicher, another member of the Camarilla, as chancellor after Schleicher had assured Hindenburg that he could create a moderate anti-Nazi coalition in the Reichstag. Schleicher’s appointment as chancellor triggered a power struggle between Schleicher and Papen who resented losing the chancellorship.

Schleicher struggled to create the coalition he had promised Hindenburg and Papen plotted against him by holding secret talks with Hitler. Papen agreed to support Hitler’s bid to become Chancellor on the condition that Hitler appointed no more than two members of the Nazi Party to his cabinet and appointed Papen as Vice-Chancellor. This time Hitler agreed to Papen’s terms. Believing that he could make Hitler a puppet-chancellor, Papen convinced Hindenburg to withdraw his support of Schleicher’s government. Schleicher resigned on the 28th January 1933 and Hitler was made Chancellor of Germany on the 30th January.
1.8: MACHTERGREIFUNG
ANALYSIS

WHAT POLITICAL FACTORS LED TO HITLER BECOMING CHANCELLOR IN 1933?

POLITICAL SELF-INTEREST OF THE CAMARILLA
- The Camarilla, particularly Papen and Schleicher, continually put their own political ambitions before the welfare of Germany.
- The power struggle between Papen and Schleicher provided Hitler with an opportunity to take the chancellorship which he may otherwise not have had.

UNERESTIMATION OF HITLER BY THE CAMARILLA
- The Camarilla was made up of a privileged elite who believed their social status was sufficient to ensure that they could overcome or manipulate Hitler and the Nazis.
- The Camarilla failed to understand that Hitler was a fanatical nationalist with popular support and would not be intimidated by the elite of ‘Old Germany’ nor bought off by the promise of position in a political system he despised and wished to destroy.

PRESIDENTIAL RULE
- Hindenburg’s appointing of Papen then Schleicher as Chancellor was both ill-advised and undemocratic and gave additional credibility to Hitler’s claim to the chancellorship.
- Hindenburg’s increased use of Article 48 between 1930 and 1932 seriously undermined democratic process and made both the Reichstag and the German people resigned to the suspension of democracy in the Republic.

DIVIDED REICHSTAG
- Despite the fact that the Nazi Party became the largest party in the Reichstag in 1932, they were still substantially short of winning an overall majority.
- Moderate political parties within the Reichstag could have formed a broad coalition which would have kept the Nazis out of power but failed to co-operate with each other at a crucial time.
1.9: DICTATORSHIP
1933-1934

**KEY FIGURES**
- Heinrich Himmler
- Ernst Röhm

**KEY ORGANIZATIONS**
- Schutzstaffel (SS)

**KEY TERMS**
- Enabling Act
- Extra-constitutional
1.9: DICTATORSHIP

THE EVENTS

FEbruary 1933: The Reichstag Fire

Once appointed chancellor, Hitler was determined that the Nazis would gain majority control of the Reichstag so that he could rid himself of the restrictions which Papen had placed on his chancellorship. Hitler called national elections for 5th March 1933.

On 27th February, an arson attack was carried out on the Reichstag Building. Hitler immediately blamed the KPD for the attack and convinced Hindenburg to use Article 48 to grant him emergency powers to suppress a supposed communist putsch attempt. Hindenburg believed the threat was real and gave Hitler the powers he requested. The Reichstag Fire Decree enabled Hitler to virtually eliminate the KPD; its leadership was arrested and either imprisoned in concentration camps or executed.

March 1933: The Enabling Act

Despite a campaign of intense intimidation directed at their opponents, the Nazi Party failed to win a majority in the March national elections. Without legitimate control of the Reichstag, Hitler attempted to pass an Enabling Act which would transfer all power into his hands and allow him to permanently bypass the Constitution. The non-Nazi members of the Reichstag realised that Hitler would turn the powers granted to him by the Reichstag Fire Decree against them if they opposed the legislation and, on 23rd March 1933, the Enabling Act was passed into law. The Enabling Act effectively established Hitler as a dictator and marked the end of the Weimar Republic.

June - August 1934: Purge

Although the Enabling Act gave Hitler almost complete power over German society, he still lacked the backing of the German High Command which he needed in order to embark on his planned wars against European nations. The traditionalist High Command were suspicious of Hitler and relations between the military and the Nazis were made worse by the fact that Ernst Röhm, the leader of the SA, was demanding that the German army be placed under his overall command. After Röhm had alienated Hitler through public criticism of Hitler’s leadership, Hitler decided that Röhm and his fellow SA leaders should be eliminated. On 30th June 1934, the senior leaders of the SA were assassinated by Heinrich Himmler’s SS in what would become known as The ‘Night of the Long Knives’. With Röhm dead, the High Command gave Hitler their allegiance.

In August 1934, President Hindenburg died. Hitler combined the positions of Chancellor and President and proclaimed himself Führer of Germany. The Nazi dictatorship was complete.
1.9: DICTATORSHIP ANALYSIS

**HOW DID HITLER CONSOLIDATE HIS POWER BETWEEN 1933 AND 1934?**

**THE REICHTAG FIRE DECREES**
- The Reichstag Fire provided Hitler with the opportunity to obtain extra-constitutional powers from President Hindenburg via the use of Article 48.
- Having secured emergency powers in the Reichstag Fire Decree, Hitler abused these powers to create a police state in which his paramilitaries and security forces eliminated or intimidated the Nazi’s political opposition.

**THE ENABLING ACT**
- The Enabling Act allowed Hitler to establish a dictatorship without first gaining majority control of the Reichstag.
- The Enabling Act was the foundation of Hitler’s dictatorship as it provided Hitler with almost limitless power and allowed him to dismantle democracy in Germany.

**NIGHT OF THE LONG KNIVES**
- The assassination of the leadership of the SA brought Hitler the loyalty of the German military.
- A spate of killings carried out by the SS in the weeks following the Night of the Long Knives eliminated the most outspoken and prominent critics of the Nazi regime.
PART 2

THE NAZI DICTATORSHIP

1933-1945
2.1: THE POLICE STATE
1933-1939

KEY FIGURES
- Reinhard Heydrich

KEY ORGANIZATIONS
- The Secret State Police (Gestapo)
- National Main Security Office (RSHA)

KEY TERMS
- Police State
- Extra-judicial
2.1: THE POLICE STATE

THE EVENTS

ESTABLISHING THE POLICE STATE

The Nazis began to put together the elements of police state almost as soon as Hitler had been made chancellor. One of the two Nazi Party members permitted in Hitler's cabinet in early 1933 was Herman Göring. Hitler appointed Göring as Minister of the Interior for Prussia and Göring immediately granted the paramilitary units of the Nazi Party the status of auxiliary police. Between February and March 1933, under the pretence of ‘preventing civil disorder’, the SA and the SS took brutal measures against Prussian based opposition to the Nazi Party, including the construction of the first concentration camps in which leading members of the KPD and eventually the SPD were interred.

In November 1933, Göring established the Gestapo within Prussia. This secret police unit was responsible for identifying and arresting ‘enemies of the state’ and they quickly became the Nazis’ primary instrument of repression. Their mission was given a legal basis when in December 1934 the Nazi passed laws which made public criticism of the Nazi Party a criminal offence.

HIMMLER AND THE SS

The Nazis takeover of German security agencies accelerated in 1934 when Heinrich Himmler, the leader of the SS, was given control of all police units outside of Prussia and of the Gestapo within Prussia.

The SS became independent of the SA in July 1934 after their assassination of the leadership of the SA and other opponents of the Nazi Party convinced Hitler of their loyalty. In June 1936, the appointment of Himmler to the position of Chief of German Police effectively made the SS an umbrella organisation of all security forces in Germany. Shortly after his appointment, Himmler integrated the criminal police and the Gestapo into a single organization known simply as the Security Police (SiPO).

In September 1939, Himmler finally created a single organization, the RSHA, to co-ordinate the activities of all security agencies. The RSHA was placed under the command of Himmler’s deputy Reinhard Heydrich.

THE PEOPLE’S COURT

In 1934 Hitler established the People’s Court, primarily to ensure that ‘enemies of the state’ would be denied access to normal legal process. The People’s Court did not follow any of the conventions of normal courts of law; the judge or ‘president’ of the Court was usually also the prosecutor and lawyers ‘defending’ the accused often simply remained silent throughout the trial.
2.1: THE POLICE STATE

ANALYSIS

HOW WERE NAZI SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS ABLE TO EFFECTIVELY SUPPRESS OPPOSITION TO THE NAZI DICTATORSHIP?

CO-ORDINATION OF SECURITY AGENCIES
- All German security agencies were eventually placed under the overall supervision of the RSHA.
- The RSHA ensured that all security agencies, even local criminal police, were working to preserve the Nazi dictatorship.

BYPASS OF THE JUDICIAL SYSTEM
- In 1936, the Nazis pronounced that the activities of the Gestapo above the law. Once given extra-judicial powers, the Gestapo were able to arrest, imprison and even execute ‘enemies of the state’ without having to answer to a court of law.
- If trialled, ‘enemies of the state’ were brought before the People’s Court a given little more than a show trial before being convicted.

INFECTION OF COMMUNITIES BY NAZI SECURITY AGENCIES
- The Gestapo established offices in most German communities and created a climate of fear which coerced people into informing on any fellow citizen who subverted the Nazi regime.
- The activities of the Gestapo were supported by the work of specially appointed ‘wardens’ who were usually Nazi Party members charged with monitoring the activities of people in their neighbourhood.
2.2: PROPAGANDA AND CULTURE
1933-1939

KEY FIGURES
- Joseph Goebbels

KEY ORGANIZATIONS
- National Ministry of Propaganda

KEY TERMS
- Propaganda
2.2: PROPAGANDA AND CULTURE

THE EVENTS

GOEBBELS AND ‘THE BIG LIE’

In March 1933, Hitler appointed Joseph Goebbels as Minister of Propaganda and charged him with the mission of indoctrinating the German people with Nazi ideals.

Goebbels proved himself to be a brilliant and innovative propagandist and developed a method of propaganda built on the principle that if a message is delivered to a population in a grand manner and with sufficient frequency, eventually the population will stop questioning whether or not the message is true and simply accept it. Goebbels method of propaganda has since been termed as ‘The Big Lie’ technique. Goebbels used a combination of ‘The Big Lie’ and strict censorship in his efforts to ensure that the German people accepted the ideals and values of the Nazi Party.

NAZI CULTURE

Goebbels established the National Chamber of Culture in September 1933. This office consisted of seven divisions: theatre, literature, music, radio, newspapers, visual arts and film. Artists, writers, actors, journalists and film makers had to register with the Chamber of Culture before they could perform or have their work published. If the Nazis disapproved of a particular artist or writer, they would revoke their registration and prevent them from working. The formation of the Chamber of Culture effectively enabled Goebbels to dictate the nature of culture produced within Germany.

The Nazis considered much of the culture produced during the Weimar era to be ‘degenerate’ and were eager to replace it with forms of culture which promoted what they considered to be properly ‘Germanic’ values: austerity, militarism, obedience and sacrifice.

THE NAZIS AND MODERN MEDIA

The Nazi leadership as a whole and Goebbels in particular understood that modern forms of media such as radio and cinema were potentially powerful tools of propaganda. Goebbels went to great lengths to make sure that the Nazis exercised a high level of control over radio broadcasts within Germany. He made radio affordable to the majority of the population by ordering the mass production of cheap radio sets known as the ‘People’s Receiver’. Goebbels then ensured that Hitler was given extensive air time in order that his speeches became a feature of everyday life in Germany.

The Nazis also produced their own propaganda films which glorified the Nazi Party or attacked the nations and ethnic groups which the Nazis considered to be their enemies.
2.2: PROPAGANDA AND CULTURE ANALYSIS

HOW DID THE NAZIS USE PROPAGANDA TO PRESERVE THEIR DICTATORSHIP?

RADIO
- Goebbels ordered the production of the ‘People’s Receiver’ to ensure that a large percentage of the population had access to the radio. He then broadcast Nazi propaganda to the people through the National Radio Company.
- The Nazis attempted to prevent people from tuning in to foreign radio stations and in 1939, listening to a foreign radio station became a criminal offence which carried the death penalty.

FILM
- The Nazis realised that cinema had become a form of mass entertainment and commissioned large budget propaganda films for distribution in German cinemas.
- ‘Triumph of the Will’ is the best known example of a Nazi propaganda film. It was personally commissioned by Hitler and used innovative and dramatic cinematography to glorify the 1934 Nazi Party rally in Nuremberg.

NEWSPAPERS
- Goebbels closed down all newspapers which he considered to be anti-Nazi and imposed strict censorship on the content of those newspapers allowed to remain in print.
- The Nazis established their own newspapers such as ‘The People’s Observer’ and ‘The Stormer’. These newspapers were used to justify Nazi political policies and to attack elements of German society which the Nazis considered ‘undesirable’.

FESTIVALS AND PARADES
- The Nazis created a series of public holidays marking events which they considered to be important such as Hitler’s birthday and the anniversary of the Munich Putsch.
- These occasions were characterised by large and often spectacular parades which glorified the Nazi Party and promoted their ideology; attendance was frequently compulsory.
2.3: NAZI ECONOMIC POLICY
1933-1939

KEY FIGURES
- Herman Göring
- Hjalmar Schacht

KEY TERMS
- Autarky
2.3: NAZI ECONOMIC POLICY

THE EVENTS

HITLER’S ECONOMIC OBJECTIVES

When Hitler came to power in 1933, he had specific objectives for the German economy. During the election campaigns of 1930 and 1932, the Nazis had promised that they would provide the German people with ‘work and bread’. In order to fulfil that promise, Hitler needed to bring about a rapid reduction in the unemployment rate.

In addition to concerns over unemployment, Hitler knew that if he was to fulfil his plans to embark on wars against European nations, he first needed to fund a massive rearmament programme and also to bring about autarky so that Germany could not be defeated by blockade once war began.

SCHACHT’S NEW PLAN

Hitler initially entrusted the German economy to Hjalmar Schacht who was made President of the Reichsbank in 1933 and Minister of the Economy in 1934. Schacht devised what he called the ‘New Plan’, a series of measures intended to bring about the realisation of Hitler’s economic objectives. The New Plan supported public works programmes as a means of reducing unemployment, channelled government spending into the armaments industry and limited imports from foreign nations in the interests of autarky.

Although the New Plan was reasonably successful, in 1935 Hitler decided that he wanted to bring about rearmament at a faster rate than was possible through the New Plan. Hitler and Schacht quarrelled when Schacht insisted that Germany could not afford to rearm as rapidly as Hitler wished and in 1936, Hitler turned economic planning over to Herman Göring.

GORING’S FOUR YEAR PLAN

Hitler informed Göring that Germany had to be ready for war within a four year period. Göring’s response was the Four Year Plan, an economic strategy which retained several of Schacht’s initiatives but which also included measures intended to accelerate preparations for war. Göring ordered an increase in the production of raw materials such as coal, iron ore and oil. He persuaded German industry to focus on the production of key synthetic raw materials such as rubber, fuel and textiles and commissioned the building of huge state owned industrial plants dedicated to mining and metal works.

The Four Year Plan was successful in bringing about the rapid rearmament of Germany, but its success was bought at the price of the development of German agriculture and public services.
2.3: NAZI ECONOMIC POLICY ANALYSIS

WHAT WERE THE SUCCESSES AND FAILURES OF NAZI ECONOMIC POLICY BETWEEN 1933 and 1939?

REARMAMENT OF GERMANY

- Between 1933 and 1939, German military expenditure increased from 2 billion to 17 billion Reichmarks.
- By 1939, the German economy had financed the development of one of the most formidable and technologically advanced war machines in the world.

REDUCTION IN UNEMPLOYMENT

- Between 1933 and 1939, unemployment in Germany fell from 6.1 million to 0.4 million.
- Although the reduction in unemployment was assisted by a worldwide economic recovery, the introduction of conscription and discriminatory employment laws passed against Jews and women, much of the reduction was attributable to the initiatives of Nazi economic policy.

NO AUTARKY

- In 1939, Germany was still importing one third of its raw materials from foreign nations despite the fact that Nazi economic policy contained rigorous measures intended to bring about autarky.
- The only way that the Nazis could achieve self-sufficiency for Germany was to invade countries which could provide the raw materials and food Germany needed.

UNSUSTAINABLE EXPENDITURE

- From 1933 to 1939, the expenditure of the Nazi government was significantly more than its income; this resulted in the Nazis building a national debt of 40 billion Reichmarks.
- While Nazi economic policy had short-term success, this success was built on unsustainable expenditure which would have been ruinous for the German economy had Germany not gone to war in 1939.
2.4: CONTROL OF LABOUR
1933-1939

KEY FIGURES
- Robert Ley

KEY TERMS
- German Labour Front (DAF)
- National Labour Service (RAD)
- Strength Through Joy (KdF)
2.4: CONTROL OF LABOUR

THE EVENTS

THE NAZIS AND THE WORKING CLASS

Throughout the Weimar era, the Nazis had lacked the mass support of the German working-class. At its formation, the SPD had provided political representation for German trade unions and much of the working-class vote remained with the SPD until the effects of the Great Depression caused a surge in working-class support for the KPD. Both the SPD and the KPD were the long-term enemies of the Nazi Party and the Nazis understood that this made the working-class a source of potential resistance to their dictatorship. When Hitler came to power in 1933, one of his priorities was to find methods by which he could control the German working-class.

THE DAF

In May 1933, the SA carried out a violent raid on headquarters of the German trade union movement. In the aftermath of the raid, trade union leaders were arrested and imprisoned and the trade unions themselves were banned by law. Shortly after the suppression of the trade unions, the Nazis formed the DAF headed by Robert Ley. The mission of the DAF was supposedly to take over the role of the trade unions. Whilst the organization did bring about a general improvement in working conditions, it also monitored the activities of the German work force and spread Nazi propaganda in the industrial workplace.

In November 1933, Ley created a new organisation within the DAF: Strength Through Joy (KdF). This organisation was intended to encourage the workforce to spend their leisure time engaged in activities which the Nazis considered properly Germanic and to provide reward schemes to encourage hard work.

THE RAD

The Nazis wanted to create a ‘People’s Community’ in which the various elements of German society became united in service to the Nazi state. The Nazis understood that in order to achieve this goal, they would have to break down the divisions between social classes. In 1935, the Nazis created the RAD and made it compulsory for all men aged between 18 and 25 to complete six months within the service. Whilst in the RAD, men were employed in projects such as the construction of motorways and land reclamation.

The Nazis hoped that service within the RAD would help men of different social background to integrate and to accept Nazi ideology.
2.4: CONTROL OF LABOUR

ANALYSIS

DID THE NAZI REGIME IMPROVE THE LIVES OF THE GERMAN WORKING CLASS?

- BETTER WORKING CONDITIONS
  - Despite being primarily an instrument of social control, the DAF did protect the interests of industrial workers against factory owners.
  - The DAF made factory owners introduce measures to protect the health and safety of workers in factories and also ensured that factory owners provided their workers with hot meals during the daytime.

- HIGH LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT
  - It was the German working-class which benefitted most from the reduction in unemployment brought about by the Nazis between 1933 and 1939.
  - The implementation of the New Plan and the Four Year Plan meant that jobs for industrial workers became so plentiful that Germany experienced a labour shortage from 1936.

- LONG HOURS, LOW WAGES
  - Between 1933 and 1939, the average working week for industrial workers increased from 43 hours to 47 hours.
  - Between 1933 and 1938, increases in income for industrial workers were far lower than those obtained by farmers, white-collar workers (the middle-class) and business owners.

- STATE CONTROL
  - Many workers resented the high level of control which the Nazis exercised over their working lives and leisure time.
  - A high number of workers viewed the activities of the KdF as intrusive and scepticism toward the organization increased when the KdF failed to deliver many of the rewards promised to workers.
2.5: YOUTH AND EDUCATION
1933-1939

KEY FIGURES
- Bernhard Rust

KEY ORGANIZATIONS
- Hitler Youth (HJ)
- League of German Maidens (BDM)

KEY TERMS
- Indoctrination
2.5: YOUTH AND EDUCATION

THE EVENTS

THE NAZIS AND GERMAN YOUTH

The control of German youth, especially the male youth, was important to the Nazis for a combination of reasons. The Nazis understood that the German youth was the key to the continuation of the Nazi state and believed that if they could indoctrinate the German youth with their ideology, they would be able to create a ‘Nazi generation’ which accepted Nazi ideals and values without question. At the same time, Hitler anticipated that Germany would be involved in wars of conquest for several years and he wanted German boys to grow up in a militaristic environment so as to ensure that the German military had a constant supply of trained and disciplined personnel.

NAZI YOUTH MOVEMENTS

The HJ was formally established by the Nazi Party in 1926 but it remained a relatively small organisation until 1933 when its membership rapidly expanded to 2.3 million in the wake of Hitler’s rise to power. In 1936, the Nazis made membership of the HJ compulsory for all males aged between 10 and 18. The HJ was a paramilitary organisation and emphasis at meetings and in weekend camps was on fitness and the development of martial skills. Members were made to hike, participate in military style manoeuvres and were taught how to shoot.

The BDM was formed in 1930 as a female subdivision of the HJ. The BDM was intended to prepare young German females for the role which the Nazis wished women to occupy within the Nazi state and provided training in domestic skills and readiness for motherhood. In 1939, membership of the BDM became compulsory for all females aged between 14 and 18.

EDUCATION IN NAZI GERMANY

The Nazis realised that controlling the nature of education received by children was vital to their attempts to indoctrinate German youth. In 1934, Nazi Party member Bernhard Rust was appointed as Minister of Science and Education. Rust dismissed teachers who the Nazis considered ‘undesirable’ and set about revising the national curriculum of state secondary schools so that it incorporated elements of Nazi ideology, including Nazi beliefs on the natural superiority of the Germanic people. Rust also supervised the production of a range of text books for use in secondary schools; these books were little more than compilations of Nazi propaganda.

The Nazis established several ‘Adolf Hitler Schools’ throughout Germany. These schools accepted 12 year old boys who had been identified as potential future Nazi Party leaders and provided them with six years of intensive leadership training.
2.5: YOUTH AND EDUCATION

ANALYSIS

- HOW SUCCESSFUL WERE NAZI ATTEMPTS TO INDOCTRINATE GERMAN YOUTH?

**INCREASE IN PREJUDICE TOWARD GERMAN JEWS**

- There is substantial documentary evidence to suggest that from as early as 1934, German Jews experienced an increase in the prejudice directed toward them from non-Jewish German youth.
- Much of this prejudice was directed at German Jewish school children; systematic bullying of Jewish children caused many Jewish parents to withdraw their children from state schools well before the Nazis banned German Jewish children attending state schools in 1938.

**THE SS and the HOLOCAUST**

- By the time the Nazis occupied Poland in 1939 and began the genocide of European Jewry, many of the men and junior officers of the SS had practically grown up under the Nazi regime and hence been indoctrinated with Nazi ideology for several years.
- Several historians have suggested that the SS were only able to carry out the atrocities of the Holocaust because the moral sense of many of their members had been corrupted by Nazi indoctrination.

**YOUTH AND RESISTANCE**

- German youth was the source of the majority of the active resistance offered to the Nazi regime within Germany.
- Members of the Edelweiss Pirates, the Swing Kids and the White Rose Group had all experienced a Nazi education and in many cases had been members of Nazi youth groups, yet all firmly rejected the Nazi regime and its ideology.
2.6: WOMEN AND FAMILY
1933-1939

KEY FIGURES

- Gertrud Scholtz-Klink

KEY ORGANIZATIONS

- Fount of Life
- National Socialist Women’s League (NS-F)
2.6: WOMEN AND FAMILY

THE EVENTS

NAZI ATTITUDES TO WOMEN

The Weimar Republic had encouraged German society to develop a progressive attitude to the role of women in German society. Within the Republic, women had been given the right to vote, had been encouraged to attend university and were accepted into professions which had traditionally been considered the preserve of men such as law, medicine and engineering. The Nazis, however, had very traditionalist views on the role of women and as soon as Hitler came to power in 1933, the Nazi regime began to curtail many of the opportunities which the Republic had presented to females.

THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN NAZI GERMANY

The Nazis believed that men and women had different roles within society. A man’s role was that of worker and soldier whilst a woman’s place was in the home caring for her children and husband. The Nazis took various measures to ensure that women conformed to this role. In June 1933, the Nazis offered marriage loans of 1000 Reichmarks to couples in full employment on the condition that the woman gave up her job and made it available for a man. Over the following months, the Nazis ensured that women were pressurised out of employment in the professions and passed a law which limited the number of females at German universities to 10% of all students.

Women were also pressurised into ensuring that their appearance and behaviour complied with Nazi ideals. Women were encouraged to wear only plain and modest clothes and were discouraged from wearing cosmetics and from drinking and smoking. The Nazis presented Gertrud Scholtz-Klink, the head of the NS-F, as a role model for German women. Scholtz-Klink was married to an SS officer, had eight children and regularly made speeches to German women urging them to be obedient to their husbands.

THE IMPORTANCE OF MOTHERHOOD

For the Nazis, it was the duty of every German woman to produce children and the Nazi regime took extensive measures to encourage an increase in the birth rate. A massive propaganda campaign was launched to promote motherhood and the merits of large families. Substantial financial rewards as well as national awards were offered to couples who produced four or more children. The Nazis passed anti-abortion laws which imposed severe penalties on those carrying out abortion on women who were healthy ‘pure blood’ Germans. The Nazis also restricted the availability of contraception whilst the SS patronised the Fount of Life organisation which provided free financial and medical assistance to unmarried German mothers.
2.6: WOMEN AND FAMILY ANALYSIS

WHY DID THE NAZIS PROMOTE MOTHERHOOD TO GERMAN WOMEN?

FALLING BIRTHRATE
- Between 1900 and 1933, the annual birth rate in Germany dropped from two million to less than one million as increasing numbers of women chose to
- The Nazis realised that if the population of Germany continued to decline, they would face long-term difficulties in maintaining a workforce and increasing the size of the German military.

INCREASE OF THE GERMANIC RACE
- The Nazis planned to extend the boundaries of ‘Greater Germany’ as far east as Siberia and to force Jews, Slavs and Romany gypsies, all of whom the Nazis considered ‘subhuman’, to evacuate Eastern Europe.
- The Nazis wanted to increase the population of Germany so that they could repopulate the eastern sector of ‘Greater Germany’ with ‘pure blood’ Germans.

TRADITIONALIST ATTITUDES
- Although many of the plans the Nazis had for German society were revolutionary, the Nazis also placed great value on restoring the traditional social structure of Germany.
- Within Imperial Germany, the role of women had been that of *Kinder, Küche, Kirche* (‘Children, Kitchen, Church’); the Nazis viewed this as a properly Germanic role for women and wanted to defend it against feminism which they viewed as a product of communism.
2.7: NAZI EUGENICS
1933-1941

KEY Organizations
- Action T-4

KEY TERMS
- Eugenics
- Euthanasia
2.7: NAZI EUGENICS
THE EVENTS

‘THE MASTER RACE’

Defeat in World War I and the subsequent humbling of Germany by the Allies challenged the Nazi belief in the natural superiority of the Germanic race. The Nazis argued that the defeat and humiliation of Germany had been made possible by the Germanic race becoming ‘contaminated’ and weakened through biological and cultural integration with other ‘inferior’ races. The Nazis believed that if they were to make the German people ‘The Master Race’, they would first have to purge it of all weakness and imperfection.

‘USELESS EATERS’ AND ‘UNDESIRABLES’

In the Nazi view, ideal Germans were socially useful in that they contributed to the ‘People’s Community’ through work. Those who could not work through ill health, physical disability or mental illness were seen as contributing nothing to society and were viewed by the Nazis as a burden on society. The Nazis classified such people as ‘useless eaters’ and held them to be a product of the biological contamination of the Germanic race.

At the same time, the Nazis believed that certain forms of behaviour were un-Germanic and had been gradually introduced into German society by ‘alien’ cultures; alcoholism, vagrancy, criminality, prostitution and homosexuality were considered ‘morally degenerate’ by the Nazis and those who practiced such behaviour were branded as ‘undesirables’. The Nazis employed eugenics as a means of eliminating ‘useless eaters’ and ‘undesirables’ from German society.

ACTION T4

The most radical element of Nazi eugenics was Action T4, an involuntary euthanasia programme which began in August 1939. The first targets of Action T4 were children with severe physical and mental disabilities. Between August 1939 and 1941, over 5000 children were removed from state hospitals and taken to ‘paediatric clinics’ where they were killed, usually by lethal injection. In October 1939, Action T4 was extended to disabled adults kept within state care facilities. By 1940, the number of adults being eliminated under the auspices of Action T4 was so high that ‘special treatment’ centres were constructed throughout Germany and each was equipped with a gas chamber.

Action T4 was ended in August 1941 after it was exposed and condemned by the Catholic Bishop of Münster, Clemens von Galen.
2.7: NAZI EUGENICS

ANALYSIS

HOW DID NAZI EUGENICS DEVELOP BETWEEN 1933 and 1941?

PROPAGANDA
- Almost immediately after the Nazis came to power, they began a propaganda campaign intended to cause resentment towards ‘Useless Eaters’ and ‘Undesirables’.
- There is evidence to suggest that Hitler considered starting an involuntary euthanasia programme as early as 1933 but was concerned that public opinion may not have supported such measures; a propaganda campaign was therefore a vital measure in reconciling the German people to Nazi eugenics.

THE STERILISATION LAW
- In July 1933, the Nazis passed a Sterilisation Law which permitted them to carry out compulsory sterilisation of people with mental illness and hereditary diseases.
- In September 1933, the Nazis extended compulsory sterilisation to alcoholics, vagrants and habitual criminals.
- Between 1934 and 1941, approximately 320,000 people were compulsorily sterilised by the Nazi regime.

INTERNMENT OF ‘UNDISIRABLES’ IN CONCENTRATION CAMPS
- By 1936, homosexuals, the long-term unemployed, juvenile delinquents and prostitutes were being interred in concentration camps en masse.
- The Nazis primary intention in interring ‘undesirables’ within concentration camps was to inflict ‘corrective training’ upon them. However, camps such as Buchenwald operated under extremely brutal regimes and many inmates died or were murdered before completing their sentences.

ACTION T4
- After Germany went to war in 1939, the Nazi regime decided it was not willing to tolerate ‘Useless Eaters’ draining medical resources from the military and introduced involuntary euthanasia for those with severe physical and mental disabilities.
- Action T4 lasted from 1939 until 1941 and it is estimated that over 72,000 people were killed in the programme.
2.8: THE HOLOCAUST
1933-1945

KEY FIGURES
- Adolf Eichmann

KEY ORGANIZATIONS
- Einsatzgruppen
- Death’s Head SS (TV-SS)

KEY TERMS
- Genocide
- Holocaust
THE NAZIS AND ANTI-SEMITISM

Anti-semitism in Germany did not begin with the birth of the Nazi Party. For centuries, Jews living within Christian societies in central Europe had been widely regarded as outcasts and were subject to periodic persecution. The Nazis seized on these traditional prejudices to make European Jews a scapegoat for the political and social problems which affected post-war Germany. In Nazi ideology, Jews were presented as being envious of the superiority of the Germanic race and of plotting the destruction of Germany in league with communists.

When the Nazis came to power in 1933, they began to consider ways by which they could ‘cleanse’ German society of Jewish influence. Between 1933 and 1938, the Nazis implemented a range of anti-semitic policies intended to force Jews into leaving Germany.

1933-1935: YEARS OF PERSECUTION

In April 1933 the Nazis demanded a one-day boycott of Jewish shops and businesses. The boycott was enforced by the SA and was intended to signal to German Jews that they were not considered a part of Nazi Germany. 1934 saw the Nazis increase the distribution of anti-semitic propaganda and in September 1935, the Nazis passed anti-Jewish legislation known as ‘The Nuremburg Laws’. These laws consisted of: i) ‘The Law for the Protection of German Blood and Honour’ which banned marriages and sexual relations between German Jews and ‘pure blood’ Germans and ii) ‘The National Citizenship Law’ which stripped Jews of German citizenship. This latter measure essentially denied Jews the protection of the Bill of Rights written into the Weimar Constitution.

THE NIGHT OF BROKEN GLASS

April to October 1938 saw an intensification of Nazi persecution of the Jews who remained in Germany. Jews were required to register their property with the authorities in order to make it easier for the Nazis to confiscate Jewish owned assets. Jewish doctors, dentists and lawyers were forbidden to treat ‘pure blood’ Germans and all Jews were required to have a red letter ‘J’ stamped on their passports.

On the night of the 9th November 1938, the Nazis orchestrated violent attacks on synagogues, Jewish homes, shops and schools throughout Germany and Austria in an event which has since become known as Kristallnacht (‘The Night of Broken Glass’). At least 91 Jews were killed in Kristallnacht while over 30,000 were arrested and interred in concentration camps.
2.8: THE HOLOCAUST 1
ANALYSIS

HOW DID THE NAZIS TRY TO FORCE JEWS OUT OF GERMANY BETWEEN 1933 and 1938?

INCREASE OF ANTI-SEMITIC SENTIMENT
- Although there was anti-semitism in Germany before the Nazis came to power, German Jews were widely accepted as part of German society in the imperial and Weimar eras.
- The Nazis tried to increase anti-semitic sentiment in Germany through use of propaganda and corruption of the national curriculum in schools.
- The basic message of the anti-semitic propaganda produced by the Nazis was that Jews were not part of German society and should not be accepted as such.

ENFORCED SEGREGATION
- The 1935 ‘Law for the Protection of German Blood and Honour’ was the most deliberate attempt made by the Nazis to forcibly segregate Jews from the rest of German society.
- In April 1933, the Nazis passed laws restricting the number of Jewish students in German schools and universities.
- The Nazis prevented Jewish doctors, lawyers and dentists from having non-Jewish clients.

DENIAL OF LIVELIHOOD
- The Nazis attempted to prevent German Jews from earning a living by pressurizing non-Jewish Germans into boycotting Jewish owned shops and businesses and making it difficult for business owners to employ Jews.
- The Nazis confiscated the property and savings of German Jews and placed strict controls on how much money Jews could hold in bank accounts.

DENIAL OF LEGAL PROTECTION
- Without legal protection, Jews had little defence against the range of discriminatory measures taken against them by the Nazis.
GERMANY 1918 - 1945

2.8: THE HOLOCAUST 2
THE EVENTS

‘THE JEWISH PROBLEM’

German conquests of 1939 to 1942 brought most of the Jews of Europe under the control of the Nazi regime. The vast majority of European Jewry was located in Eastern Europe, an area which the Nazis had long aspired to make part of a ‘Greater Germany’. The Nazis had intended to ‘cleanse’ Eastern Europe of its Jewish population through forced emigration but with over 3 million Jews living in Poland and a further 2.5 million living in the European sector of Russia, the Nazis were forced to accept that they would not be able to displace such a large number of people. The issue of how to rid Eastern Europe of its Jewish population was referred to by the Nazi leadership as ‘the Jewish problem’.

EINSATZGRUPPEN AND GHETTOS

The Nazi mass murder of European Jews began in 1939 when the Einsatzgruppen followed the German army into Poland and systematically murdered entire Jewish communities. After April 1941, the activities of the Einsatzgruppen were extended into Russia and it is estimated that between 1939 and 1943, the Einsatzgruppen murdered over half a million people.

At the same time as the Einsatzgruppen began conducting their campaign of mass murder, the Nazis forced Jews from Poland, Czechoslovakia and Austria into ghettos established within major cities of Eastern Europe. These Jewish ghettos were little more than large scale prison camps characterised by overcrowding, famine and unsanitary conditions. Between 1939 and 1942, thousands of Jews living within ghettos died of disease and malnutrition.

‘THE FINAL SOLUTION’

In July 1941, Herman Göring issued Reinhard Heydrich with a written order to devise a ‘final solution’ to ‘the Jewish problem’. In January 1942, Heydrich hosted the Wannsee Conference in which he announced to senior Nazi administrators that the Jewish population of Nazi controlled Europe was to be deported to specially constructed death camps within Eastern Europe and exterminated.

Deportations to the death camps began in spring 1942 under the supervision of Adolf Eichmann. Between 1942 and 1945, death camps at Auschwitz, Treblinka, Belzec, Sobibor, Chelmno and Majdanek claimed the lives of approximately 3 million Jews. It is estimated that a total of 5.75 million Jews were murdered by the Nazi regime between 1939 and 1945.
2.8: THE HOLOCAUST 2

ANALYSIS

HOW WAS THE HOLOCAUST ABLE TO TAKE PLACE?

THE ROLE OF HITLER AND THE NAZI LEADERSHIP
- Hitler’s personal role in the Holocaust remains a subject of intense controversy as some historians maintain that Hitler did not fully understand the reality of the death camps.
- Whatever Hitler’s role in ‘The Final Solution’, he was undoubtedly responsible for encouraging the anti-semitic element of Nazi ideology; it was this anti-semitism which led to the Holocaust.
- There is substantial documentary evidence to demonstrate that other senior Nazi leaders, particularly Himmler and Göring, gave direct orders for the genocide of European Jewry.

THE ROLE OF THE SS
- The officers and men of the SS were the primary architects and executioners of the Holocaust.
- The leadership of the SS, particularly Heydrich and Eichmann, was responsible for the overall planning of ‘The Final Solution’.
- The various units of the SS carried out the genocide of European Jewry: the Einstazgruppen were under the command of the SS, the RSHA was responsible for the deportation of Jews to death camps while the camp were staffed by ‘The Death’s Head SS’.

THE ROLE OF GERMAN INSTITUTIONS AND INDUSTRY
- The implementation of ‘The Final Solution’ depended on the Nazi regime receiving the co-operation of German institutions and private industry.
- From the Transport Ministry arranging trains for the deportation of Jews to German construction companies building death camp crematoria, this co-operation was freely given.
- The role which German institutions and industry played in the Holocaust was to some extent the result the Nazi repression of German society and the distribution of anti-semitic propaganda.

THE ROLE OF EUROPEAN GOVERNMENTS
- The ‘The Final Solution’ could not have been carried out without the co-operation of the governments of nations conquered by or allied to Nazi Germany.
- The governments of nearly all European states under Nazi influence assisted the Nazi regime in deporting Jews to death camps.
- The role which European governments played in the Holocaust was largely the result of the Nazi practice of appointing the leaders of regional right-wing political parties as puppet state leaders.
2.9: RESISTANCE
1933-1945

KEY FIGURES
- Dietrich Bonhoeffer
- Clemens von Galen
- Hans Scholl
- Sophie Scholl

KEY ORGANIZATIONS
- Confessional Church
- Edelweiss Pirates
- Swing Kids
- White Rose Group
2.9: RESISTANCE
THE EVENTS

SOURCES OF ACTIVE RESISTANCE

While the scale and effectiveness of the Nazi police state made active resistance to the Nazis both difficult and dangerous, the Nazi regime did encounter some open resistance from German institutions and society. The youth of Germany and church leaders, both Catholic and Protestant, provided the most significant open opposition to the Nazi dictatorship.

THE GERMAN YOUTH

The German youth presented both cultural and political resistance to the Nazi regime. In the late 1930s, youths in western Germany formed themselves into various groups which collectively became known as ‘The Edelweiss Pirates’. The majority of the members of The Edelweiss Pirates were working-class males aged between 14 and 18 who rebelled against the requirement to join the Hitler Youth and harassed Hitler Youth patrols.

The ‘Swing Kids’ originated in northern Germany during the mid 1930s and were mostly middle-class High School students who rejected Nazi attempts to direct German youth into an appreciation of ‘Germanic’ culture. The Swing Kids were lovers of American jazz music and showed their rejection of Nazi cultural values by dressing in British and American fashions.

‘The White Rose Group’ was an organisation established by a number of students at the University of Munich and led by Hans and Sophie Scholl. Between 1942 and 1943, the White Rose wrote and distributed leaflets criticising the Nazi regime and calling for an increase in open opposition to the dictatorship. The Scholls were arrested by the Gestapo in February 1943 and were executed for treason.

THE CHURCHES

While the Christian churches offered little collective resistance to the Nazi regime, some individual church leaders openly defied the Nazi policies. In 1934, several Protestant pastors including Dietrich Bonhoeffer formed the Confessional Church which resisted the Nazification of Christianity within Germany. During the Holocaust, the Confessional Church assisted Jews in escaping from the Nazis. Bonhoeffer was arrested in 1943 and executed in April 1945.

In 1941, Clemens von Galen, the Catholic Bishop of Münster, delivered a series of sermons in which he condemned the activities of the Gestapo, the programme of compulsory sterilisation and exposed the reality of Action T4. The Nazis considered murdering Galen but were prevented from doing so by fear of a backlash within the Catholic German states.
2.9: RESISTANCE ANALYSIS

WHAT FORMS OF RESISTANCE DID THE NAZIS ENCOUNTER WITHIN GERMANY BETWEEN 1933 and 1945?

ATTEMPTED REVOLT
- The power of the SS within Nazi Germany meant that only the German military had the capability to depose the Nazi regime by armed revolt yet for the first ten years of the Nazi dictatorship, the military remained loyal to Hitler.
- When it became apparent to the German High Command that Germany could not win World War II, elements of the German military turned against Hitler and between 1943 and 1944 military commanders devised several unsuccessful attempts to assassinate Hitler.

ACTIVE RESISTANCE
- Active resistance to the Nazi regime was very limited as perpetrators risked imprisonment, torture and execution.
- The Edelweiss Pirates and the Swing Kids offered open cultural resistance to the Nazi regime but the Nazis generally regarded these groups as a nuisance rather than a threat.
- Open criticism of the Nazi regime came from individual church leaders and the White Rose Group; the Nazis regarded this criticism as a serious threat to their dictatorship.

PASSIVE RESISTANCE
- Passive resistance to the Nazi regime was fairly common place amongst the people of Germany and consisted of gestures such as refusing to give the ‘Heil Hitler’ salute, refusing to pay contributions to Nazi Party funds and listening to foreign radio stations.
- The Nazis understood that it was not possible for them to fully eradicate passive resistance but they attempted to deter it by occasionally imprisoning or even executing people ‘guilty’ of minor gestures of defiance.

PRIVATE DISSENT
- Even in the final years of the Weimar era, the Nazis had never gained the support of the majority of the German people and resentment toward the Nazi regime increased as the dictatorship became more authoritarian.
- Whilst few Germans were willing to risk the penalties of resisting the Nazi regime, many were willing to be critical of Nazi policies whilst in the company of friends and family.
APPENDICES
APPENDIX 1: THE POLITICAL SPECTRUM OF THE REICHSTAG 1919-1933

**LEFT-WING**

- **COMMUNIST PARTY OF GERMANY (KPD)**
  - Anti-Republic
  - Working-class support

- **SOCIAL DEMOCRATIC PARTY (SPD)**
  - Pro-Republic
  - Mostly working-class support

- **Catholic CENTRE party (Z)**
  - Pro-Republic
  - Support from Catholics of all social classes

- **GERMAN DEMOCRATIC PARTY (DDP)**
  - Pro-Republic
  - Middle-class support

- **GERMAN PEOPLE’S PARTY (DVP)**
  - Pro-Republic
  - Middle-class support, mostly businessmen

- **GERMAN NATIONAL PEOPLEs’ PARTY (DNVP)**
  - Anti-Republic
  - Middle-class support plus aristocracy and officer corps.

**RIGHT-WING**

- **NATIONAL SOCIALIST GERMAN WORKERS’ PARTY (NSDAP)**
  - Anti-Republic
  - Ultra-nationalist support plus middle-class.
APPENDIX 2: THE WEIMAR CONSTITUTION

THE PRESIDENT
Elected every seven years

THE CHANCELLOR
Appointed from the Reichstag by the President

THE REICHSTAG
Seats allocated by Proportional Representation

THE GERMAN PEOPLE
Elected the Reichstag and President

Article 48
Allowed President to rule by decree in a national emergency
APPENDIX 3: THE TERMS OF THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES

**ECONOMIC PENALTIES**
- Germany was held responsible for starting World War I and was therefore held responsible for all the war damage caused to the Allied nations.
- Germany was forced to pay reparations to France and Belgium to pay for the restoration of the infrastructure of both countries.
- Payment could be in raw materials, industrial goods or cash.
- In 1921 the total sum of reparations was eventually set at to £6.6 billion.

**TERRITORIAL LOSSES**
- All of Germany’s overseas colonies were confiscated and placed under the control of the League of Nations.
- 13% of German territory in continental Europe was taken away from Germany and awarded to neighbouring states.

**MILITARY RESTRICTIONS**
- The German army was restricted to 100,000 men and was not allowed to have possession of tanks or heavy artillery.
- The German navy was restricted to six battleships and was not allowed to have possession of submarines.
- Germany was not allowed to develop an airforce and had to destroy its existing war planes.

**WAR GUILT CLAUSE**
- Germany had to consent to Article 231 which stated that Germany was entirely to blame for World War I.
APPENDIX 4: IDEOLOGY AND POLICIES OF THE NAZI PARTY IN 1921

DESTRUCTION OF DEMOCRACY WITHIN GERMANY
- They Nazis argued that democracy produces weak government and wanted to bring about the destruction of democracy within Germany.
- The Nazis believed that the German people needed to be led by a single, strong leader.

REJECTION OF THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES
- The Nazis believed that Germany should have refused to comply with the terms of the Treaty of Versailles.
- The Nazis argued for an immediate stop to reparations payments, the rearmament of Germany and the recapture of European territory taken from Germany under the terms of the treaty.

UNITY OF THE GERMANIC PEOPLE
- The Nazis wanted to bring about the unity of all Germanic peoples within Europe.
- The Nazis believed that a unified Germanic people should acquire sufficient Lebensraum ‘Living Space’ by expanding the borders of Germany deep into Eastern Europe.

SUPERIORITY OF THE GERMANIC PEOPLE
- The Nazis believed that ‘Germanic’ people were naturally superior to other races.
- This belief led the Nazis to view the Jewish population of Germany as being racially and culturally inferior to ‘true’ Germans and to argue that Jews should be expelled from German society.

DESTRUCTION OF WORLD COMMUNISM
- The Nazis viewed communism as being ‘un-German’.
- The Nazis argued that communism was the politics of the weak and called for the destruction of world communism.
GLOSSARY

KEY ORGANIZATIONS
Action T4 / Aktion T4
Nazi involuntary euthanasia programme which ran from August 1939 to August 1941. The programme was administered and run by a collection of Nazi doctors, bureaucrats and SS personnel and took its name from the post code of the group’s Berlin headquarters: Tiergartenstrasse 4.

The Camarilla / Kamarilla
The group of advisers which surrounded Paul von Hindenburg during his terms as President of the Weimar Republic. The principal members of the Camarilla were Oscar von Hindenburg (Hindenburg’s son), Franz von Papen, Kurt von Schleicher and Otto Meissner (Hindenburg’s personal assistant).

Confessional Church / Bekennende Kirche
Protestant movement formed in 1934 by prominent pastors who wished to resist Nazi attempts to make the churches an instrument of Nazi propaganda and politics.

Council of People’s Representatives / Rat der Volksbeauftragten
Emergency government which presided over Germany from November 1918 until February 1919. The main achievements of the Council were Germany’s surrender to the Allies on 11th of November 1918, the suppression of the Spartacist Revolt in January 1919 and the holding of elections for the National Assembly on 19th January 1919.

Death’s Head SS (SS-TV) / SS-Totenkopfverbände
Division of the SS formed in 1936. The SS-TV was responsible for administering concentration camps and death camps within Germany and Nazi occupied Europe.

Edelweiss Pirates / Edelweißpiraten
Anti-Nazi German youth movement formed in the Rhineland and Ruhr in the late 1930s. Members of the movement were mostly 14 to 18 year old working-class males who had belonged to the German Youth Movement before it was banned by the Nazis.

Einsatzgruppen
SS controlled paramilitary death squads formed in 1938. The Einsatzgruppen were responsible for the immediate ‘ethnic cleansing’ of areas of Eastern Europe under Nazi control.

Fount of Life / Lebensborn
SS controlled organization established by Heinrich Himmler in 1935. The Fount of Life provided maternity homes and financial assistance to the wives of SS members and to unmarried German mothers, and also ran relocation programmes for ‘pure blood’ Germanic orphans.

Free Corps / Freikorps
Private paramilitary groups that first appeared in Germany in December 1918. The Free Corps were mostly composed of ex-soldiers and unemployed youth and were led by ex-officers and other former military personnel. Most were nationalistic and radically conservative and were employed by the Weimar government to suppress left-wing revolts in Berlin, Bremen, Brunswick, Hamburg, Halle, Leipzig, Silesia, Thuringia, and the Ruhr.

German Labour Front (DAF) / Deutsche Arbeitsfront
A Nazi labour organization established in 1933 to replace the independent trade unions suppressed by the Nazi regime. The DAF was supposed to protect the rights of workers against big business but in practice it was the means by which the Nazis monitored and controlled the activities of the German workforce.

Hitler Youth (HJ) / Hitlerjugend
Major Nazi paramilitary youth movement established in 1926. The Nazis intended the HJ to be the means by which they trained and educated young German males in Nazi ideals. In 1936, membership of the HJ became compulsory for all males aged 10-18.
League of German Maidens (BDM) / Bunde Deutscher Mädel
Female branch of the HJ formed in 1930. The Nazis intended the BDM to be the means by which young German girls were made to accept a life of motherhood, domesticity and subservience to males. In 1939, membership of the BDM became compulsory for all females aged 14-18.

League of Nations
International organization dedicated to achieving world peace and formed in 1919 under the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. The refusal of the USA to join the League of Nations meant that the organization lacked credibility from the outset. The League's failure to act against the rise of fascism in Europe during the 1930s combined with its inability to prevent the outbreak of World War II meant that it was all but defunct as an organization by 1939. The League of Nations was officially dissolved in 1946 and replaced by the United Nations.

National Assembly / Nationalversammlung
Temporary parliament which governed Germany from February 1919 to June 1920. The National Assembly drew up the Constitution which defined the Republic from 1919 to 1933 and technically remained in effect during the Nazi dictatorship.

Due to continued street violence in Berlin, the National Assembly first convened in the town of Weimar. It is for this reason that historians refer to Germany between 1919 and 1933 as 'The Weimar Republic', but it was not known as such at the time. The official name of Germany during this period was 'The German Empire', the title by which it had been known during the rule of the Kaisers.

National Labour Service (RAD) / Reichsarbeitsdienst
Nazi state paramilitary labour service formed in 1935. The RAD served several functions for the Nazis: i) it was a source of cheap labour for state construction projects, ii) it helped keep unemployment in Germany under control and iii) it provided a means by which the Nazis could force young men of different social classes and backgrounds to integrate. All men aged 18-25 were eligible for six months compulsory service in the RAD and were paid only a small allowance in exchange for their labour.

National Main Security Office (SS-RSHA) / SS-Reichssicherheitshauptamt
Division of the SS formed in 1939. The RSHA was commanded by Reinhard Heydrich between 1939 and 1942 and was responsible for security and intelligence gathering within Germany and Nazi occupied Europe. The work of all German security agencies was co-ordinated by the RSHA.

National Ministry of Propaganda / Reichpropagandaministerium
Nazi government ministry founded in 1933 by Joseph Goebbels. The Ministry of Propaganda was responsible for enforcing Nazi ideology in German society and controlling the nature of culture within Germany.

National Socialist German Workers’ Party (NSDAP) / Nationalsozialistische Deutsche Arbeiterpartei
Ultra-nationalist German political party formed as the German Worker’s Party (DWP) in 1919 and led by Adolf Hitler from 1920 to 1945. The Nazi Party presided over a dictatorship in Germany from 1933 to until Germany’s defeat in World War II in 1945. After the end of World War II, the Allies carried out the ‘de-Nazification’ of Germany in which the Nazi Party was outlawed, all of its institutions dissolved and the majority of its surviving leaders executed or imprisoned. By 1946, the Nazi Party had been eradicated as a political force.

National Socialist Women’s League (NS-F) / Nationalsozialistische Frauenschaft
Women’s organization with the Nazi Party formed in 1931. Although membership of the NS-F reached 2 million by 1938, the organization was little more than a token gesture toward female members of the Nazi Party. The NS-F served to reinforce Nazi views on the position of women in German society by offering its members courses in home economics, childcare and nursing.

Reichstag
The parliament of Imperial Germany and the Weimar Republic. Although the Reichstag technically continued to exist throughout the Nazi dictatorship, the Reichstag effectively became redundant after the Enabling Act of 1933.

From 1894 until 1933, the Reichstag convened within the Reichstag Building. The Reichstag Building is sometimes also referred to simply as ‘the Reichstag’, as in ‘the Reichstag Fire’.
**Schutzstaffel (SS)**

Major Nazi paramilitary organization formed in 1925 and commanded by Heinrich Himmler between 1929 and 1945. The SS originated as a small unit within the SA responsible for the personal protection of Nazi Party leaders including Adolf Hitler. Under the leadership of Himmler, the SS became a huge and multifaceted organization which was the cornerstone of the Nazi police state and the driving force behind the Holocaust.

*Schutzstaffel* translates literally as ‘Protection Squad’ and describes the duties of the SS at their formation. As the term does not reflect the extensive role of the SS within the Nazi dictatorship post-1934, it is rarely used and the organization is almost always referred to simply by its acronym.

**Secret State Police (Gestapo) / Geheime Staatspolizei**

Nazi political police force formed in 1933 by Herman Göring. The activities of the Gestapo were originally restricted to Prussia. Heinrich Himmler assumed command of the organization in 1934 and Himmler made the Gestapo a national security agency in 1936. The mission of the Gestapo was to monitor the activities of the German population as a whole and to identify and eliminate ‘enemies of the state’. The Gestapo established a reputation for efficiency and ruthlessness and rapidly became the most feared security agency within Germany.

**Social Democratic Party (SPD) / Sozialdemokratische Partei Deutschlands**

Socialist political party formed in 1875 to provide political representation for the German working class. The SPD experienced a split in 1917 when a radical pro-revolutionary faction opposed Germany’s continued involvement in World War I. These radicals either left or were expelled from the majority SPD and formed breakaway parties including the Spartacus League and the Independent Social Democratic Party (USPD). Leading members of the SPD made up the Council of People’s Representatives and occupied key positions in the first government of the Weimar Republic. The SPD were unable to establish majority control of the Reichstag during the Weimar era but remained influential in Weimar politics until they were suppressed by the Nazi regime in 1933. The party re-formed in 1945 and is one of the two largest political parties in modern day Germany.

**Spartacus League / Spartakusbund and Communist Party of Germany (KPD) / Kommunistische Partei Deutschlands**

The Spartacus League was a pro-revolutionary socialist organization formed by Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg in 1916. The League was originally dedicated to undermining support for Germany’s continued involvement in World War I but became increasingly involved in revolutionary activities. The League opposed the authority of the Council of People’s Representatives which it regarded as a conservative obstacle to working-class revolution within Germany. The League was absorbed into the KPD in December 1918 but still gave its name to the abortive ‘Spartacist Revolt’ of January 1918. The KPD remained a minor political party throughout the Weimar era until the effects of the Great Depression brought it large scale support from the German working class. The KP was comprehensively suppressed by the Nazi regime in 1933.

**Stormtroopers (SA) / Sturmabteilung**

Major Nazi paramilitary organization formed in 1921. The SA were originally made up mostly of ex-members of nationalist Free Corps units and their primary role during the Weimar era was the intimidation of the political opponents of the Nazi Party. Once the Nazis had gained political power over Germany, the SA effectively became redundant. The ill-discipline of the SA together the open homosexuality of an element of its leadership made the organization an embarrassment to the Nazi Party post-1933. Relations between the leadership of the SA and senior Nazi Party members worsened after SA Chief of Staff Ernst Röhm antagonised the German High Command by demanding the army be placed under the command of the SA. The senior leadership of the SA was assassinated by the SS in 1934 and after this event, the activities of the SA were largely limited to ceremonial duties.

**Strength Through Joy (KdF) / Kraft durch Freude**

Subdivision of the DAF formed in 1933. At face-value, the KdF was supposed to organize leisure activities for the German workforce as well as provide reward schemes as an incentive for hard work. In practice, the KdF attempted to force the workforce into an appreciation of Nazi culture and ideals whilst diverting financial ‘contributions’ collected from the workforce into Germany’s rearmament programme or the pockets of its own leadership.
Swing Kids / Swingjugend
Anti-Nazi youth movement formed in Hamburg and Berlin during the 1930s. Members of the Swing Kids were predominantly middle class and aged 14-18. The Swing Kids appreciated the swing and jazz music produced by American musicians and rejected Nazi attempts to force German youth into an appreciation of ‘Germanic’ culture. Swing Kids showed their opposition to Nazi values by organising swing dances and wearing American and British fashions. The Nazi disapproval of the Swing Kids was increased by the fact that during the 1930s and 1940s, the majority of swing and jazz musicians were black. The Nazis therefore regarded this genre of music as ‘degenerate’ and the product of an ‘inferior’ race.

Weimar Coalition / Weimarer Koalition
A political alliance comprised of the SPD, DDP and Centre Party which together held the majority of seats in the National Assembly and drew up the Weimar Constitution. The members of Philipp Scheidemann’s cabinet which governed Germany between February 1919 and June 1919 were drawn from the parties of the Weimar Coalition. The signing of the Treaty of Versailles cost the coalition the general support of the German people and, in the elections of June 1920, the coalition lost majority control of the Reichstag.

The White Rose / Die Weiße Rose
Resistance group in Nazi Germany formed in 1942 by students at the University of Munich. The members of the White Rose wrote and circulated leaflets criticising the Nazi regime and urging the German people to actively resist the Nazi dictatorship. The Nazis regarded the work of the White Rose group as a particular threat because their leaflets contained information on the heavy defeats Germany had suffered on the Eastern Front and the mass murder of Jews in Poland. The Nazis had gone to great lengths to keep this information from the German people, fearing that the news would lead to civil disorder. The leaders of the White Rose were arrested in February 1943 and given show trials in the ‘People’s Court’. Brother and sister Hans and Sophie Scholl were executed for treason as was fellow White Rose member Christoph Probst.
Glossary

Key Figures
Bonhoeffer, Dietrich (1906-1945)
Protestant pastor and co-founder of the Confessional Church. Bonhoeffer was a persistent and outspoken critic of the Nazi regime who in 1943 also became involved in a plot made by elements of the German military to assassinate Adolf Hitler. Bonhoeffer was arrested in April 1943 and spent two years in a military prison and concentration camps before he was executed in 1945, shortly before the collapse of the Nazi regime.

Clemenceau, Georges (1841-1929)
French Prime Minister (1906-1909; 1917-1920) and representative of France at the Paris Peace Conference.

Ebert, Friedrich (1871-1925)
German politician of the SPD, Chairman of the SPD (1913-1919), Chancellor of Germany (1918), leader of the Council of People’s Representatives (1918-1919) and first President of the Republic (1919-1925). During his time as president, Ebert was hated by extremists on both the left and right wing for the actions he took as leader of the Council of People’s Representatives. The left-wing never forgave Ebert for ordering the suppression of the Spartacist Revolt and branded him a ‘traitor to the working-class’. The right-wing were suspicious of Ebert’s socialist roots and considered him a ‘traitor to Germany’ for ordering the surrender to the Allies in November 1918.

Eichmann, Adolf (1906-1962)
SS lieutenant-colonel considered by many to be the principal ‘architect of the Holocaust’. Eichmann escaped capture by the Allies at the end of World War II and fled to Argentina where he lived under an assumed identity. In 1960, Eichmann was identified by the Israeli Secret Service who kidnapped him from Argentina and took him to Israel for trial. The Israeli government charged Eichmann with crimes against humanity and the Jewish people. He was found guilty and executed in 1962.

Galen, Clemens August Graf von (1878-1946)
Catholic Bishop of Münster and outspoken critic of the Nazi regime. Galen had openly opposed the Nazi regime from as early as 1934 but in 1941 he delivered a series of sermons in which he condemned the activities of the Gestapo, the Nazi programme of compulsory sterilisation and exposed the reality of Action T4, a programme which the Nazis had attempted to keep secret from the German people.

Goebbels, Joseph (1897-1945)
Senior Nazi Party member and Minister of Propaganda (1933 to 1945). Goebbels joined the Nazi Party in 1924 and quickly rose through the ranks on account of his intelligence and fanatical devotion to the Nazi cause. Goebbels proved himself to be an outstanding propagandist during the Nazi election campaigns of 1930 and 1932 and was appointed Minister of Propaganda soon after Hitler came to power. Goebbels was one of the few senior Nazis who remained with Hitler in the Führerbunker in the final days of World War II. He committed suicide on 1st May 1945.

Göring, Herman (1893-1946)
Senior Nazi Party member, Head of the SA (1923), Interior Minister of Prussia (1933-1945), Minister of Aviation (1933-1945). Göring joined the Nazi Party in 1922. He participated in the Munich Putsch of November 1923 and received severe gunshot wounds in the confrontation between the SA and Bavarian police units. Göring was one of only two Nazi Party members appointed to Hitler’s cabinet of January 1933. Throughout the Nazi dictatorship, Hitler entrusted Göring with a number of important roles including the rearmament of Germany and the resolution of ‘The Jewish Question’. Göring surrendered to American forces in April 1945 and was charged with crimes against humanity at the Nuremberg War Trials. Göring was found guilty and sentenced to death but committed suicide on 15th October 1946.

Heydrich, Reinhard (1904-1942)
SS general, Head of the RSHA (1939-1942), Deputy Protector of Bohemia and Moravia (1941-1942). Heydrich was recruited into the SS in 1931 by Heinrich Himmler and quickly became Himmler’s deputy on account of his natural abilities as a counter-intelligence officer and excellent organisational skills. Heydrich was appointed Head of the RSHA in 1939 and in 1941 was ordered by Herman Göring to draw up concrete plans for ‘The Final Solution’. On 27th May 1942, Heydrich was ambushed in Prague by members of the Czech Resistance. He died a week later from the injuries he sustained in the attack.
Himmler, Heydrich (1900-1945)
Senior Nazi Party member and National Leader of the SS (1929-1945). Himmler participated in the Munich Putsch of 1923 as a member of the SA under the command of Ernst Röhm. He joined the SS in 1925 and was appointed National Leader of the SS in 1929. In 1934, Himmler was instrumental in convincing Hitler that the leadership of the SA should be assassinated and he co-ordinated Night of the Long Knives with his deputy Reinhard Heydrich. After 1934, Himmler built the SS up into a massive security organisation which had jurisdiction over many elements of Nazi policy, including ‘The Final Solution’. Himmler was captured by British forces on the 22nd May 1945 and committed suicide the following day.

Hindenburg, Paul von (1847-1934)
Chief of the German General Staff (1916-1919) and second President of the Republic (1925-1934). A long army career had made Hindenburg a national hero before the outbreak of World War I and his status amongst the German people was increased when forces under his command won a series of decisive victories against the Russians between 1914 and 1916. Hindenburg retired from the army after World War I but friends convinced him to abandon his retirement and run for president in the elections of 1925. As President of the Republic, Hindenburg was dutiful to the constitution but had little understanding of politics. Hindenburg’s political inabilities made him increasingly dependent on the advice of the Camarilla. The scheming of the Camarilla, particularly of Schleicher and Papen, was a significant factor in Hitler’s gaining political power in 1933.

Hitler, Adolf (1889-1945)
Leader of the Nazi Party (1920-1945), Chancellor of Germany (1933-1945), Führer of Germany (1934-1945). After serving as a soldier in the Imperial German Army during World War I, Hitler joined the German Worker’s Party (DWP) in 1919 and quickly established himself as a key member. Hitler displaced the leadership of the DWP in 1920 and transformed the party into the NSDAP. After the failed Munich Putsch of 1923 and imprisonment in 1924, Hitler worked tirelessly to turn the Nazi Party into a major political force in Germany. After becoming Führer of Germany in 1934, Hitler employed an increasingly erratic style of rule in which he would merely convey his wishes and opinions to the Nazi leadership, leaving senior Nazi Party members to translate his thoughts into concrete policy. Hitler’s decision to invade communist Russia in 1941 proved disastrous and ultimately led to the destruction of Nazi Germany. On April 30th 1945, with Berlin captured by Russian forces, Hitler committed suicide in the Führerbunker.

Ley, Robert (1890-1945)
Nazi Party member and Head of the DAF (1933-1945). Ley joined the Nazi Party in 1924 and was made Head of the DAF at its formation in 1933. Ley was notorious for his extravagant lifestyle, most of which was funded by money which he stole from the DAF. Ley was captured by the Allies in 1945 and committed suicide while waiting to appear at the Nuremburg War Trials.

Liebknecht, Karl (1871-1919)
Co-founder of the Spartacus League (1916), co-founder of the KPD (1918). Liebknecht was amongst the radical socialists expelled from the SPD in 1916. On being expelled, he co-founded the Spartacus League and in May 1916 he received a two year prison sentence for leading a protest against the Kaiser and Germany’s involvement in World War I. After the November Revolution, Liebknecht attempted to rouse the working-class into revolt against the Council of People’s Representatives. His efforts led to the Spartacist Revolt of January 1919 in which he was captured and executed by the Free Corps.

Lloyd-George, David (1863-1945)
Prime Minister of Great Britain (1916-1922) and Britain’s representative at the Paris Peace Conference.

Luxemburg, Rosa (1871-1919)
Co-founder of the Spartacus League (1916), co-founder of the KPD (1918). Luxemburg was amongst the radical socialists expelled from the SPD in 1916. On being expelled, she co-founded the Spartacus League. In the aftermath of the November Revolution, Luxemburg understood that there was little popular support for a communist regime in Germany and tried to deter the German left-wing from attempting to seize power by armed revolt. Luxemburg participated in the Spartacist Revolt of January 1919, despite her having serious doubts as to the chance of its success. She was captured and executed by the Free Corps following the failure of the revolt.
Papen, Franz von (1879-1969)
German politician of the Centre Party, Chancellor of Germany (1932), Vice-Chancellor of Germany (1933-1934). Papen’s belief that he could exploit Hitler and the Nazi Party as a means of furthering his own political career assisted Hitler in gaining political power in Germany. Papen finally came to understand the reality of the Nazi regime when the SS assassinated several of his associates in the wake of Night of the Long Knives. Fearing for his life, Papen resigned as Vice-Chancellor in August 1934 and became a diplomat for the Nazi regime. Between 1934 and 1944, Papen served as a German ambassador, first to Austria then to Turkey. Papen was charged with crimes against peace at the Nuremburg War Trials but was eventually acquitted of all charges.

Röhm, Ernst (1887-1934)
Nazi Party member and Head of the SA (1931-1934). Röhm was effectively leader of the SA at the time of the Munich Putsch in 1923 but left Germany in 1925 to work for the Bolivian army. In January 1931, at the personal request of Hitler, Röhm returned to Germany to take command of the SA once more. After Hitler became Chancellor in 1933, Röhm became increasingly discontented with the Nazi Party. Röhm’s arrogance, open homosexuality and antagonising of the German High Command alienated him from other senior Nazis and in 1934 Hitler gave Göring and Himmler permission to eliminate the leadership of the SA. Röhm was arrested during Night of the Long Knives and was executed by the SS on the 2nd July 1934.

Rust, Bernhard (1883-1945)
Nazi Party member and Minister of Education and Science (1934-1945). As Minister of Education, Rust was responsible for redesigning the national curriculum of state schools in such a way as to indoctrinate German youth with Nazi ideology. In later years, Rust also presided over a unit which carried out medical experimentation on prisoners of the Nazi regime. Rust reportedly committed suicide in May 1945.

Schacht, Hjalmar (1877-1970)
German economist, President of the Reichsbank (1923-1930; 1933-1939) and Minister of Economics (1934-1937). Schacht was not a member of the Nazi Party but in 1933 he was willing to make his expertise as an economist available to the Nazi regime in order to bring about a reduction in unemployment in Germany and to assist with the rearmament programme. By 1936, Schacht was at odds with Hitler. Although Schacht’s ‘New Plan’ had achieved considerable success, Schacht disagreed with Hitler over the speed at which Germany could rearm. Schacht also publicly criticised Nazi anti-semitism. Schacht resigned as Minister of Economics in 1937.

Scheidemann, Philipp (1865-1939)
German politician of the SPD, member of the Council of People’s Representatives (1918-1919), Chancellor of Germany (1919). Scheidemann entered German history by declaring the German Republic from the balcony of the Reichstag building on 9th November 1919. He was appointed as the first Chancellor of the Republic by the National Assembly but resigned after refusing to sign the Treaty of Versailles on behalf of Germany. Scheidemann remained active in local politics for the duration of the Weimar era. When the Nazi suppression of the SPD began in 1933, Scheidemann fled to Denmark and remained there for the rest of his life.

Schleicher, Kurt von (1882-1934)
German politician and Chancellor of Germany (1932-1933). Schleicher’s abortive attempt to establish a broad anti-Nazi coalition within the Reichstag led to his dismissal by President Hindenburg in January 1933. Out of favour with Hindenburg and over-shadowed by Papen, Schleicher spent the final months of his life attempting to negotiate the return of the German monarchy. Schleicher’s opposition to the Nazis in 1932 had made him a target for the Nazi regime and he was assassinated by the SS during Night of the Long Knives on the 30th June 1934.

Scholl, Hans (1918-1943) and Scholl, Sophie (1921-1943)
German students and founders of the White Rose Group (1942). Hans and Sophie Scholl were brother and sister who had grown up in the Nazi regime and had first-hand experience of its institutions and the manner in which the regime attempted to indoctrinate German youth. Both rejected the authoritarianism and intolerance of the Nazi dictatorship, Hans Scholl in particular who had witnessed Nazi atrocities in Poland and Russia while conscripted in the German army. The Scholls were both executed in February 1943 for their part in the White Rose Group.
Scholtz-Klink, Gertrud (1902-1999)
Nazi Party member and Head of the NS-F (1934-1945). Scholtz-Klink was promoted by the Nazis as a role model for German women. She was married to an SS officer, had eight children and delivered speeches to German women in which she stressed the importance of motherhood, domestic life and subservience to the husband. After the fall of the Nazi regime, Scholtz-Klink continued to live in Germany. She wrote her autobiography in the 1970s in which she stated that she remained a committed Nazi.

Stresemann, Gustav (1878-1929)
German politician of the DVP, Chancellor of Germany (1923), Foreign Minister (1923-1929). Although Stresemann was a member of the nationalist DVP, he rejected nationalist calls for Germany to resume hostilities against the allies and argued that Germany could only be restored to the status of world power by negotiating with the Allies and seeking reintegration into the international community. Stresemann’s achievements as Foreign Minister earned him the condemnation of right-wing extremists who accused him of making Germany a client state of the Versailles powers. Yet despite his skills as a diplomat, Stresemann continually defended Germany’s interests in international negotiations. He refused to acknowledge the eastern boundaries of Germany as defined in the Treaty of Versailles during the negotiations which led to the Locarno Treaties and demanded that the League of Nations recognize and condemn the persecution of Germans living within the boundaries of Poland. In 1926, Stresemann was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for his work in reintegrating Germany into the European community.

Wilhelm II (1859-1941)
King of Prussia and Kaiser of the German Empire (1888-1918). Wilhelm II was known for his militarism, his unstable temperament, his opposition to the growth of democracy in Germany and a tendency to meddle in affairs of state, particularly foreign affairs. His general incompetence as a ruler led to him being practically usurped by the German High Command during World War I. By the autumn of 1918, Wilhelm II had managed to attract the condemnation of the Allies, the outrage of his own people and the contempt of the German High Command. As the events of the November Revolution unfolded, Wilhelm was left with little choice but to abdicate. After abdicating on 9th November 1918, Wilhelm II fled to the Netherlands where he remained for the rest of his life.

Wilson, Woodrow (1856-1924)
President of the United States of America (1913-1921) and the USA’s representative at the Paris Peace Conference.
**Abdicate**
The act of resigning from a formal position, usually applied to crowned monarchs who give up the throne of a state.

**Democracy**
Form of government in which ultimate political power is held by the people and is exercised through free elections.

**Economic Depression**
A long-term reduction in the economic activity of a nation, usually characterised by reduction in trade, industrial production and increased unemployment.

**Enabling Act**
Law passed by the Reichstag in 1933 that enabled Adolf Hitler to rule without consulting the Reichstag or the President.

**Eugenics**
The study and practice of selective breeding, usually within human beings, with the intention to alter the genetic make-up of future generations.

**Euthanasia**
Act or practice of putting to death persons suffering from severe mental or physical illnesses, usually with the intention of preventing further suffering.

**Extra-constitutional**
The activities of a government which are outside the limits of a written constitution.

**Genocide**
The deliberate destruction of a group of people on grounds of their ethnicity, nationality or religion.

**Holocaust**
Word of Greek origin meaning ‘The Great Destruction’, most commonly applied to the Nazi genocide of European Jewry 1933-1945.

**Hyperinflation**
Dramatic inflation of prices so severe as to cause currency to lose all value.

**Indoctrination**
The process of implanting ideas in another, usually through education, to the extent that the ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ of the idea is not questioned.

**Machtergreifung**
German word meaning ‘Seizure of Power’; the Nazis used the word to describe their take-over of political power in Germany in 1933.

**Militarism**
The belief that a nation should build-up and maintain a strong military and be prepared to use it in an aggressive manner against enemies.

**Nationalism**
Political viewpoint in which the nation or state is regarded as more important than the individual; usually accompanied by the belief that the nation in question is naturally superior to other ‘foreign’ states.
**Paramilitary**
Any organization which is made up of civilians but which organizes itself in the manner of a professional military unit; paramilitary organizations typically adopt their own uniforms.

**Passive Resistance**
A form of protest in which participants use non-co-operation and civil disobedience rather than violence to achieve their goals.

**Police State**
A state in which the government uses security forces to rigidly control the activities of the population and suppress opposition.

**Populism**
A form of politics which champions ‘the common people’ are championed against a ‘the ruling elite’ which is usually depicted as corrupt, unjust or incompetent.

**Propaganda**
A form of communication intended to influence the attitudes of the public toward accepting a belief or viewpoint, usually political.

**Proportional Representation**
Electoral system in which political parties are awarded representation in a parliament in direct proportion to the percentage of votes they win in a national election.

**Putsch**
A method of armed revolt in which speed and surprise are key to success.

**Rentenmark**
The name of the emergency currency introduced into Germany by Gustav Stresemann in 1923 in an attempt to bring hyperinflation under control. The *Rentenmark* was eventually replaced by the *Reichmark*.

**Reparations**
Payments in money or material goods made by a nation defeated in a war to the victors as compensation for damages and injuries.

**Republic**
Any country in which the government and heads of state are elected by the people.

**Socialism**
Political theory which argues that the distribution of wealth and ownership of property should be controlled by the state so as to ensure social equality.

**Treaty**
A formal agreement made between countries, typically for the purpose of ending or preventing wars or to increase international trade.