

OXFORD HISTORY FOR PAKISTAN

TEACHER'S GUIDE THREE

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PREFACE

Every history teacher knows that the subject is limitless and the time for preparing lessons is comparatively minute. Classes vary in ability and much of the material in the syllabus is outside the pupils' knowledge and culture. These Teacher's Guides are not intended to usurp the teacher's skills but to make suggestions and offer some help. The following areas are covered by each Guide, which has been especially designed with the needs of the Pakistani teacher in mind:

- (a) As space is limited on a two-page spread, facts in the Pupil's Book have been reduced to the basic minimum. The Teacher's Guide contains supplementary material in the form of stories, additional facts, legends, and activities which will make the lesson more interesting. This additional information may be used at the teacher's discretion and according to the relevant strengths and/or weaknesses of each class.
- (b) Ideas for simple and rapid sketches on the board are sometimes given to explain otherwise difficult concepts. These are well within the ability of the least-skilled artist.
- (c) Contemporary extracts (which may be difficult to obtain outside the United Kingdom), such as legends and amusing anecdotes, are included in the Guides and can be used to bring the subject to life. It is very important that pupils realize that the people of the past were human beings just as we are, with feelings, attitudes, and tastes. These excerpts can be used as models for better pupils to write their own short accounts.
- (d) Looking at contemporary pictures to extract information is invaluable as it encourages students to exercise their analytical and creative abilities. Suggestions of questions to ask on important photographs in the Pupil's Book are given along with material on less obvious points.
- (e) Answers to the questions in the Workbook are included at the end of each unit.
- (f) The corresponding page numbers in the Pupil's Book are given on the top right-hand corner of each new unit for ease of reference.

1. Elizabeth I

It is quite important to note that parliaments, when called, agreed more or less with Queen Elizabeth's views. She always remained in control, however; for example, when Parliament, fearful of the succession, begged her to marry so that she could produce an heir, she told them to mind their own business. Later, towards the end of her reign, when Parliament complained about the restrictions on free speech, the queen snapped, 'You have the right of free speech—you can say "Yes" or "No" to what I have decided.' The concurrence of views in general, however, gave Parliament confidence.

2. James I

As king of Scotland, James I was accustomed to full power, and believed in the Divine Right of Kings, that is, the king is divinely ordained to rule. Initially, because his position was so precarious, he tried to accommodate Parliament. In the end, however, he demanded complete obedience.

3. Charles I

Charles I raised funds after dismissing Parliament in the following (illegal) ways:

- (a) Monopolies. The king sold the rights to manufacture certain goods such as candles to one individual, who then, alone, could make them. The candle maker had to pay royalties to the king.
- (b) Forest laws. Medieval forests belonged mainly to the king. Now, hundreds of years later, they were cleared for agriculture. Charles demanded rent for them.
- (c) A Medieval law said that anyone worth £40 a year could become a knight, which entitled them to be addressed as 'Sir'. Although in the Middle Ages this was a very large sum, by the 17th century it was relatively small. Charles reimposed the law and fined those knights who failed to meet the income requirement.

Charles's speech from the scaffold is as follows:

"I die a good Christian, for I have forgiven all the world, even those who have chiefly caused my death. I hope they may repent and may take the right way for the peace of the kingdom. I do not believe the happiness of the people lies in sharing government, the people and the king being completely different. If I had given way to an unlawful government and had all the laws changed by the sword, I need not have suffered like this. I am therefore a martyr for the people . . ."

4. Civil War

The king's forces (Royalists) consisted largely of the more important nobles and their servants, peasants, and Catholics. Parliament's strength was among the Puritans, the lesser country gentry, the middle classes and townspeople. As the navy was on Parliament's side, Charles I could not rally support on the continent. The Parliamentary forces realized that their weakness lay in the cavalry because the Royalist noblemen were fine horsemen. Cromwell, a country squire, trained his Ironsides as cavalry.

5. The Commonwealth

Although the Commonwealth began as a reasonably liberal regime, gradually more extremist men gained power and it became known as 'The Rule of the Saints'. Traditional amusements such as the maypole and dancing were forbidden, church attendance was enforced (with a register to keep track of absentees), all theatres were closed, and as far as possible, gambling, music, and most amusements were abolished. There was even a law against swearing, with fines on a sliding scale. A duke paid 30 shillings (perhaps 5000 rupees today) for a single swear word, while a humbler man paid about one-tenth of this amount—and fines were doubled on a second offence. There was deep resentment among the people but little could be done as the country was under the strict control of the army and the regional major-general.

6. Charles II

People were so overjoyed at the restoration of the king that they allowed Charles II more freedom than he might have expected. Charles was a pleasure-loving man (he was known as 'The Merry Monarch'), but under this frivolous exterior he had an iron will and usually managed to have his own way with Parliament.

7. James II

James II was a much stronger man than Charles II. He was also dogmatic and a Catholic. He began to appoint Catholics to high positions and to bestow upon them great favours. By his first wife, a Protestant, he had two daughters, Mary and Anne. His second wife was Catholic. Parliament tolerated him because, as a fairly old man, he was not expected to live long. However, when his second wife bore him a son, who would be brought up as a Catholic, they rebelled. His eldest daughter, Mary, and her husband, a Dutch prince, were invited to become joint rulers. James, realizing the mood of the people, fled to France.

Answers to Workbook pp.1–2

1. Taxes. As representatives of the people, they were responsible for collecting the money.
2. They both wanted the same things. Members of Parliament mistakenly assumed that they were growing more powerful, when, in effect, bills were passed because the queen also supported their views.
3. Divine Rights were ordained by God to rule and no one could go against them.
4. A republic without a monarch. Oliver Cromwell. Lord Protector.
5. Of its increasing strictness and rigidity, forbidding people their traditional pleasures and festivals. Charles II, son of Charles I, to become king.
6. Refer to p.3 of the Pupil's Book. It will be interesting to see which of the clauses pupils consider the most important and why. Hold a class discussion. Ask pupils to first write down the clauses which they have chosen so that they do not just fall in with the majority.
7. Individual work.

THE RISE AND FALL OF THE SUN KING, LOUIS XIV OF FRANCE

4/5

Points to emphasize

1. Extravagance

The gross extravagance of the court of Louis XIV should be emphasized. The stables at Versailles could hold 12,000 horses, as hunting was one of the main occupations or activities of the

nobles. There were as many as a thousand major nobles in the palace, with another thousand nearby, who constantly attended court functions. The king himself had 5000 servants, while the resident nobles had 4000. The coach house held 200 carriages.

The most famous room in Versailles is the Hall of Mirrors, where balls and other court festivities took place. This was 77 metres long and 11 metres wide. Ask pupils to compare their classroom, or the school playground, with this.

The gardens, which were designed as an extension of the building itself, covered 100 hectares. The Orangery, a building made mainly of glass and containing a 'forest' of 1200 orange trees, was 140 metres long and 13 metres wide, with side galleries of 113 metres in length. Ask pupils to draw a scale drawing of the Orangery on a separate sheet of paper. Suggest using a scale of 1 centimetre = 10 metres.

The records of annual expenses at the palace from 1664 to 1690 still exist; at 17th century prices, the court spent over £3 million annually. One would have to multiply this figure by at least 100 to bring it in line with modern prices. At the same time, literally tens of thousands of peasants were dying of starvation.

2. Protest

A bishop wrote the following letter to Louis XIV in 1694:

Your people are dying of hunger. Agriculture is almost at a standstill, all industry languishes, all commerce is destroyed. France is a vast hospital ... It is you who have caused all these troubles. The whole kingdom has ruined, everything is concentrated on you and everyone must feed out of your hand. Your victories [in war] no longer arouse delight. There is only bitterness and despair. Sedition is boiling up. You do not love God: you only fear Him with slavish fear. It is Hell you are afraid of. Your religion consists of superstition and ceremonies. You relate everything to yourself as if you were God on Earth.

It is almost certain that Louis never saw this letter. If he had, he probably would not have taken any notice of it.

3. Weaknesses which led to the Revolution

Though by no means a fool, Louis was clearly imbalanced. He thought of himself as a Roman emperor and often appears in paintings and statues dressed as one. He also believed he was the Sun God. His absolutist ambitions and the following weaknesses of his rule were clearly early causes of the French Revolution.

- (a) Wild extravagance at the court and military expenses. For two-thirds of his long reign, France was at war and achieved little in return;
- (b) by forcibly keeping the nobles at Versailles, or rendering them powerless in their own regions, he antagonized them. Many nobles wanted to take part in the government of the country but were unable to do so. Some eventually sided with the Revolutionaries.
- (c) From 1691, Louis took personal control of the government. The slow communications system made effective central control impossible; one man could not single-handedly control the governing of an entire nation.
- (d) Through heavy taxation and other restrictions, he destroyed the industry and trade by which he might have made the country more prosperous. The rise of a class of merchants (and with them associated professions like the law, banking, etc.) enabled ordinary people to educate themselves and reach positions of modest wealth. This class produced future

Revolutionary leaders. The peasants were too poor to share in the commerce which flourished for a brief period and made no attempt to increase the output of the land. They generally engaged in subsistence farming. Under traditional French law, all property, including land, had to be shared equally among children on the death of the owner. As a result, farms became smaller and smaller—and hence, less efficient and productive.

Louis made a major mistake when he revoked the Edict of Nantes which gave French Protestants (Huguenots) freedom of worship. They constituted the core of the skilled craftsmen in France. In 1685, when they were forbidden to worship in their own churches, about half a million fled to Britain, Germany, and Holland, where they made a vital contribution to the economy and stirred up a hatred of France.

Answers to Workshop pp. 3–4

1. (a) He maintained a powerful, well-trained army with and officers that he appointed. (b) Restricted the power of the nobles. (c) Appointed personal officials to run regions. (d) Powerful nobles were brought to Versailles, where they were kept under constant supervision. (e) Engaged in wars to conquer more territory. (f) Advisers were often men of humble birth who had to remain loyal to the king.
2. Individual work.
3. He wanted to break the power of the great nobles because they posed a threat to the power and authority of the king. They were constantly trying to enlarge their own regions and lived like petty kings. Louis XIV was an absolute monarch and wanted all the power to be in his hands alone.
4. (a) The peasants were heavily taxed and the money was collected by fraudulent tax collectors. (b) Every village had to supply fifty men between the ages of 20 and 40 to serve in the army for two years—this resulted in hardship and poverty. (c) Numerous, and lengthy wars were fought. (d) Extreme poverty and starvation.
5. (a) Defeat in war and the humiliating Treaty of Utrecht. (b) Savage taxation infuriated the ordinary people. (c) Treasury virtually bankrupt. (d) Many nobles were restive as they wanted to have some share in running the country. (e) Rebellions all over France. (f) Trade and industry were crippled by government interference and legislation.

THE ENLIGHTENMENT

6/7

Points to emphasize

As it is rather difficult (owing to the amount of abstractions) it would be advisable to reinforce the material in the text through oral discussion.

1. Before the Enlightenment

Before the Enlightenment, people in general accepted what the Church taught them and believed in its teachings implicitly. They also thought that the divisions in society (monarchs, nobles, and ordinary people) were a natural part of the social order. Although a few managed to move from one social class to another, largely through commerce, the great majority accepted their station in life. People also felt that natural phenomena just ‘happened’. The force of gravity—that things always fall downwards—was accepted without question. Newton was the first to investigate why objects fall to the Earth.

2. Sun-centred universe

The proof that the Sun and not the Earth was the centre of the solar system was shattering to the Catholic Church, as it undermined one of its central teachings. It was not until 1757 that the Pope agreed not to ban any book that mentioned that the Earth moved.

When the Sun-centred theory was established, it was assumed that the planets went around the Sun in circular orbits. Kepler's great breakthrough was the discovery that the orbits were elliptical and that the planets moved at different speeds. He demonstrated that the areas swept by the heavenly bodies as they moved around their orbits was equal for a given time, so that the planet moved faster near the Sun than when away from it.

3. Deism and the clockwork universe

Some philosophers were deeply religious; others were atheists. Many believed that God was, in effect, a kind of natural law: He wound up a clockwork world and set it going and then left it to operate on its own. If things went wrong, or if there was injustice in the world, God could not be blamed nor could He be expected to put things right. This new philosophy was called Deism.

4. New ideas

Although the aims of the philosophers—freedom, brotherhood, and general welfare—were logical in themselves, achieving them was a different matter altogether. We see here the beginnings of political divisions: different people have different ways of achieving these goals. Nazism and Communism, for example, were both trying to achieve these ends, but their methods were very different.

The goal of personal happiness was much more difficult, as people's tastes vary. One person loves to hear loud pop music while her neighbour hates the sound and loves quiet. How can this conflict be resolved? Ask pupils to discuss other ways in which it is difficult to reconcile people's views of happiness.

The two most important philosophers in this field were the Italian Beccaria and the English Bentham. Beccaria said, ' . . . it is the rule for good government to give the people the maximum of happiness and the minimum misery . . .' Bentham said, ' . . . government should give the greatest happiness to the greatest number . . .' His philosophy is called Utilitarianism. Ask pupils if they would be prepared to be unhappy so that others could be happy. Discuss such areas as clothing (school uniforms), education (different subjects), homework, and compulsory games, and then move on to more important issues, like national laws.

5. Locke

The English philosopher, John Locke, like the French Rousseau, was intensely interested in education, which he saw as one of the primary means of achieving his philosophical goals. Both were very liberal in their attitudes towards education, especially when one compares them to other contemporary educationist. The following Locke's views on punishment in schools:

I think that the great severity of punishment does but very little good, nay, great harm in education: I believe it will be found that, other things being equal, those children who have been the most chastised, seldom make the best men . . .

And covering all aspects of bringing up children, he discusses beds:

Let his bed be hard, and not feathers [i.e. feather mattress]. Hard beds strengthen the body, whereas being buried each night in soft beds melts and dissolves the body, is often the cause of weakness and the forerunner of an early grave . . . several indispositions, and that which is the root of all diseases, a tender, weakly constitution, is very much owing to soft beds . . . Besides, he that is used to hard beds at home will not miss his sleep (where he has most need of it) when he travels abroad, for want of his soft bed and his pillows all laid in order . . .

Answers to Workbook pp. 5–6

1. Good sense; sanity; an explanation or justification of some action. To inform; to free a person from ignorance or superstition; to realize what is right.
2. He proved that the Sun was the centre of the solar system. He upset the Church with this discovery because it reduced the importance of the Earth, which the Church authorities had claimed was the centre of the universe. Christian teachings were discredited.
3. (a) Voltaire; (b) Rousseau; (c) Locke.
4. An absolute ruler who tried to do what he or she really thought was best for the people of the country, by giving them some basic freedoms, rudimentary education and other things that were recommended by the philosophers. (a) Maria Theresa of Austria; (b) Catherine of Russia; (c) Frederick of Prussia.
5. Their rule was not really democratic because they did not consult the people—the monarchs only did the things which they felt the people would benefit from.
6. (a) Freedom from absolute rulers; (b) freedom of religion; (c) freedom of speech; (d) welfare for everyone; (e) brotherhood; (f) personal happiness.
7. Individual work.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

8/9

Points to emphasize

1. General impact

The French Revolution had a greater general impact on other countries than had the American Revolution, which had taken place less than 20 years earlier. After the excesses of the Reign of Terror, the policies of the Revolutionaries set much of the pattern for modern democratic institutions and governments.

2. Left-wing and right-wing politics

The terms ‘left-wing’ and ‘right-wing’ in modern politics derive from the first meeting of the States General when, quite by accident, those deputies who wanted sweeping and radical reforms sat on the left-hand side of the chamber, and those who were more moderate sat on the right. Today, of course, communists and socialists are regarded as left-wing parties, while conservatives and Christian Democrats are regarded as right-wing.

3. Course of the Revolution

The actual course of the French Revolution is complex and was as much about the fight for personal power as it was for policies. As the Revolution gained pace, more and more extreme men came to the top. The main characters were Marat, Danton and, above all, the evil Robespierre. Marat, who had a terrible skin disease and was forced to spend much of his time

in a medicinal bath to ease the pain, was murdered in it by a girl pretending to be a servant. Most of the other leaders were executed on the guillotine to which thousands were sent by those very leaders.

4. Revolutionary cap

The cap which so many of the Revolutionaries wore is the Phrygian Cap, or Cap of Liberty, and dates from classical times when it was supposed to have been given to liberated slaves.

5. Catholicism

The new dating system did not survive the Revolution, nor did the cult of Reason, although Catholicism lost much of its power and wealth, as Church property was confiscated and paper money was the compensation. The Church became a state organization, whose 'employees' were given salaries paid by the government. Monasteries and monastic orders were abolished.

6. 'La Marseillaise' and the French flag

The French national anthem, 'La Marseillaise', was written by an imprisoned nobleman awaiting execution. The French national flag, the tricolour, was adopted in its present in 1794: red and blue were the colours of Paris and white was that of the Bourbon royal family.

7. States General

The First (Church) and Second (nobles) Estates, which made up only 5 per cent of the total population, controlled half the assembly, while the Third Estate (peasants, workers, and the middle class which made up 95 per cent of the population) controlled the other half. In voting, each Estate had one vote, so the First and Second Estates could always outvote the Third.

8. Peasant life

Peasants were still at the semi-feudal level. They alone had to pay taxes to the state, to their local noble and to the Church. About 70 per cent of their income went to taxes. They alone were compelled to serve in the military as ordinary soldiers. The officers were volunteers from the nobility.

Food was always a problem for the peasant. So much of it was demanded by the local noble, who took his portion whatever the season, that in bad weather the peasants were at, or often below, the starvation level. Potatoes, which were a vital part of the peasant's diet in many parts of Europe, were little grown in France at this time.

9. Weights and measures

It might be worth mentioning that the French government in 1799 scrapped all the earlier weights and measures—of which here were dozens of local ones—and substituted a completely new set: the metric system. The act which legitimized this new system defines a metre as 'one ten-millionth part of the distance from the north pole to the equator' (along the surface of the Earth).

Answers to Workbook pp. 7–8

1. Because they were starving, people were desperate and were ready to take risks to improve their situation. They would die of starvation anyway, so they decided to fight instead.
2. The States General was called because the country was almost bankrupt. The king hoped to get more tax money from the people.

3. The Reign of Terror was little more than mob violence promoted by extreme politicians who had assumed power. It resulted in the execution of tens of thousands of people (after a brief 'trial') often before drunken Revolutionaries. Those in power were determined to eliminate all opposition, to settle old scores with enemies and to destroy the nobility largely to please the mob. The hysterical outburst was also a result of the threat of foreign invasion.
4. Obviously Carlyle was strongly opposed to the Revolution. Ask pupils to elaborate on why they feel he was against it with close reference to the drawing.
5. Creative work.
6. (a) All people are born equal and have equal rights; (b) all people have the freedom of speech, expression, thought, and religion; (c) no one can be arrested unless they have broken the laws of the state; (d) all power belongs to the state through parliament; (e) everyone is innocent until proved guilty.

THE REVOLUTIONARY AND NAPOLEONIC WARS

10/11

Points to emphasize

1. Distinguishing factors

Emphasize that the Revolutionary Wars were defensive. Other countries, afraid of rebellion at home, attacked France because their kings wished to avoid the fate of Louis XVI. The fact that these powerful armies were pushed back was largely due to the French, who fought desperately for their freedom. They knew what their fate would be if they were defeated.

The Napoleonic Wars, on the other hand, were wars of naked aggression. Napoleon was a megalomaniac and hoped to gain possession of Europe, as well as of the Middle East and India.

2. The Egyptian campaign

It was on this expedition that the Rosetta Stone was discovered. The Sphinx (show pupils the photograph on p.20 of Book 1) was used as target practice by Napoleon's troops. The results of this target practice can be seen clearly—the Sphinx was damaged considerably by the French troops.

In the Battle of the Nile, Nelson and the British fleet took the French by surprise. Napoleon was under the impression that Nelson was still searching for him elsewhere in the Mediterranean. Remind pupils that radios and telephones had not been invented, and there was no way of establishing where the enemy was. Much of the skill of military mistakes, of course. In this case, Nelson guessed correctly and destroyed the French fleet which was caught unprepared between the shore and the advancing British navy.

3. Naval warfare

It may surprise pupils to learn that so many naval battles took place after the fleets had been destroyed. Unlike modern ships, the wooden vessels could be built quite quickly.

4. Napoleon as emperor

Like Charlemagne before him, Napoleon took the crown from the Pope's hands and placed it on his own head. The Pope was in effect a prisoner of the French after the conquest of northern Italy in 1796 to 1797.

5. Peninsular War

The Peninsular War was a very ‘nasty’ and vicious war. The British, with their Spanish and Portuguese allies, were driven back to the Atlantic coast where they dug themselves in, before being able to break out and advance. The Spanish guerrillas played an important role in the war, harrying the French. Napoleon referred to the Peninsular War as ‘the running sore’.

6. Russian campaign

The Russian campaign was a clear sign that Napoleon’s military brilliance was beginning to wane. Armies at the time ‘lived off the land’—that is, supply lines were rudimentary or did not exist, so armies seized food from the captured territory. The same applied to shelter. The Russian ‘scorched earth’ policy—destroying everything as they retreated—meant that the French had no access to food and shelter. Napoleon should have known better than to start so late in the year when it was common knowledge that the Russian winters were so severe. The Russians were defeated in the one great battle (Borodino) they fought, but on the whole, they avoided direct confrontations, relying on guerrilla tactics and steady withdrawal, drawing the French further and further from their home base. The destruction of Moscow was the final blow forcing the Grand Army to start its disastrous retreat. There was no food for men or animals; clothing was poor in the bitter weather which began unusually early that year; disease (typhus) decimated the army; guerrillas captured tens of thousands of French soldiers.

7. Napoleon’s charisma

It shows something of the great magnetism of Napoleon’s personality that after this disaster he was able to recruit more young soldiers—and win. At Leipzig (1813), however, he lost 73,000 men in the battle and the Grand Army never recovered from this blow.

8. Exile at Elba

British children usually remember this event by the palindromic sentence supposed to have been said by Napoleon at the time (even though he did not speak English): ‘ABLE WAS I ERE I SAW ELBA’ which reads the same backwards as forwards. Ask pupils if they can think of any palindromic phrases like ‘Madam I’m Adam’ etc.

9. Final defeat

After Waterloo, Napoleon fled to the coast of France, hoping to escape to America. But again he was surrounded by the British navy and was forced to surrender. According to him, the British navy was what had really defeated him. He was exiled to the remote island of St Helena in the south Atlantic where he died six years later.

10. Congress of Vienna

The Congress of Vienna, like most international conferences, became a free-for-all, with states grabbing as much territory as they could. Its main significance was in its attempt to restore Europe to what it had been before the French Revolution. Although there was no major war in Europe for a century afterwards, there was considerable political unrest which erupted into socialist revolutions in 1830 and 1848. In general, Europe was preoccupied with the Industrial Revolution and the acquisition of overseas colonies for much of the 19th century.

11. History repeats itself

It might be pointed out that 130 years later Hitler was to repeat Napoleon's mistake when he invaded Russia in 1941, ill-equipped to face the bitter winter. The 'scorched earth' policy, guerrilla tactics and incredible bravery of the Soviet people really marked the end of the Nazi regime in Germany.

12. Battle of Trafalgar

The Battle of Trafalgar was the crucial turning point of the war at sea. Napoleon was forced, like Hitler 135 years later, to invade Britain. Like Napoleon, the Nazis were unable to control the English Channel to ferry troops across. Hitler's army was camped very close to where that of Napoleon had been 140 years earlier, but in 1940 it was the air force which dominated the sea between France and England. In the Battle of Britain, the Royal Air Force defeated the German air force decisively, and Hitler too turned to the east.

Pupils might like to know a little of the revolutionary tactics Lord Nelson used at Trafalgar. In sea battles, the opposing ships usually drew up in two parallel lines, fired a broadside, and then turned in the opposite direction so that the guns on the other side could fire. (The cannon could shoot only outwards at right angles to the side of the ship.) This continued until it was thought that one side or the other was so badly damaged that the ships could be boarded. A common device was to join two cannon balls from the same gun with a length of chain which would slice through the ropes, rigging and masts, so disabling the enemy vessel. Nelson drew up his fleet in two parallel columns at right angles to the combined French and Spanish fleet. This meant that his guns—which naturally pointed sideways—could not fire at the enemy while the French could bombard him as he approached. When the British ships reached the French lines, they passed between pairs of ships and could blast at point-blank range, while the enemy could not retaliate. These tactics were extremely successful. Nelson's flagship, *Victory*, is still intact and in harbour in England where it currently houses a museum. Nelson himself was killed in battle, shot by a sniper from the mast of a French ship.

13. Activity work

Here is part of a letter from an unknown German soldier found at Stalingrad (1944). Hitler's defeat at Stalingrad in World War II was the turning point of the Russian campaign, just as Napoleon's disastrous Russian invasion marked the end of his dreams of expansion.

Of the division [five hundred men] there are only 69 left fit for action . . . all we have left are two machine guns and 400 rounds of ammunition . . . and then a mortar and ten bombs for it. Except that, all we have are hunger and exhaustion. B. Has broken out with 20 men on his own initiative. Better to know in three days than in three weeks what the end and death look like. Can't say I blame him . . . We have no winter clothes. There are five pairs of ersatz valenki per company of 50 men—great big boots made of straw with wooden soles. They do not warm the feet and are impossible for walking. We have cheated, and have been condemned to death. We shall die of war or of frost . . .

Ask pupils to imagine that they are soldiers in the Napoleonic Wars. Tell them to write a letter to their parents back home.

Answers to Workbook pp.9–10

1. Refer to p.10 of the Pupil's Book.

2. The Revolutionary Wars were undertaken to drive out attacking nations who wanted to overthrow the Revolutionaries lest subversive ideas spread to other European nations. The Napoleonic Wars were undertaken to expand France's overseas empire and to increase its power.
3. Factors to include: started too late in the season; miscalculated the severity of the Russian winter; army not properly equipped for the cold; miscalculated the scorched earth policy of the Russians; didn't expect the Russians to destroy their own capital, Moscow; miscalculated the strength of guerrilla resistance; miscalculated the number of lives lost from disease, starvation, wild animals, and capture by guerrilla bands.
4. (a) To restore things as they had been before the French Revolution (including the restoration of former monarchs or their descendants); (b) to encircle France with strong powers to prevent further French attempts at expansion; (c) to grab territory, especially where useful for trading.
5. Research work.

THE AMERICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

1776 TO 1783

12/13

Points to emphasize

1. Causes

The causes of the war were not as simple as both sides made out: the British were not as repressive as the colonists maintained, nor the colonists as revolutionary as the British claimed they were. The colonies were so varied: in the north, there were hard-working farmers, woodsmen, and an increasing number of small industrialists, such as shipbuilders. The majority were strictly religious Protestants. The central states were more varied; for example, Maryland was predominantly Catholic. The southern states consisted mainly of huge plantations of cotton, sugar, and tobacco worked by hundreds of thousands of black slaves. The landowners here were often British noblemen who were highly reactionary. The states jealously guarded their own power and political interests.

There were also a number of demagogues who were determined to rebel for their own political ends, and it was easy for them to play on the sentiments of the less educated masses.

2. Declaration of Independence 1776

This great historical document begins with, 'We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all Men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness . . . whenever any . . . government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it and to institute a new government . . .'

'Equality' and 'liberty' did not, of course, include the black slaves, the indigenous Indian peoples, nor often anyone else who opposed the ruling clique. But aside from the emotional rhetoric, there were some justifications for their tirade against Britain.

3. War of Independence

Reasons for the British defeat: (a) There was a lack of motivation among army personnel, most of whom were Hessian (German) mercenaries. The British troops were reluctant to fight against their own people; (b) The troops were led by poor officers, who were mainly noblemen with little military experience; (c) The British lacked knowledge of the countryside which left

their troops vulnerable to ambushes; (d) the scarlet uniform of the British made them easy targets from miles away, whereas the drab browns and greys of the colonist blended into the countryside; (e) There was considerable opposition in the government at home where many Members of Parliament felt that the colonists were justified; (f) The British navy had lost control of the sea to the combined French, Dutch, and Spanish navies.

4. Treaty of Paris 1783

In the Treaty of Paris: (a) American independence was officially recognized; (b) France was given a few towns in India for trading purposes; (c) Spain received the Mediterranean island of Minorca, which had been captured by the British. The British, however, refused to surrender the Rock of Gibraltar. (Two centuries later, this was to be the cause of a bitter dispute between Britain and Spain); (d) Britain had captured Cuba but gave it back to Spain in exchange for Florida, which at the time was virtually an uninhabited swamp.

5. Other results of the war

(a) American colonists who did not wish to be part of the United States emigrated northwards to Canada; (b) Britain began to colonize Australia, using it as a dumping ground for convicts, who until then had been shipped to America to work on plantations in the southern states; (c) French officers along with their compatriots, who had been involved in the fighting on land, began to consider the possibility of a revolution at home.

6. The constitution

The American constitution was written to suit the conditions of the late 18th century and is not always applicable to the present. The structure of the government was laid out as follows:

- (a) Congress: (i) House of Representatives, elected by popular vote once every two years. Today there are 435 representatives, i.e., one for about every 575,000 people. (ii) The Senate, which consists of 100 senators (two from each state, irrespective of size) who are elected for a period of six years.
- (b) The President, who is elected by popular vote once every four years. He or she must not be a member of Congress but is usually an ex-member. The President selects a cabinet of ministers, who likewise must not be members of Congress.
- (c) The Supreme Court consists of nine judges nominated by the President but confirmed by the Senate. These judges have the power to reject any proposed law if it is contrary to the constitution.

As elections for the different departments of government do not take place at the same time, heads of departments are often of different political parties. As each has the power to veto, it is sometimes difficult to pass new legislation, especially if it is controversial. The constitution can be changed only by an amendment, which must be passed by two-thirds of Congress and three-quarters of the assemblies of the individual states. This rarely happens and there have been only 26 constitutional amendments in 200 years out of which 10 were in the 1791 Bills of Rights.

The constitution does give the individual considerable power as members of the electorate can elect congressmen, senators, and the president. Because of 'checks and balances', it would be almost impossible for a dictator such as Hitler to come to power in the United States. On the other hand, the process of government can be slow and clumsy and in the modern world rapid decisions have often to be made.

There are two main political parties in the United States, the Republicans, who are right-wing conservatives and want more power given to the individual state assemblies, and the Democrats, who are left-wing and want centralized federal control.

It might be worthwhile to draw up a comparative chart of the political systems in Pakistan and the United States—the parties, the eligibility to vote, the powers of the different bodies, and so on. Discuss the relative merits/drawbacks of each system.

Answers to Workbook pp. 11–12

1. First discuss the arguments used by both sides on p.13 of the Pupil's Book and then hold a debate or class discussion.
2. When ships of taxed tea arrived in the harbour, colonists disguised as Indians threw the boxes overboard. It was done as a matter of principle: although the tax was minute, the colonists objected to paying any tax to the British government unless they had Members of Parliament in London.
3. Emphasize that a flag has to be simple and easily recognizable.
4. (a) We did not want to kill our own countrymen (most of the colonists had come from Britain); (b) our officers were untrained noblemen with very little military experience; (c) the bulk of our troops were Hessian mercenaries, who were unreliable fighters as they just wanted to stay alive; (e) the colonists—especially the guerrilla fighters wore clothing which blended in with the countryside, while our uniforms were bright red and attracted attention immediately. It can also be mentioned that the French, Spanish, and Dutch forces cut off supplies and reinforcements.
5. Check and balances. Power is divided among the President, Congress, and the Supreme Court, all of which have, in effect, the power of veto over legislation passed by the others. Elections for President and elections for Congress take place at different times so the President can be of one party while the majority party in Congress may be of another. As the Supreme Court judges are appointed for life, they linger on long after the President who nominated them has left office. The judges of the Supreme Court picked by, for examples, a Republican President will still be there years later when the Democrats are in power. Although the Supreme Court is supposed to be impartial and make its decisions solely on a point of law, the judges do have political sympathies and may be swayed by these.

THE UNIFICATIONS OF GERMANY AND ITALY

14/15

Points to emphasize

This is a very complex subject, and it is difficult to make it interesting. But as it is so important for the subsequent history of Europe, pupils must be aware of the bare facts. These unifications lead inexorably to the appalling slaughter of World War I and to a certain extent, the bloodshed of World War II.

1. Italy

The Italian, unification was a relatively low-scale business—the fact that Garibaldi and his 1000 Red Shirts were able to ‘conquer’ such vast areas gives some idea of the low level of resistance. Although the war in the north against Austria was much more complicated and bitter, it was largely between France and Austria.

Henri Dunant, a Swiss businessman, actually did volunteer work in a field hospital at the Battle of Solferino, and witnessed the appalling carnage that resulted from twelve hours of fierce fighting. Dunant, who died in 1910, was awarded the first Nobel Peace Prize in 1901.

2. Germany

The unification of Germany was a calculated political move by Prince Otto von Bismarck (nicknamed 'The Iron Chancellor'). He was a classical Prussian nobleman, military-minded and determined to surmount all obstacles. After the Prussians had swept through Austria in 1866, it was obvious that France would be the next target of Prussian expansionism.

The infamous Ems telegram precipitated the Franco-Prussian War. The throne of Spain was vacant, and in 1870 it was accepted by a German prince. The French were horrified because they were now surrounded by Germans to the south, north, and east. Napoleon III of France protested furiously to William I of Prussia, who claimed that the German prince had renounced the Spanish throne. Napoleon III demanded that the Prussian king prevent all future attempts by German princes to acquire the Spanish throne. William I of Prussia replied politely that he had nothing more to add to his previous message. Bismarck received the French telegram, and by editing it, made it read, 'The King of Prussia refused the French ambassador.' France was indignant, and the 'hawks' in the government, though warned by the Minister of War that France was not ready to fight against mighty Prussia, declared war. It was a gift from heaven for Bismarck, for it united most of the German states behind Prussia, which was made to appear the 'victim' of French aggression.

The war on the French side was totally mismanaged. Paris was besieged, and there was much suffering. There are many pictures, showing the animals of the Paris zoo, dogs, and cats, being slaughtered to feed the populace.

'Air' warfare was first used at the siege of Paris. There were only balloons, of course, but these were used to take letters and documents from the city to the rest of France. The letters were photographed in miniature (the camera was still a great novelty), rather like microfiche today, and the comparatively lighter plates were sent out. A leading French Republican politician, trapped in the capital, escaped by balloon to raise more armies in the south, but though he won a few minor skirmishes, he too was ultimately defeated.

3. French humiliation

The defeat of France was a hard blow to French pride. As if defeat at the hands of the Germans was not humbling enough, the loss of Alsace and Lorraine, which had been fought over for centuries and which were largely German in culture and language, was devastating. The occupation of Paris, the huge sum demanded in reparations and the site of the official surrender (the Palace of Versailles, the very centre of French life) were more than they could bear. The thought of revenge and the recovery of the lost provinces dominated French political and military thinking for the next forty years. When the time came (1918) and Germany was defeated in World War I, the French insisted that the Germans sign the peace treaty in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles, using the same pen as the French did when they were forced to surrender over forty years earlier.

Answers to Workbook pp.13–14

1. (a) Defeated Austria (Lombardy added to Piedmont); (b) several states elected to join Piedmont; (c) Garibaldi captured southern Italy and Sicily; (d) defeated Austria with Prussian help, and Venetia (in the north-west) added to Italian empire; (e) France was

- defeated by Prussia, and the Pope's territory added to Italy; (f) Victor Emmanuel crowned king of all Italy.
2. Dunant was Swiss and the flag of the Red Cross is the reverse of the Swiss national flag. The cross is considered a Christian symbol so when a similar organization was set up for Islam, the crescent, an Islamic symbol, was adopted instead.
 3. Bismarck. The Prussian forces had modern equipment and weapons, railways and telegraph lines.
 4. Bismarck altered a diplomatic telegram to make it seem that the Prussian king had insulted the French ambassador. He wanted Germany to appear the victim, not the aggressor.
 5. (a) Occupied Paris (b) took the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine (c) demanded from the French an impossibly large sum of money (d) made the French surrender in the Palace of Versailles.
 6. The French were determined to humiliate Germany by defeating them and wanted to get back the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine.

THE 18TH CENTURY FARMING REVOLUTION

16/17

Points to emphasize

1. Inefficiency of old methods

The three-field system was inefficient because:

- (a) One-third of the land was not cultivated each year, although the village animals were allowed to wander over the fallow field, eating weeds and adding a little manure to the soil;
- (b) Land was further wasted because of the paths and tracks between blocks of strips which had to be left for access.
- (c) As each peasant's strips were scattered all over the fields (so that each had some good and some poor land), much time was wasted travelling from one to the other.
- (d) As crops and techniques were determined by the villagers themselves, new things were rarely attempted because the village elders were often conservative;
- (e) There were constant quarrels over the boundaries of strips, as they were not marked; peasants also accused each other of poor farming (letting weeds grow etc.)
- (f) The promiscuous mating of stock on the common land and wastes left little chance of improvement in quality.

2. Enclosure

The enclosure process was complex. Usually three or four local notables petitioned Parliament for an Enclosure Act. A notice was pinned to the local church door announcing their intention, but the majority of villagers could not read or afford a lawyer to contest the enclosure. The bill, if unopposed, was usually passed through Parliament very quickly when few Members of Parliament were present — those present were usually friends of the local notables who wanted the enclosure.

After the act was passed, the land was measured. Meetings were held for those who could produce legal documentary evidence of their right to the land. If they had none, as the great majority did not, their strips were automatically confiscated. If they did have legal documents, they were often given land elsewhere in the parish in areas where the soil was generally very poor. The new farms had to be enclosed by a hedge within a year. Generally, the villagers could not afford to do this either.

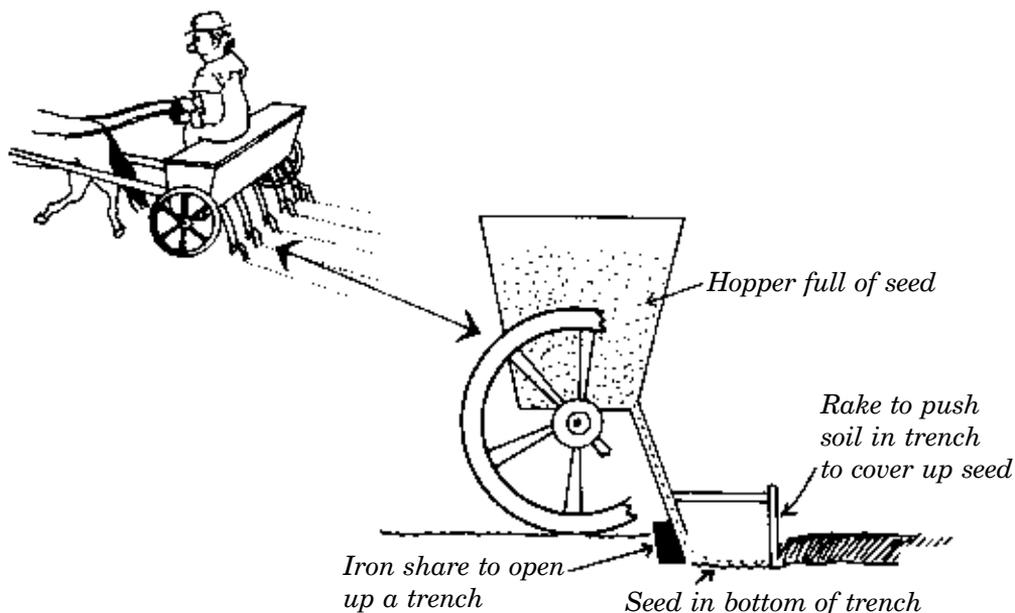
Those who remained in the village had to seek work as labourers on the new farms and because of high competition, wages were very low. Those who could, left to find work elsewhere. In the 18th century, there was a rapid flow to the industrial cities of the north.

3. New equipment and techniques

The crucial changes were in crop rotation and the seed drill. The crops were alternated for human and animal consumption: wheat for bread the first year, followed by the newly-introduced turnips (which, because they were well-spaced in rows, allowed cultivation between the plants to reduce weeds). The introduction of the hoe sped up this process considerably. Turnips provided food for stock in the winter; earlier, many animals had to be slaughtered in November as there was no way of feeding them in the winter months. In the third year, another grain crop was planted (like barley or oats). This was often followed by clover, which provided rich animal fodder. More importantly, clover also revitalized the soil because its roots contained bacteria which absorbed nitrogen from the air (nitrogen is a powerful fertilizer) and fixed it in the soil. The enriched soil was now ready for the 'greedy' crop of wheat again.

4. Seed drill

The seed drill was a very important farming innovation. The old broadcasting method of sowing grain resulted in an uneven distribution of seed, and the seeds were also vulnerable to birds and other animals. The drill planted grain below the surface, covered it up, and also ensured that it grew in straight rows. This allowed farmers space to hoe between the rows to keep down weeds in the early days of growth. Below is Jethro Tull's seed drill.



5. Selective breeding

The selective breeding of stock produced dramatic results. It was largely aimed at producing meat for which there was a great, and profitable demand from the cities. Sheep, which had

previously been kept largely for wool, were now bred for sheer body weight. Cattle, which had been bred for powerful leg muscles to pull carts and ploughs, were now also bred for meat, as horses were rapidly replacing the ox as draught animals.

6. Agricultural prosperity

Farming became a very prosperous activity: not only was there increased output, land values soared.

Answers to Workbook pp. 15–17

1. (a) One-third of the land was wasted each year because it was left fallow; (b) farmers wasted time moving from strip to strip; (c) Wastage of land in paths and tracks; (d) Inability to experiment with new crops or methods. Other reasons: Drainage schemes were impossible as they required the cooperation of everyone; Disputes over land and farming; no improvement in stock because of indiscriminate breeding. Everyone had some land and could support their family, even if at a very low level.
2. See (3) in the teacher's notes above.
3. (a) All the land was used every year; (b) improvement in stock; (c) experiments with crops; (d) new equipment led to economies and improved output.
4. Broadcast seed: see (4) in the teacher's notes above.
5. (a) Increased output; (b) cash crops instead of mainly subsistence farming; (c) migration of peasant to towns; (d) desperate poverty in rural areas; (e) powerful element in industrialization as factory workers could be fed.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

18/19

Points to emphasize

1. Factors which led to British industrialization

Point out why Britain was ripe for the development of industry, unlike other countries in Europe. Germany and Italy were not yet united (p.14); France was on the verge of revolution and was embroiled in the Napoleonic Wars; other European nations were not as developed economically, politically or socially. Britain was a fairly peaceful nation that had long settled its political and religious problems. Other factors include:

- (a) A vast demand for cloth, particularly from North America, the subcontinent and from Africa, where it was used for trading in slaves;
- (b) There were large reserves of coal and iron in shallow mines which were easily accessible. These were already being exploited on a small scale;
- (c) British merchants were very wealthy from trade with the colonies and from the profits derived from the slave trade;
- (d) The farming revolution (p.16) had released tens of thousands of workers from the countryside who were readily employable when the factories were opened;
- (e) Britain had a strong pool of inventors and scientists, often wealthy amateurs who experimented purely for pleasure.

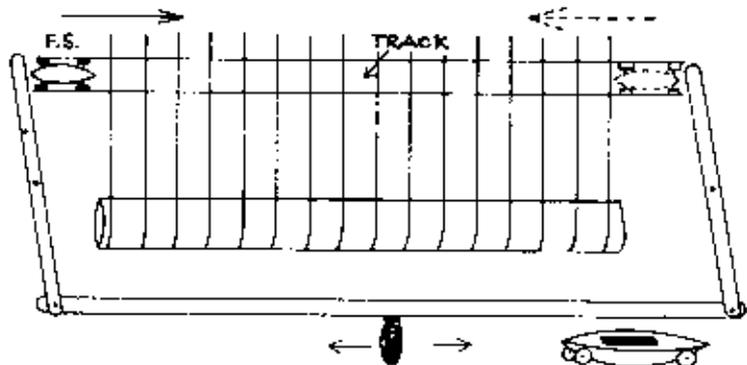
2. James Watt and the steam engine

James Watt, unlike the wealthy amateurs mentioned above, was a craftsman working in a university workshop. When asked to repair a model of the primitive steam engine invented

by Newcomen early in the 18th century (see p.19 of the Pupil's Book), he spotted its inherent weaknesses: it could never be a really practical and profitable machine as it was so slow and cumbersome and also because it consumed vast amounts of fuel. It is interesting to note that after inventing his efficient steam engine, Watt did not sell it directly to firms but hired it out and took a percentage of the savings they made in fuel. He became a very wealthy man indeed.

3. The flying shuttle

The flying shuttle, which sparked off industrialization in textile factories, was a simple device. In an ordinary hand loom the weaver had to pass the shuttle (S) from hand to hand, which meant that the cloth could not be very wide. The flying shuttle was mounted on wheels and ran along a narrow track through the warp threads. A system of levers enabled the weaver to knock the shuttle backwards and forward quickly, thus covering a much wider spread.



4. Spinning-jenny

According to tradition, the idea of the spinning-jenny was conceived when James Hargreaves came home in a bad temper and kicked the old-fashioned single-thread wheel which his wife had been using across the room. When the wheel went on turning as the machine lay on its side, it gave him the idea of the spinning-jenny, which he named after his wife. The story is probably apocryphal, but it makes a good yarn.

5. Power loom

The power loom was a much more complex machine than the spinning-jenny, and basic mechanical problems were not solved until the early 19th century. The great thing to remember is that one spinner on a mule (a development of the water-frame) and one weaver on a power loom could produce at least a hundred times as much cloth as two workers sixty years earlier.

6. Improvements in machinery

Inventions and improvements in machinery were made faster and faster as demand rose, and as today with electronics, employers searched for ways of increasing output and reducing the number of workers to maximize profits.

7. Long-term effects of industrialization

The early stages of the Industrial Revolution had disastrous effects on working people, as we shall see in the next spread. For more than a generation, there was dreadful suffering, poverty, and oppression. From this sprang many of our modern institutions and safeguards such as trade unions, government legislation, parliamentary representation, education, improved medical, and health care, and of course, as Karl Marx was living in Britain throughout this period, the political idea of communism.

8. The Age of Iron

The steam engine made the production of iron much easier and cost-effective and later enabled steel, which was much more useful, to be produced cheaply. Iron-framed houses, iron pillars for important buildings, iron coffins and grave markers became quite common.

Answers to Workbook pp. 18–19

1. (a) Better transport; (b) the spread of education, especially among workers; (c) government intervention in industry (including safety standards); (d) the development of trade unionism; (e) lower prices; (f) increase in colonial activity as colonies were sources of raw materials as well as markets for finished products (especially machinery) etc. Refer to pp.18 and 19 of the Pupil's Book for additional information.
2. Mining, quarrying, iron production, pottery (grinding), steamships, railways.
3. Steamships were not reliant on wind power and could sail whatever the weather. Travelling time was reduced to at least half of what it had been earlier. This was very important for trade, especially when other countries began competing for markets.
4. All figures are approximate: (a) 6.5 kilometres/hour; (b) 300 (plus) kilometres/hour; (c) 950 kilometres/hour; (d) 35 kilometres/hour over a short distance—100 metres), over 100 metres the world record is 27 kilometres/hour.
5. Individual work.

THE EFFECTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

20/21

Points to emphasize

The period 1750 to 1850 is one of the most important periods in history as it heralded the industrial/technological world of today. If a Medieval European peasant had come back from the dead in 1730, he would not have felt out of place. Much of the land was farmed in the old manner, manufacture was still mainly done in the home or in small workshops consisting of a few workers. If he returned fifty years later, he would not have recognized the world with its big enclosed farms; huge, filthy, smoky cities, and people toiling in factories.

1. Factory conditions

These extracts from official reports describe the worst conditions in early industrial England, but general standards, were a little better. The one below describes the condition of factory workers in a hostel for 'apprentices' aged 7 to 15:

They were bound to the factory until they were 21. The governor said their regular working hours, Saturdays included, were 5 am to 8 pm. Except for half an hour for breakfast at 7 am and half an hour for dinner, they were working [at the machines] continuously . . . Sometimes they worked until 9 or 10 pm. On Sundays some, or all,

of the apprentices worked from 6 am till noon cleaning machinery . . . Those who were not, had to walk to church 5 kilometres away . . . [These were actually children whose parents could not be found, but those living in their own homes were very little better off.]

This is a list of fines imposed by the owner on workers in a cotton factory in 1823. The average wage was 6 to 7 shillings a week, so one shilling represented one-sixth of a worker's weekly earnings.

Any spinner found with a window open	1
Any spinner found dirty at work	1
Any spinner found washing himself	1
Any spinner leaving his oil can out of place	1
Any spinner with gaslight on too long	2
Any spinner heard whistling	1
Any spinner being five minutes late	1
Any spinner being sick and not sending someone to replace him	6

Thus a worker could easily end a week owing the factory owner more than his wage.

It was largely on account of such conditions that Karl Marx and his colleague Friedrich Engels evolved Communism. Engels (in *Conditions of the Working Class in England in 1844*) wrote:

It is nothing unusual to find a man, his wife, four or five children and sometimes both grandparents living in a single room three or four metres square where they all eat, sleep and work . . . Nicholson's Court contains 28 wretched little rooms with 151 human beings in the greatest want, there being only two beds and two blankets in the whole court . . .

In this part of the city [Glasgow, Scotland] there are neither sewers nor other drains, and not even toilets belonging to the houses. All garbage, refuse, and excrement of at least 50,000 peoples thrown into the gutters at night, so that in spite of all street sweepings, a mass of dried filth and sour smells are created . . . which endanger the health of the people to the highest degree.

These conditions existed in the centre of the towns, clustered round the factory. Beyond these were the slightly better houses of the skilled workers (the engineers) and beyond them, in the countryside and suburbs, the huge houses of the owners.

2. Mines

A Royal Commission on mines was set up in 1842. The following are two extracts from this report:

I'm a trapper in Gamber Pit [trappers opened and closed the doors in the tunnels]. I have to trap in the dark and I get scared. I go in at four and sometimes half past three in the morning, and come out at five or half past. I never go to sleep. Sometimes I sing if a miner gives me a bit of candle for a light, but not in the dark. I dare not sing then . . .

[A five year old girl]

I've been down almost three years. When I first went down I couldn't keep my eyes open. I don't fall asleep now; I smokes my pipe; smokes about half a quartern a week . . . [Note the total disregard for safety—lighting a pipe deep underground with tunnels full of explosive gases.]

[William Richards, aged seven]

The output of coal rose from 2 million tonnes in 1700 and 11 million tonnes in 1800 to 48 million tonnes in 1850. Not only was coal used to power factories, trains, and ships, it was the only fuel used for heating homes and cooking. As a result, chimneys were cleaned out by young chimney-sweeps till the middle of the century.

3. Chimney-sweeps

These poor chimney-sweeps were perhaps the most tragic victims of the Industrial Revolution. From the age of three, they were forced to climb up chimneys with a brush and scraper to clean out the soot. If they were reluctant—and reasonably so, for many of them became trapped and died in the flues—their master would often light a fire to force them up. There are flues still in existence only 23 centimetres square which are known to have been swept by boys. This seems almost impossible, but a very small child, diagonally across the gap, with the brush arm extended above his head and the other by his side, could do it. It is well-documented that boys did go up such narrow chimneys.

Cut a 23 centimetres square hole in the centre of a piece of card and show it to the pupils. See if any of them can even get their heads through the hole.

Answers to Workbook pp. 20–21

1. This can be serious or amusing. Ask pupils to read the best accounts aloud to the class.
2. Houses put together rapidly to house the flood of newcomers; unscrupulous builders and factory owners determined to exploit the workers; low wages; huge pool of workers ready to take work if anyone objected to their wages; ignorance (most of the newcomers were simple country folk or Irish peasants whose lifestyle was little better than that of farm animals); lack of government interest in anything except making wealth.
3. (a) Improved standards of living as factories began producing consumer products; (b) improved sanitation and water supply because of cheap factory-produced iron pipes; (c) improved clothing as cheap and cleaner cotton replaced wool; (d) trains brought food supplies from the countryside where there was now a surplus; (e) the import of food from overseas became easier with steamships; (f) factories offered opportunities for men with ambition and ability to rise in the world; (g) eventually workers had more leisure time; (h) government intervention to remedy worst abuses; (i) introduction of trade unions and agitation for parliamentary reform.
4. There was bitter competition for trade as more European countries became industrialized; there was a scramble for colonies; European countries exploited the local inhabitants of the colonized countries.
5. Individual work which might lead to an interesting class discussion.

Points to emphasize**1. Agricultural economy**

China's economy was based almost wholly upon agriculture. Members of the upper classes—nobles, scholars, etc.—were highly cultivated, but most peasants were often little better than the animals that they reared.

Only 10 per cent of the huge land area was really fertile, and most of this fertile land was concentrated in the valleys of the great rivers. These were subject to terrible floods and changes of course, which, with frequent droughts, caused the deaths of millions by starvation. With the introduction of maize from America in the 17th century, this more stable grain increased the available food supply: from about 1750 to 1850, the population doubled—bringing with it troubles of its own, including the heightened exaction of foreign rulers.

2. The Manchus

The Manchus (Ch'ing) came from Manchuria. They formed only 3 per cent of the population, but 50 per cent of the official posts were reserved for them. Among other subjugations and humiliations, the Han men were forced to have their heads shaved and to wear the *queue* (pigtail). If a Han cut off his *queue*, he was executed.

3. Administration

Apart from military matters, major projects such as canals and levying taxes, the Manchu government had little else to do, as the isolated village communities were more or less self-governing. There was constant rebellions on a small-scale, but the Manchu forces were able to easily suppress these.

4. Political and economic isolationism

China was self-sufficient and regarded the rest of the world as barbarian. It turned its back on the outside world, considering itself vastly superior in every way to the rest of humankind. Indeed, the culture of the upper classes was more advanced than the west until the 16th century, but with the Renaissance, the west made dramatic advances in all spheres, cultural and technical. Diplomatic missions from foreign countries were treated with disdain, their members as 'inferior beings': Queen Victoria was expected (through her emissaries) to acknowledge herself a vassal of the Chinese emperor. As a result, China needed little from outside its borders, although the west clamoured for Chinese silk, tea, and porcelain.

5. Balance of payments

This term should be explained to pupils. Economic theory says that goods must be exchanged, value for value, for sound trading. Paying for goods in bullion, gold or silver, results in an imbalance, causing economic problems in the country exporting precious metals.

Give the example of the Mughals, who exported so much to the west and wanted only bullion in return. This was made into ornaments or stored in great vaults. It was the same with China, where silver was put to no practical use, such as developing industry.

6. Opium

Opium had been grown as a medicinal crop to relieve pain in south-west China for centuries, but it was not until the arrival of the tobacco smoking habit from America in the 17th and 18th centuries that smoking opium for pleasure developed. The British East India Company sought to redress their unfavourable balance of trade with China by exporting Indian opium. They did not do this directly, but through merchants such as Jardine Matheson, whose company is still one of the leading traders in Hong Kong today. Westerners were allowed to use only one port, Guangzhou (Canton), and opium began to pour into the country. In 1821, 4500 chests of 64 kilogrammes each were imported: in 1838, 40,000. At first, gentlemen and officials smoked, but rapidly the habit spread throughout all levels of society. In 1838, Britain bought 28 million silver taels (an ancient unit of measurement) worth of goods from China and sold the Chinese over 29 million taels of opium.

7. Anglo-Chinese (Opium) Wars

Commissioner Lin was sent to stop the opium trade, and seized the merchants' stocks, which he burned publicly. The British, on a trumped-up excuse (refusing to hand over a sailor who had killed a Chinese peasant), declared war. Their steamships destroyed the ancient Chinese war junks, which were made of wood. Highly trained British soldiers from India quickly routed the ill-trained and poorly equipped Manchu troops in both the wars. Humiliating treaties were forced upon the Chinese, giving the British free access to Chinese markets. In 1844, the French and Americans claimed similar privileges.

8. Self-Strengthening Movement

There was strong public support for this movement, but the Manchus were not in favour of it and did all they could to oppose it. Arsenal, dockyards, and railways were made, but the Chinese could not see that there were little good in isolation. There had to be a substructure of ordinary industry to support arms manufacture and to earn foreign currency. It was much like Mao's Great Leap Forward of the 1950s and 1960s.

9. Sino-Japanese War

Although the Japanese began to modernize after China, they did not make the same mistakes. When they felt strong enough, they turned on China for possession of Korea. Despite its new warships and well-equipped troops, the Chinese were humiliatingly defeated again by this smaller Asian nation which they had regarded as the epitome of barbarism. In the shameful treaty which followed, China was forced to give control of Korea to Japan (though it was nominally independent) and also to cede Taiwan and the Liaodong Peninsula. Russia, with Britain and France, later forced Japan to hand back the peninsula to China, as Russia itself wanted the ports there.

10. Rebellions

The debacle of 1895 caused rebellions all over the country. Particularly notable was the insurrection organized by Dr Sun Yixian, a peasant who attended a mission school and was educated as a doctor in Hong Kong. He was much more widely travelled and experienced than the majority of leaders and became one of the main founders of modern China with his *Three People's Principles*—nationalism, democracy, and people's livelihood. Sun was forced into exile and later travelled throughout America and England.

11. Late Manchu reforms

Alarmed at these rebellions, the Manchu government attempted some half-hearted reforms. Amongst these was the banning of foot binding, (girls' feet were bound tightly in bandages so that they grew up with completely deformed feet, only 12 to 15 centimetres long). The idea was that noblewomen, who did not need to use their feet like the peasants, should have dainty feet. A few elderly ladies with 'lily feet' can still be found in modern China.

12. 1911 Revolution

The 1911 Revolution broke out when the Manchu government tried to take over the railway system, much of which had been built at provincial expense. This was the ostensible reason for the revolt, but the real cause was the long-term grievances and injustices which the Han people had suffered. Yuan Shikai was a good general and administrator, but his overriding ambition was his main driving force. After the abdication of the last Manchu emperor (a surprisingly lenient end), Sun returned as provisional president of the new republic. He was quickly ousted by Yuan, who became president himself. His four-year term was disastrous as he borrowed heavily from foreign banks to bolster his regime and rigged elections to extend his powers. In 1916, he plotted to restore the monarchy with himself as emperor. The whole country rose against him and even his own generals deserted him. Yuan died of shame and grief shortly afterwards, while his generals fought for power. China descended into the warlord era (1916–1927) when local leaders grabbed whatever power and territory they could.

13. End of Sun Yixian

Dr Sun was to return to Chinese politics in the early 1920s to set up his Nationalist Party, which, though not communist, was allied to communism. He died in 1926 after having established the basic principles upon which the country was to be run.

Answers to Workbook pp. 22–23

1. (a) Foreigners; (b) humiliation of the *queue*; (c) savage taxation; (d) monopolized all the best posts. Severity of Manchu police and their punishments can also be mentioned.
2. Silks, pottery and tea. Silver and precious metals. The West wanted the value of the goods sold to be roughly equal to those bought.
3. Balance of Trade means exports and imports should balance out in terms of goods (i.e. should be equal in value), with bullion only to correct small imbalances.
4. The British had flooded China with opium, so China now had an outflow of bullion. The value of the opium imported exceeded the value of the silk, tea, and porcelain exported by far. The Manchu government wanted to curb the opium trade so they seized and destroyed a large amount of smuggled opium in 1837. China was defeated because of its primitive weapons, boats, and military tactics. The Chinese armies were poorly trained and undisciplined. Britain used the latest high-explosive guns against the flimsy wooden junks of the Chinese.
5. (a) The defeat was at the hands of Japan, a small Asian country; (b) China was forced to give up territory; (c) China was forced to sign a humiliating treaty which gave Japan immense trading rights.
6. Tell pupils about Sun's three principles, which established the direction of Chinese policy for the 20th century. He is regarded as the founder of the republic. Ask pupils to supplement the information contained in the Pupil's Book with their own library research.

Points to emphasize**1. Imitation**

Note: The Japanese skill of imitating and developing, was just as strong in the 19th century, as it is today.

2. Kamikaze

The Mongols, having overrun most of Asia, invaded Japan in 1274 and 1281, but on both occasions their fleets were destroyed by gales. The Japanese believed that these storms were sent by the gods, so they called them 'Divine Winds' or *Kamikaze* in Japanese. In 1853, priests at all the temples prayed for the Divine Winds to return. This time however, they did not return and the Japanese had to accept the demands of the Americans.

Towards the end of World War II, when the Americans were closing in on Japan, the Japanese organized squadrons of suicide pilots. Their planes were filled with high explosives and once they had taken off, there was no way of turning back. They dived on to American warships, wreaking terrible damage. These squadrons were also called *Kamikaze*.

3. Industrialization

In the massive industrialization of 1860 to 1890, little private capital was used. The government financed most of the projects and then, when they were flourishing, sold them off to the great families at low prices. Many of these families still dominate Japanese industry, including Mitsui, Mitsubishi, and Sumitomo. Ask pupils if they can find products by these firms at home. Mitsubishi are important car manufacturers while Mitsui produce electronic goods.

The Japanese did not realize that Chinese industrialization was very different from their own. They began industrializing earlier than they had planned largely because they were afraid (quite unnecessarily) of China's growing power.

4. The emperor

After the Meiji Restoration (1868), the emperor was considered to be divine. This encouraged fanatical loyalty and patriotism. This is why the Japanese were such formidable fighters during World War II and dying in battle for the emperor the highest honour.

5. Japanese expansionism

After 1870, there was a population explosion which left Japan with a population density four times that of China. As a large part of Japan is not very fertile, there was great pressure for territorial expansion.

6. Russo-Japanese War

The Japanese attacked the Russians without any warning. The Russian Pacific Navy was destroyed in a few hours. The European fleet, which sailed from the Baltic via the North Sea between England and Denmark, encountered some fishing boats and believing them to be the Japanese navy, opened fire. This underlines the gross incompetence of the Russian naval authorities. The Japanese were later to use the same military tactics against the Americans at Pearl Harbour (1941).

7. Liaodong Peninsula

In order to help pupils understand the importance of the Liaodong Peninsula, draw a rough sketch map on the board. Important points to note are: (a) Russian control of the Liaodong Peninsula threatened Beijing; (b) the Russian port of Vladivostok was vital to Russian eastern policy and the trans-Russian railway was too long. A shortcut through Manchuria was necessary; (c) Vladivostok was frozen for three months of the year, but Port Arthur, at the tip of Liaodong Peninsula was ice-free. Russia needed an ice-free port all year round for its naval fleet, as well as for the Russian-controlled East China Railway. It was at Port Arthur that the Japanese attacked the anchored Russian fleet.



8. Decolonization

The defeat of a major European power by a small Asian country sent shock wave throughout Europe. In addition, South-east Asia and India began to realize that the colonial powers could be defeated, given the right conditions.

Answers to Workbook pp. 24–25

- (a) Japan was ruled by a venerated and divine (but powerless) emperor. The *shogun* was Japanese and respected by the people; (b) the Japanese welcomed foreigners and imitated them as soon as they realized that they had something good to offer; (c) Japan realized that complete industrialization and the development of communications was essential for a modern society and to earn foreign currency. Japan realized that a technical workforce needed education and introduced compulsory schooling; (d) Japanese agricultural output doubled in ten years, thanks to chemical fertilizers and more intensive methods.
- (a) Total industrialization; (b) revolution in transport and communications; (c) universal and compulsory education; (d) new constitutional system, nominally democratic but in effect ruled by a group of nobles through a corrupt assembly (the Diet); (e) feudal laws were changed to meet the needs of an industrial society; (f) modern military forces. (The army was trained by the Germans, while the navy was organized by the British.)
- 1876—Japan opened up Korean trade and became the dominating influence there, thus supplanting China.
1879—Japan seized the Liuqiu from China.
1894—Japan seized Korea, Taiwan and other islands from China. They also seized the Liaodong Peninsula from Russia but the western powers forced them to return this.
1904–5—Japan defeated Russia and seized Manchuria and its railways; Japan retook the Liaodong Peninsula and seized half of the Russian island of Sakhalin.

Points to emphasize**1. Early history**

The earlier history of south-east Asia is highly complex, and it is not worthwhile, at this stage, to give pupils an extended history of the region. Perhaps this is unnecessary to mention if the topic is not going to be discussed at this stage. The interiors of most islands had primitive Stone Age cultures, which exist in some areas to this day. The more cultured places were on the coast, where trade routes to all parts of Asia existed.

2. Natural resources

As we saw earlier, it was the spices and jewels of south-east Asia that were largely responsible for the European voyages of discovery in the late 15th and early 16th centuries. These commodities still formed the bulk of trade until the 19th century when it was found that the fertile, hot climate of the region was ideal for crops that had been discovered elsewhere: tea from China and India on the steeper mountain slopes; coffee from Africa, Java, and Sumatra; tobacco from America; cocoa (for chocolate) and quinine (a drug useful in curing malaria) from south and central America and rubber from Brazil. Brazil had a monopoly on the rubber trade, which grew in the wild, and which, in the early 19th century, was beginning to be used for waterproof clothing. The export of plants from Brazil was strictly prohibited but the British (it is said) secretly smuggled out some seeds in a hollow walking stick and began to grow them in a hothouse in London. From there they were shipped to the British colony of Malay where the plant flourished. The economy of Brazil was subsequently ruined. Later, tin, nickel, bauxite (a raw material essential for aluminium production), coal, and gold were discovered, followed by oil and natural gas.

3. French Indo-China

The French empire consisted of what is now Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia, which they called Indo-China. From here, their influence spread into south-western China, where French culture (foods etc.) is still quite strong.

4. Japanese expansionism

Japan, short of almost everything, had long been fascinated by south-east Asia and longed for its rice, minerals, and rubber. World War II provided Japan with a pretext for seizing the whole region.

Answers to Workbook p.26

1. Spice Islands. (a) Spices; (b) Jewels; (c) Rice; (d) Sugar.
2. Refer to p.27 of the Pupil's Book.
3. Products which were valuable after the Industrial Revolution like rubber, tin, nickel, and copper were found there. Agricultural products like tea, coffee, cocoa, and quinine (which were highly valuable in European markets) also grew well there. In the latter 19th and early 20th centuries, oil and natural gas were discovered in the region. The area was ideal for naval bases (especially British) and supply ports (especially coaling stations) for merchant ships *en route* to China, Japan, Australia, and New Zealand.

Points to emphasize

1. Bar Charts

Explain to pupils that these can be either vertical or horizontal: a horizontal chart would work better for Question 2 of the Workbook. The next thing to decide is the width of the bars—probably 0.5 centimetres here would be satisfactory, or, if lined paper is being used, one-line width. Discuss what horizontal scale should be used—I would suggest 1 centimetre = 1 per cent. (Then 14.88 per cent, for example, would be 14.88 centimetres long.)

When the chart is complete, discuss the implications of these figures and compare them with those of 1900: (a) the United States is now far ahead; (b) Germany is a good second; (c) the United Kingdom and France have slipped to 4th and 5th place; (d) Asian countries like Japan, South Korea, Singapore, and China amount to a considerable proportion of world trade, largely because of the emergence of the Pacific Rim countries as industrial powers. Ask why Singapore, with an area of 627 square kilometres and a population of less than 3 million should be ahead of China, with an area of 9,500,000 square kilometres and a population of about 120,000,000 people. How does Pakistan compare to the other countries?

The statistics for the export and import figures of Pakistan can be done better as a pie chart, where a circle divide into segments shows the different proportions. This will involve some simple mathematics. If the total export figure for Pakistan is 4950 million US dollars, and of this, 838 million is cotton thread, the percentage of the total is $(838 \times 100/4950 = \text{approximately } 17 \text{ per cent})$. To find the angle for the 'pie', you must work out 17 per cent of 360° : $17/360 \times 100 = 61^\circ$.

Answers to Workbook pp.27–28

1. Individual work. Refer to the map on p.68 of the Pupil's Book for the Commonwealth countries.
2. Graph work. Ask pupils to compare their chart with the one on p.28 of the Pupil's Book.
3. Discussion question. What do world trade figures indicate about the level of wealth and power each country enjoys?
4. (a) and (b) Graph work. (c) Clearly Pakistan suffers from a trade deficit, i.e. it imports more than it exports. Ask pupils to come up with possible solutions to this problem, like government campaigns to promote self-sufficiency, investment in science and technology, etc.

RUSSIA 1850 TO 1916

Points to emphasize

1. Siberian prison camps

This extract is from *The Princess of Siberia* by Christine Sutherland, the biography of Princess Maria Volonsky whose husband, Prince Sergei Volonsky, was sentenced to perpetual banishment in Siberia for his part in an uprising against the Tsar in 1825. The Siberian prison camp was about 10,000 kilometres from St Petersburg where the Volonsky lived, but the young wife was determined to follow her husband. She drove for weeks by sledge or on horseback across the frozen steppes until she finally reached the prison settlement where she lived in a cabin with another noblewoman.

Prison visits to husbands, were restricted to two a week, but each day, whatever the weather, Maria and Katyusha went and sat on a boulder outside the stockade where they could easily be seen from the prison and with luck exchange a few words with their husbands or friends at a distance. The sight was the exiles' only link with the outside world and was a source of enormous comfort.

Next to the political prisoners' enclosure was the enclosure for ordinary criminals:

Maria was upset to see these men walking about in rags within the compound. She bought some cloth and had shirts made for them in the village. When her money was about to run out Maria decided it was time to tackle the dreaded Burnashev [the prison commandment] at the mine headquarters [where the prisoners worked]. 'I presented my accounts to the commandment,' wrote Maria, 'and asked that more of my money be made available for our expenses [As she was not a prisoner, and very rich, she was entitled to have money with the commandment's permission]. I gave him all the accounts; he went over them in great detail, and glared at me furiously when he saw that I had had shirts made for the common criminals. "You have no right to dress serfs who are the property of the crown," he shouted. "If you want to give alms give ten kopecks to the beggars in the church." "Well, monsieur," I answered, "then you had better dress them yourself for I am not in the habit of seeing naked men around me." My reply seemed to convince him, for he smiled . . . and I returned with a good sum of money and provisions . . .'

The situation must be put into perspective, especially when one realizes the appalling temperatures (minus 30°C) which prevail for months on end in this part of the world.

2. Famines

At the turn of the century, a Russian newspaper entitled *Samara Gazette* published as an unimportant piece of news the death of an 18 year old schoolteacher at Novgorod. Her name was A.M. Yeremyva, and the cause of her death was starvation. Her life was much like that of any other village schoolteacher. She was paid seven roubles (US\$4) a month, of which she had to pay three roubles for a tiny room. She had three and a half roubles a month for food and clothing. She could, by eating almost nothing, just manage on this meagre allowance. When, however, the authority did not pay her for two months, she just starved to death. Many other teachers lived in similar conditions. In order to save or rent, some lived in the sheds where the peasants kept their animals. Most camped in one corner of the unheated, filthy schoolroom.

A few years earlier, one of the wealthiest parts of Russia in the Volga Valley suffered a terrible famine. Tens of thousands of peasants died of starvation and many others of diseases like cholera. The Russian nobleman and writer, Count Leo Tolstoy, went to this region to help the starving masses. The government in St Petersburg tried to suppress all news of this disaster and was busy exporting wheat to pay for the building of the railway. 'There is no famine,' the government announced, 'There are some local shortages because of crop failure . . .'

Tolstoy wrote:

The ordinary people are hungry because we [i.e. the wealthy] are too full. All of our palaces, all of our theatres, museums, and our riches we owe to the effort of these same starving people who make all of these things. They will always have to do this kind of work to save themselves from the starvation which is always hanging over their heads . . .

[Adapted from Harrison E. Salisbury's *Russia in Revolution 1900–1930*]

Answers to Workbook p.29

1. (a) Serfdom; (b) Absolutist government of the Tsar; (c) The secret police; (d) The savage rule of the army; (e) The threat of penal settlements in Siberia. Other reasons are corrupt officials and hypocrisy of the Church.
2. (a) Freed the serfs; (b) Permitted the serfs to buy land; (c) Allowed elected councils to run villages. Besides these, he also expanded industry and developed cities.
3. (a) Peasants had to borrow (largely from landlords) to buy land and were more tied to their former masters than ever; (b) village councils were in the hands of officials.
4. Conditions in the new cities were worse than in the villages: lack of water, poor sanitation, shortage of supplies. This created anger and resentment. Long hours and low wages encouraged talk of revolution. Unlike the villagers, who were widely scattered and had little time for discussion, city workers met in large numbers and discussed their grievances.
5. Individual work.
6. Creative work.

WORLD WAR I 1914 TO 1918

32/33

Points to emphasize

1. Causes

Additional reasons for the conflict were: (a) The Austro-Hungarian empire itself was torn by rival nationalist uprisings, as it was made up of so many different races and religions. (b) Russia was struggling to acquire a warm-water port, as its only ports were in the Arctic and the Northern Pacific, both frozen for three months of the year. Russia had tried to break through the Crimean on the Black Sea (1853–1856) but had been halted by France, Turkey, and Britain in the Crimean War; (c) Turkey, the ‘Sick Old Man’ of Europe, as it was known at the time, was breaking up. Its empire, which nominally extended through the Middle East and along the northern coast of Africa, was steadily breaking apart as each area achieved independence. Italy had eyes on the north African Turkish territory of Tripoli, which it seized in 1911. There were several events in Morocco (1905 and 1911), where Germany deliberately provoked France by interfering in French affairs there. These events could have precipitated the war, but they were temporarily smoothed over because Germany was given a strip of relatively useless jungle in Africa (d) There was a constant state of war in the Balkans, with three conflicts in a few short years, in which the small countries often changed sides.

2. Japanese involvement

Japan joined the Western Powers in 1915 and acquired the German concessions and islands in the Pacific. More importantly, perhaps, Japan’s involvement in the war gave it a seat with the victors at the Versailles conference which followed. At the conference, Japan gained more territorial concessions.

3. End of the war

The situation in Russia was critical, owing to military mismanagement. There was total chaos. Many senior officers remained at the capital enjoying themselves, while the soldiers at the front were slaughtered in millions. At last, all semblance of discipline broke down as troops deserted in thousands and returned to their homes, only to find the country paralysed by strikes and uprisings. Lenin and the communists seized power in 1917 (see p.38 of the Pupil’s Book) and

signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany. Germany transferred many troops from the eastern to the western front, but this advantage was more than balanced by the declaration of war by the United States over the sinking of the passenger liner *Lusitania*. The apparently inexhaustible supply of American troops and equipment forced Germany to acknowledge that victory was impossible. Riots, strikes, and mutinies broke out in Germany, and an armistice was agreed upon in November 1918. Everyone knew that it was, in effect, a surrender.

4. Deaths and casualties

Of an estimated 55 million soldiers involved, 10 to 12 million were killed and another 35 million were wounded. In effect, a whole generation of bright young men disappeared. The average life of an officer on the western front was about three days. The loss of potential leaders was bitterly felt in the interwar period (1918–1940).

5. Subcontinental involvement

The campaign in Mesopotamia to capture Baghdad involved large numbers of subcontinental troops. The campaign was badly managed by the senior British officers. At Kut, 6000 Indian and 3000 British troops were captured by the Turks and forced to march to Asia Minor. They were already week from starvation, as their garrison had been besieged for some time before they were taken by the Turks. Of the 9000 soldiers, 5000 died *en route* to prison camps.

6. Social change

This war, with its unbelievable horrors, was a watershed in the history of the west. In it, nobleman and labourer had share the hardships and the terror of the war and had fought together and died together. Until the war, the social life and structure of Europe had been very similar to that of the 19th century and there was steady but slow-paced change. In the 1920 and 1930s, there were dramatic changes. Although the old monarchs and nobles were restored in some areas of Europe, the whole political and social scene had altered irreversibly.

Answers to Workbook pp.30–31

1. Triple Alliance: Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, Italy (until 1915), Bulgaria. Triple Entente: France, Russia (until 1917), Britain, Belgium, the United States (after 1917), Serbia, and Portugal and Japan nominally, although they took no part in the actual fighting.
2. (a) Struggle for colonies; (b) Trade wars; (c) Revenge (France and Germany over Alsace-Lorraine); (d) Alliances. The murder of Archduke Ferdinand can also be mentioned.
3. Tanks, trench warfare, poison gas, submarines, torpedoes, aeroplanes, motor transport. Discuss which of these are the most important in modern warfare; tanks, submarines, and aircraft are generally indispensable in modern warfare.
4. 12,000 kilometres. From Karachi: Tasmania, Brazil, Switzerland and back, Java and back. About 77 days and nights.
5. Everyone, including civilians and the military, are involved. Towns, cities and communication links are all subject to attack and destruction. This topic could generate an interesting class discussion.
6. Discussion question.

Points to emphasize

This is, of course, an incredibly complex subject even for European pupils who are surrounded by much of it. But Versailles is absolutely vital in the history of the 20th century, as much of the subsequent history is a direct result—World War II and the independence of virtually all colonial territories spring from it.

1. The Peace Conference

This was dominated by the Big Four—President Wilson of the USA, Prime Minister Lloyd George of Britain, Clemenceau of France, Orlando of Italy and hovering on the sidelines, the Japanese representative. Their aims were different. The US was untouched by actual fighting, had lost very few men and had made itself very prosperous supplying materials to the western allies. It could afford to be lenient towards the Germans. There was, as always in the US, a domestic element, the German descendant vote was important for any president, who had twice in less than 50 years been ravaged by German forces, demanded revenge, punishment and crippling impositions. Britain and Italy were between these two opposing positions.

Russia

Russia was a complicated factor. After the 1917 Revolution she was well on the way to becoming the first communist state, which was hitherto a totally unknown factor. But it was very ominous, and Western Europe had to be shielded from communism, which was already beginning to surface in Germany itself.

2. Treaty of Versailles

The points to note are:

- (a) The clause blaming Germany to be the only culprit, was undeniably wrong. If any country was really to blame it was Austria, but she was a minor player and anything that could be thrown at Germany was welcome. Germany resented this very much. This was one of Hitler's platforms later when he began to rearm Germany against the terms of Versailles: 'Diktat' (dictated peace—we are not obliged to abide by it).
- (b) The reparations demanded by France (to be paid in goods, especially iron, coal, and steel) were impossible. The industrial areas of Western Germany were to be occupied by French troops until this issue was settled. Again this created bitter resentment in Germany, even though the Germans had done much the same to France in 1871. The debts were never paid: Europe was bankrupt, and kept going by US loans, which were used to pay the US for wartime materials. It was a crazy money merry-go-round!
- (c) Territorial changes: The most significant was the return of Alsace and Lorraine to France, but also a small part of Germany was handed to Denmark.
- (d) German colonies which were not considered to be of much value, were handed to France, Britain, and Japan as mandates. This will need explanation. A mandate did not become the possession of the mandating nation, but the latter was a kind of trustee, looking after and developing the territory with a view to eventually giving it independence. France gained Syria and Lebanon: while Britain gained Palestine, Transjordan and Iraq, with a very strong influence on Egypt. This was particularly bitter for the Arabs of the Middle East, who had been promised independence by Britain and France in return for their help in the war (in which Turkey was defeated). In a series of very deceitful letters the two countries

had promised Arabs independence, and also a homeland for Jews. This was to cause, and is still causing, immense bitterness and bloodshed. Britain took Germany's colonies in East and west Africa. South Africa refused to give up German south-west Africa, and Australia refused the eastern half of New Guinea. Japan seized the German concessions in China and strings of islands in the Pacific.

- (e) New states as a buffer between communist Russia and Western Europe were a disaster. They were weak, and after changing hands for centuries, were a mixture of peoples. There were no natural frontiers such as rivers, and wherever one drew the boundary, there were bound to be millions of ethnic minorities. This was used as an excuse by Germany and Russia for invading Czechoslovakia and Poland in 1938–40.
- (f) The state of Yugoslavia, with its ethnically mixed population and religions (Muslims, Catholics, and Orthodox), was always extremely volatile and unstable.
- (g) Turkey, with its empire already tottering under an autocratic and inefficient administration, was ripe for a new beginning. In 1922 a revolution under Kemal Atatürk evicted the sultan and a dramatic modernization programme began, which is still continuing.

3. League of Nations

The League of Nations is important as the first really serious attempt of modern times to create an international forum for peace. It was the brainchild of President Wilson of the USA, but ironically, the US Congress refused to ratify it, and never joined. This was one of its greatest weaknesses.

The League hoped that nations would use this platform to discuss their disputes and to settle them by negotiations, but nations are not like that unless there is some force. The League had none. All it could do was to apply 'sanctions', that is, to ask member nations not to trade or supply any country that had defied the League's recommendations. This was totally useless, for with fewer than half the countries in the world as members, any goods cut off by one nation would be supplied by a non-member.

It was Eurocentric: Other nations were little more than observers. Its agencies however were more successful and did remarkable work for health, poverty, slavery, and refugees. Perhaps the most important ones were the Court of International Justice and the International Labour Office. These were taken over more or less intact by the UN and flourish today.

Answers to workbook pp. 32–34

1. Refer to bottom of p.34 of the Pupil's Book.
2. (a) Ottoman empire broken up.
(b) Syria and Lebanon to France; Palestine (Israel), Jordan, Iraq, and Egypt to Britain.
3. Countries to be marked: Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Romania, Yugoslavia, and Bulgaria. Together with Poland and the Baltic states, these were to form a barrier between communist Soviet Russia and western Europe.
4. (a) Total humiliation of Germany which was really no more to blame than the others;
(b) Failure to recognize the problems of minorities—Germans in Czechoslovakia, and Poland, Russians in Poland, etc.
(c) Weakness of the eastern European and Balkan states—they could be retaken whenever powerful neighbours wanted.
(d) Germany divided—the powerful East Prussia separated from Germany proper by the Polish corridor—a very important cause of World War II.
(e) Austria, a weak landlocked country, was an obvious prey for a new stronger Germany, especially as the people are of Germanic stock, speaking German. Other causes were:

France's implacable hatred for Germany and its determination to get revenge in every possible way; Germany's bitterness at being stripped off her few colonies.

5. (a) It was run by Europeans who still believe in their own supremacy.
(b) Each member, irrespective of size, had only one representative.
(c) The League had no military force to make nations obey its orders.
(d) The USA and Russia did not join.
(e) Nations could join and leave when they wanted to, or when decisions were taken against them.
6. Individual work.

WORLD WAR I: SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC EFFECTS

36/37

Points to emphasize

1. Historical turning point

World War I is one of the two great turning points of the 20th century. It marked a watershed between the old 19th century way of life that lingered on into the 20th, and the beginning of the world as we know it.

2. Mass production

Explain the terms mass production and the conveyor line method. In the old days, one worker made a car, bolting part A to part B with bolt C, and then fastening part D to part B with bolt E, and so on, building up the whole of the item which he was working on. Under the production line system, the first worker bolted A to B, and then passed the equipment to the next worker, who fastened D to B, and so on. As the system became more sophisticated, the machine being assembled was placed on a moving belt, which took it along a row of workers. At one end was the basic part, and at the other, the finished product emerged. The breakdown into separate operations allowed each of them to be speeded up because the worker became skilled at a single activity and could do it almost automatically without thinking. On the other hand, it became very boring as the process was fast but repetitive. The breaking up of a complex process into a series of simple operations prepared the way for the robotic industry of the 1970s and onwards. Machines, which could do most of these simple, repetitive operations very quickly replaced human workers in the production process.

3. Telephones and radios

The telephone was reasonably well known at the beginning of the war, and telephonists scrambling about the battlefields with reels of wire were commonplace. As wires were very vulnerable to shellfire, researchers devoted a great deal of time and resources to the development of the radio. Although the radio was too cumbersome and delicate for much battlefield work, it was invaluable to the navy: before the development of the radio, there was no way of communicating with bases or with other ships outside the line of vision.

4. Advances in medicine

Medicine, as mentioned in the Pupil's Book, made dramatic advances, largely because so many casualties were expendable. If they survived, so much the better, but if they died, it was perhaps inevitable, and something new was tried. One of the greatest dangers was sepsis, and there was little, before the discovery of penicillin in the late 1930s, that could be done to prevent it.

5. Breakdown of social hierarchy

Although the old class system did not break down after the war, the barriers were weakened by shared experiences on the battlefield. Officers, usually from the wealthier aristocratic class, were more vulnerable than ordinary soldiers. It was reckoned that the average life span of an officer in the front line was three days. Working people felt that they had played a vital part in the war—as indeed they had both in the service and in the factories—and deserved a better life than they had had before.

6. Rise of feminism

The improvement in the social position of women was a very dramatic and important outcome of the war. The campaign in favour of allowing women to vote was in full swing immediately before the war. The Suffragette Movement, as it was called, was largely an upper class movement. During the war, women of all classes showed such remarkable capabilities in heavy industry, factories, farming, driving, and nursing. It was impossible to refuse their demands for some political power. Women over 30 were granted the right to vote in 1918. By 1928, all women above the age of 18 had the right to vote.

Socially, too, there was a remarkable change. Women, with their new-found freedom, wanted to throw off much of the femininity and the 'protection' imposed upon them by society. Bright young women cut their hair short and tried to eliminate their female shape by wearing loose clothing. They did, however, wear heavy make-up, low necklines and dresses that were scandalously short by the standards of pre-war Europe. They smoked and drank in public (unheard of before), danced to jazz music, drove cars (those who could afford them) and some of the wealthiest even flew aeroplanes. They lived a fast life. The period in the 1920s when the fighting was over was called 'The Jazz Age'. Women no longer wanted to work as servants; they wanted to work in offices, shops, and factories where, of course, they came into conflict with the returning soldiers, who were also in search of civilian employment.

7. Industry

The industrial capacity of the European nations had been stretched beyond its limits to make war materials and had built up huge debts. European countries owed the United States vast amounts of money for raw materials. The United States and Japan had taken over much Asian and African trade which, before the war, had been in European hands. Neither countries had taken much active part in the war and had suffered no physical damage. There was an immense economic boom for almost ten years after the war, especially in America, followed by a slump—the Great Depression between 1928 and 1932 that was also significant for the rest of the world (see p.40 of the Pupil's Book).

8. Postwar nationalist movements

Ultra right-wing groups turned Japan into a militaristic police state and began advances into China. China, for much of the interwar period, was torn between the struggles of the warlords and the great conflict between the Nationalists (reactionary forces) and the burgeoning Communists. Afghanistan fought a war against Britain and achieved independence under the Peace of Rawalpindi (1919) and the Treaty of Kabul (1921). The British government initiated some reforms in India after the Amritsar Massacre (1919), but the interwar years were dominated by the independence movement. In south-east Asia, a Nationalist Party was created by Sukarno, who became the first president of Indonesia in 1945. France was having problems with subversive elements, largely communist, in Indo-China (Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia) but repressed them severely. Africa had not yet begun its freedom movement.

Answers to Workbook pp. 35–36

1. Each worker does a single job on the article being manufactured and then passes it on to the next worker. By repeating a single process over and over again, the worker becomes much more skilled at it and can complete his or her task in a shorter time span. As a result, the whole manufacturing process is sped up.
2. The invention of the radio allowed people in remote places to be much more conscious of the events that were taking place in their own countries and the rest of the world. Instead of waiting for newspapers, people heard of events—political, foreign or social—almost as they happened. This raised the awareness of the whole nation. The radio also broadened people’s minds through music, plays, and talk shows. Before, most people had never heard music played, apart from local instrumentalists. Now, they could hear the world’s greatest performers. The General Strike in Britain (1926), when virtually all public workers went on strike, was broken largely because of the radio, which broadcast news of what was happening and advised people on how to avoid problems.
3. Close contact on the battlefield helped to break down the barriers between the aristocracy and the working classes.
4. Clothing and appearance—attempt to throw off femininity and be more like men; behaviour—rejecting the strict attitudes of the Victorian/Edwardian era and shocking the older generation by smoking, drinking, and wild dancing in public. Women also wore ‘shocking’ clothing, like short skirts and low necklines. They demanded more rights, especially the right to vote. They began to compete with men for better jobs.
5. Creative work.
6. Individual work.

RUSSIA 1917 TO 1940

38/39

Points to emphasize

1. Contemporary extracts

A famous Russian clown, Coco, was a boy of 16 at the time of the Revolution. He had been forced into the army and had been wounded. Later, he escaped to Britain where he spent the rest of his life. This is an extract from his autobiography. In 1917, he was in an army hospital in St Petersburg. Food was so short that any soldier who could walk was given any clothing that could be found and turned out into the winter streets. This is how Coco describes the beginning of the Revolution:

I was turned loose in the snows of St Petersburg. But this was a St Petersburg I did not know. The city was starving. Everywhere workers were on strike. Hoardings carried posters warning them to stop their strike on pain of twenty-five years in Siberia, or [execution at the hands of] the firing squad. There were muttering crowds, grey, pinched faces, and wailing children. People, literally starving to death, huddled in the angles of the walls trying to keep off the deadly cold. The streets were thick with snow and ice and everywhere the armed police moved the people on.

. . . As I stood there, shivering, a motor lorry came roaring down the street. It was packed with students, soldiers, and sailors on leave, and a few women. The lorry stopped in the middle of the crowd. A long haired student stood up on a box and addressed the crowd in passionate language. ‘My comrades,’ he cried, ‘the war is being lost. At home they are starring you to death. There is no hope for you! Are you going to stand by and

see your husbands starved to death, your wives dying from the cold and your children trampled underfoot?"

As he finished his long speech, he whipped off the lorry a red cloth which he waved like a banner. I saw that the lorry was full of weapons—bayonets, swords, revolvers, and ammunition.

The crowd seemed to go mad. What cries and cheers came from those poor weak throats . . .

2. Storming of the Winter Palace

The actual seizure of the Winter Palace in St Petersburg was accomplished with remarkably few casualties. The provisional government under Kerensky was so confident that there were only a few officer cadets and a women's regiment guarding the building. Kerensky eventually escaped to America.

3. Russia Civil War

The Russian Civil War was appalling even by the standards of a civil war. The Western Powers intervened in a small way by sending supplies for the White Army. Leon Trotsky was the driving force behind the Revolution and was on every front, urging, cajoling, and driving the Red Army on. His policy after the Civil War was to continue the Revolution—he wanted all countries to have revolutions like Russia so that communism would spread around the world. Lenin, and later Stalin, saw that this was impossible, as there was too much to do at home without fomenting rebellion elsewhere. Stalin and Trotsky were implacable enemies. Trotsky was imprisoned and eventually escaped to Mexico in 1929. However, Stalin's enmity followed him. In 1940, a communist agent posing as his gardener murdered him—bizarrely enough, by driving an ice axe into his head.

4. Stalin

Lenin did not want either Trotsky or Stalin to succeed him. But Stalin, as Lenin became progressively weaker, managed to get his own men into key offices, thus enabling him to seize power on Lenin's death. He was undoubtedly, in some respects, mad—but perhaps only a madman could have pulled the country of the political and economic quagmire of recent decades. He was fanatical in his purges, and persecuted Red officers, Lenin's ministers, wealthy peasants, and all those who resisted collectivization.

5. Collectivization

All peasant holdings in one district were combined into one huge farm on which all of the people worked. It was grossly inefficient, and even today, decades after the abolition of collective farms, Russian agriculture still cannot feed the entire population. Collective farms were run by committees, consisting usually of bureaucrats in Moscow which became the capital under communism. An example was given to me by a friend who visited the Soviet Union in the 1970. A collective farm was given an order from Moscow to plant 1000 hectares of wheat. As there were few tractors available, the last of the grain was not sown until the summer. In autumn came the order to harvest 1000 hectares—much of which was still green and only 30 centimetres high. The cutting went on until early winter when half of the crop was totally useless.

6. Five-Year Plans

There is no doubt that the Five-Year Plans were successful—but at an incredibly high human cost. The first two Five-Year Plans focussed on equipment and materials for industrial development:

	<u>1928</u>	<u>1938</u>
Oil	11 million tonnes/year	31 million tonnes/year
Coal	30 million tonnes/year	150 million tonnes/year
Steel	5 million tonnes/year	17 million tonnes/year
Grain	20 million tonnes/year	40 million tonnes/year
Tractors	1300 units/years	32,000 units/years
Machine tools	2000 units/years	45,000 units/years
Railways	77,000 kilometres	96,000 kilometres
Roads	25,000 kilometres	88,000 kilometres

Ask pupils to make comparative bar charts of these two sets of figures.

7. Communism versus Nazism

It is impossible to emphasize enough the implacable hatred between the communist regime and the Nazis. Their ideologies were at extreme ends of the political spectrum. It was the belief that Germany would never dare to attack the west for fear of a Soviet invasion in the east, that helped to make Britain and France so complacent in the late 1930s. The signing of the Russo-Nazi Pact in 1939 shattered the confidence of the west. The partition of Poland between the two was the immediate cause of World War II: Britain and France issued an ultimatum to Germany to withdraw or they would declare war. Germany refused, and the war began.

8. Answers to Workbook pp. 37–38

1. To get Russia out of World War I so that the troops on the eastern front could be transferred to the west before the United States could build up its strength after entering the war. Lenin, who was in exile in Switzerland, was smuggled in a sealed railway carriage to Russia. The Germans knew that he would start a revolution which would probably overthrow the government and take Russia out of the war.
2. (a) Kerensky—a moderate leader who took over the Russian government after the February Revolution; (b) Lenin—a fanatical communist leader who almost single-handedly established the communist state by sheer force of his personality; (c) Trotsky—an extreme communist leader who favoured spreading the Revolution to other countries. He masterminded the Red Army in the Civil War; (d) Stalin—a ruthless communist who seized power on Lenin's death and drove the Soviet Union with an iron hand until his death in 1953.
3. Tell pupils how Stalin quietly and unobtrusively slipped his nominees into key positions as Lenin's health declined. He ruthlessly eliminated anyone who might challenge him for power, like senior military and political leaders. The powerful Russian Church was more or less abolished so he encountered no resistance from the religious front.
4. The Five-Year Plans were harsh plans to increase Russia's industrial power. They were implemented regardless of human cost.
5. Individual work.

Points to emphasize

Although this is a difficult spread, it is crucial because the events described in it led directly to World War II which was the pivotal turning point of the 20th century. The Great Depression is difficult for pupils to understand. The American economy just ‘over-heated’—money came so easily that people poured cash into almost any business and made a profit. Banks loaned money for these projects without adequate safeguards. American loans poured into Europe to finance regeneration so countries could repay the United States for equipment and supplies during the war.

1. Wall Street Crash

No one is quite sure how the Wall Street Crash began but in days the whole tottering structure of the American economy collapsed. It is thought that some powerful investors saw that the boom could not go on forever and withdrew their money. Agriculture and prices of raw material were already falling. A few investors saw that their wealth was really only paper money—i.e., stocks and shares – and not real wealth. They sold their securities when prices were high; these shares flooded the market and made prices fall. This sparked panic as many others tried to unload their shares, which caused prices to fall further, until many shares were virtually worthless. Crowds of people went to withdraw money from banks, and thousands went bankrupt. Businesses of all kinds were forced to close.

Prosperity depends on people being able to *buy* goods. Now there were so many out of work that they could no longer afford to buy consumer goods. This resulted in more closures and more unemployment. The whole process was a gigantic spiral. By 1932, there were 12 million people out of work in the United States and millions more on part-time or pitifully low-paying jobs. Industry was down to less than half of its 1929 level and 32,000 companies and 5000 banks went bankrupt.

2. Worldwide effects of the Great Depression

(a) The collapse of Europe’s industry, which was dependent on American money. (b) Silk and cotton prices collapsed in Japan and China. (c) Coffee prices collapsed in Brazil. (d) Meat prices collapsed in all of South America. (e) Wool prices collapsed in Australia and New Zealand. (f) Cocoa prices collapsed in west Africa. (g) Tin and rubber prices collapsed in Indonesia.

The prices of these and other goods collapsed because people could not afford to purchase them, first in the United States, and then in the rest of the world. It is estimated that there were 30 million people in the world without money or food. At the same time, farmers were burning millions of tonnes of crops in an effort to force prices back up through shortage.

3. Roosevelt’s New Deal Programme

Franklin D. Roosevelt was elected president in 1932 in the hope that he could do something about the Depression. He organized the New Deal Programme, which was based on the ideas of the English economist, Maynard Keynes, whose proposals had been rejected by the British government. Keynes argued that in times of recession, when businesses could not make a profit because there was little money, the government should employ people on public works, such as making roads, bridges, dams, electricity schemes, parks and so on. When these people were earning, even though paid out of tax funds, they could start buying again and factories

would once more supply them with new goods. These factories would employ yet more people, who in turn would have money to spend. And thus the economy would recover. This is what happened in the United States. Since World War II, many countries have adopted Keynesian economics in an effort to pull their countries out of economic slumps.

4. Rise of dictators

People wanted strong leadership rather than the long-drawn-out democratic process. They wanted men who could get things done at once. The answer was in dictatorships. There is no doubt too that Europe had lost its best men in World War I—a whole generation of potential leaders were dead. It was largely the elderly—(men left over from the previous generation)—who were in charge. They did not realize that the world had changed. Some dictators came to power legitimately through elections, like Hitler, and then abolished the democratic process so that they could not be removed from office. Some, like Mussolini of Italy, just assumed power.

5. The League of Nations

The League of Nations, though admirable in principle, had no power to enforce its decisions. The most it could do was to impose sanctions, i.e. tell member countries to stop trading with a particular state that had infringed the rules. Sanctions were ineffective and less than half of the countries of the world were members, and the most powerful ones like the United States and Russia would gladly take over the trade which the other countries had dutifully stopped.

Answers to Workbook pp. 39–40

1. The correct order is: (c), (b), (a), (f), (h), (g), (d), (e).
2. (a) Unemployment; (b) Failure of businesses; (c) Poverty. Worldwide economic slump can also be mentioned.
3. The Depression led to unemployment, discontent, poverty, and riots. Dictators offered a quick solution and could get things done at once as they had absolute power and there was no need for slow democratic discussion. Their answers were rearmament, expansion of the armed forces and such public works as would facilitate military movements. To divert attention from their harsh methods (prison camps and spies) and regimentation, national pride was encouraged through territorial conquests.
4. (a) The League had no real power; (b) Fewer than half the countries of the world belonged to it. Other reasons were: countries could leave if they disagreed with its decisions; the United States and Russia were not members so sanctions were useless.
5. The rise of nationalism, especially in Asia, and demands for independence. This movement was most powerful in the subcontinent where there was an intellectual elite.

EVENTS LEADING TO WORLD WAR II

42/43

Points to emphasize

This is another difficult topic. All of the points raised are important, but teachers may select those which they feel are relevant.

1. Causes

The underlying causes have been dealt with in previous spreads: the Great Depression p.41; the irreconcilable differences between Communism and Fascism (Nazism) p.40; German anger

over the injustices of Versailles p.34; Japan p.28; and the weakness of the League of Nations p.42.

2. Japanese threat

Japan occupied Manchuria (1931) and in 1937 invaded Southern China. This was very close to the European colonies of France (Indo-China), the Dutch (Indonesia) and the British (Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore, and Burma), and in the worst imaginable situation, the subcontinent. All three European powers moved considerable military forces to Asia, thereby weakening their military presence in Europe.

3. German rearmament

A firm stand by Britain and France here might have stopped Hitler but none came. The governments were too weak and hesitant and, in Britain at least, it was felt that a strong Germany was a barrier against communist Russia, which was considered the greater threat.

4. Failure of the League of Nations

In 1934, Italy invaded the African state of Ethiopia for two reasons: to divert attention from the problems at home and to avenge a humiliating defeat by the Ethiopians when Italy had tried to conquer the country in 1896. The failure of the League of Nations, both here and when Japan invaded China, marking the end of the League and its policy of 'collective security'. It gave the dictators *carte blanche* to do as they pleased.

5. Spanish Civil War

In 1936, the fascist general, Franco of Spain, rebelled against the socialist government. There was a terrible civil war. Both Germany and Italy sent military reinforcements. During the war, they tried out new weapons and military techniques. It was here that dive bombing, so effective in World War II, was first experimented with. The world's first mass air raid (by German bombers) took place on the holy Spanish city of Guernica. Picasso's famous painting *Guernica* commemorates this event and can be shown to pupils. It should be in any book on 20th century art.

6. Anti-Comintern Pact

The Anti-Comintern (i.e. anti-communism) Pact had no immediate effect, but it did guard the interests of all three nations and put pressure on Russia. Italy was always the weak link in the treaties among the major European powers. During the war, Germany had to come to its rescue, and it was through Italy that the Allies broke into 'Fortress Europe'.

7. Occupation of Austria

Austria was occupied in 1938. It was a German-speaking country, and in a *coup*, an Austrian Nazi had seized control of the country. The Austrians were not generally reluctant as they too felt badly treated after World War II.

8. Events of 1938

Versailles had 'created' the state of Czechoslovakia, which had a large German presence of 3 million. With Austria in German hands, the western half of Czechoslovakia was encircled by Nazi territory. Hitler demanded the surrender of the German areas of Czechoslovakia (Sudetenland). As well as German unity, he had his eyes on the Skoda arms factories located in this region, as they were the largest in Europe. He massed troops on the border.

Czechoslovakia appealed to its French allies for help, but France would not initiate anything without Britain. The prime ministers of Britain and France met Hitler and under the Munich Agreement (1938), agreed, without consulting Czechoslovakia, to give Hitler what he wanted. This measure is called 'appeasement'. In return, Hitler assured that he had no more territorial ambitions. Within three weeks of the agreement, however, he was organizing the seizure of the rest of Czechoslovakia, which was now defenceless. It had lost 90 per cent of its fuel resources and 50 per cent of its industry when the Sudetenland was handed over to Germany. The Czech capital, Prague, was now within 50 kilometres of the new German frontier. While the British prime minister, Neville Chamberlain, has been reviled ever since for giving in to appeasement, there is a feeling among some people that it was just a stalling tactic. He was aware how totally unprepared for war Britain was, and this gave him a year to make preparations. Historians still have heated arguments over the policy of appeasement.

Pupils might like to discuss appeasement. Can it be justified under certain circumstances? What about innocent hostages seized by fanatical groups who are trying to force their will on the vast majority?

9. Albania

Mussolini of Italy, by far the weaker partner, attacked tiny Albania. When he encountered resistance in Greece, he was aided by the Germans.

10. Poland

The hope that Hitler would not attack Poland because of his fear of Russia was shattered by the pact between Stalin and Hitler. Britain and France warned that if Germany did not withdraw from Poland they would declare war. Accordingly, war broke out in September 1939 when Hitler refused to retreat.

11. German Propaganda

It might be worth mentioning some of the ways in which Hitler and the Nazis encouraged enthusiasm for the party: (a) the proclamation that they (the Germans) were the Master Race of Aryans; (b) the claim that they had been unfairly treated at the Versailles Peace Conference (there was some justification here); (c) their expansionist measures to unite all Germans in one state; (d) their finding a scapegoat—the Jews, almost 5 million of whom were exterminated in concentration camps; (e) the inculcation of militarism from an early age by youth organizations; (f) great spectacles and rallies: the love of great parades and military bands seems deep in the Teutonic psyche.

12. Winston Churchill

Chamberlain fell from office in 1940, and the much more aggressive Winston Churchill was made prime minister of Britain. In his first speech to Parliament in that capacity he said:

I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears, and sweat . . . We have before us an ordeal of the most grievous kind . . . You ask, 'What is our policy?' I will say it is to wage war by sea, land, and air, with all our might and with all the strength that God can give us . . . You ask, 'What is our aim?' I can answer in one word: Victory—victory at all costs, victory in spite of all terror; victory, however long and hard the road may be; for without victory there is no survival.

13. Summary points

The main facts for pupils to take note of are: (a) Germany's aggressive expansionism; (b) the weakness of the Western Powers; (c) the collapse of the League of Nations; (d) American isolationism.

Answers to Workbook pp. 41–42

1. Countries seized by Germany: Sudetenland—the western tip of Czechoslovakia bordering Germany itself (1938); Austria (1938); rest of Czechoslovakia (1939); Poland (1939).
2. (a) The Depression, which caused massive unemployment: governments had to find jobs for people, and the army and weapons factories seemed a good source of employment; (b) the implacable hatred of communism and fascism (see p.40); (c) both Germany and Austria felt that they had been too severely treated in the Treaty of Versailles; (d) the rise of dictatorships, militarism and aggression in Japan after its invasion of China; (e) the impotence of the League of Nations which stood by helpless in the face of aggression because major powers such as the United States and the Soviet Union were not members. There was also the weakness of other members who were not prepared to do anything for the common good.
3. The Japanese invasion and occupation of Manchuria and later of Southern China without any response from other nations (apart from a token condemnation) seemed to show the world that naked aggression did pay.
4. A minority in this sense is a number of people of one ethnic, language or religious group forcibly living in the territory of another. Often minorities are persecuted or at best suffer some form of discrimination. There were many Germans, Russians, and Hungarians living in the areas which were made into the new states of Czechoslovakia and Poland by the Treaty of Versailles. These were seized upon by Germany and Russia as a pretext for invasion.
5. Pupils can name few ways: Germany's resentment at being blamed for World War I; the seizure of Alsace-Lorraine from France; the French occupation of the Rhineland; Germany was stripped of all major military forces; minority issues in the new states of Poland and Czechoslovakia; Germany split by the Polish Corridor; Austria's resentment at harsh treatment.
6. Creative work.

WORLD WAR II

44/45

Points to emphasize

1. Contemporary extracts

Detailed histories of the events of World War II can be found in many books for those who would like more information. Perhaps more important are contemporary extracts which demonstrate the brutality—as well as the compassion—of all peoples. The following are extracts from various sources. They might stimulate some class discussion on the futility of war, from the individual point of view (the young pilot's account) to the wholesale destruction of a society (the Hiroshima extract on pp. 47–48). Pupils might like to talk about whether war can ever be justified—on the grounds of religion, territorial expansion, ideology (Communism, Nazism), personal aggrandizement, etc. The discussion might be extended to a consideration of broader issues: does anyone have the right to take the life of another person (judicial execution, euthanasia, self-protection, protection of property, defence of political/social/religious beliefs)?

Below is a young pilot's account of his first flight into action in the Battle of Britain (1940). He was later killed.

In a few seconds we were running for our machines. I climbed into the cockpit of my plane and felt an empty sensation of suspense in the pit of my stomach. For one second time seemed to stand still and I stared blankly in front of me. I knew that that morning I was to kill for the first time. That I might be killed or in any way injured did not occur to me. I suppose that every pilot knows that. Knows that it cannot happen to him: even he is taking off for the last time, when he will not return, he knows he cannot be killed. I wondered idly what he was like, this man I would kill. Was he young, was he fat, would he die with the Fuehrer's [Hitler's] name on his lips . . . I would never know. Then I was strapped in, my mind automatically checking the controls, and we were off.

[from *The Last Enemy* by Richard Hillary]

As the war turned against the Japanese, they became desperate. An American general describes capturing some caves on a small island held by the Japanese:

Thousands of litres petrol were poured down the hole leading to the caverns and then set alight. Colonel Kuzme [Japanese commander] ordered all the able-bodied soldiers to leave the caves and launch a final counter-attack. He distributed hand grenades to the wounded so that they kill themselves. He burned all documents and the regimental flag. Then he knelt and disembowelled himself with his own warrior's sword. Just at daybreak some of the survivors issued from the cave . . . there were only twelve [American] soldiers on guard, but they stood firm as the screaming Japanese swept frenziedly down the trail. Machine guns, rifles, and grenades were used calmly and effectively . . . morning light disclosed 109 enemy soldiers had been killed. We lost one man – a Japanese jumped into his foxhole and exploded a grenade which killed them both . . .

Answers to Workbook pp. 43–44

1. Refer to the chart on p.44 of the Pupil's Book.
2. (a) Battle of El Alamein; (b) Battle of Stalingrad; (c) Battle of Coral Sea.
3. Hitler's mistakes: attacking Russia; moving troops from the successful campaign in north Africa to Russia; invading Russia as winter approached.
4. The Allies wanted to avoid invading Japan. The fanatical resistance of the Japanese in the Pacific islands led the Allies to believe that there would be a million Allied casualties if they invaded Japan. They felt that bombing Japan would bring a quick end to the war.
5. After the bombing of Nagasaki, the world entered the nuclear age. The world now had the technology to destroy all civilization. Some scientists thought that a huge nuclear atomic explosion might even trigger a chain reaction that would destroy the Earth itself. The nuclear age also heralded a new era of prosperity, when power would be available cheaply for everyone through nuclear power stations.
6. Individual work. Dictators felt that they could, through indoctrination in early childhood, control the future. Children trained to support them would grow up to support them as adults too.

Points to emphasize**1. The nuclear age**

The atom bomb was developed in the United States by a team of international scientists. When the conflict reached the stage where Japan itself would have to be invaded, the example of the fanatical suicidal resistance of the Japanese soldiers on the islands led military leaders to expect about one million Allied casualties in landings on the Japanese homeland. Against this, the use of the atom bomb would release a whole new era of warfare. It was not just the number of deaths it would cause, as the conventional bombing of Dresden in Germany killed about a quarter of a million people. What worried the Allied leaders was what would happen subsequently. In the event, it was decided to go ahead with the bombing of Hiroshima, and a few days later, Nagasaki. Perhaps the full implications of the atom bomb had not been realized. Only an eyewitness account brings the full horror to light.

2. Hiroshima

At 8:15 am on 6 August 1945, a lone B29 (US bomber) flew high over Hiroshima. As they frequently did this, no one was particularly afraid. Many children remember casually glancing up and noticing what appeared to be a parachute falling from the plane. It was, of course, the first atom bomb. No one knows how many died, although the estimates range from 100,000 to 120,000 people. The fortunate ones were instantly transformed into vapour; the less fortunate died of burns or radiation sickness over the next few weeks. The following extract was written by a young girl named Atsuko Tsujioka in 1950. At the time of the explosion, she was in secondary school and about the same age as your pupils.

I felt as though I had been struck on the back with something like a big hammer, and thrown into boiling oil . . . everything around me was smothered in black smoke ... My chest hurt and I could barely breathe, and I thought, 'This is the end.' I pressed my chest tightly and lay face down on the ground and ever so many times I called for help.

Mother . . . Mother . . . Father . . .,' but of course there was no reply. This time I was really resigned to the thought that I was done for, but as I lay face down on the ground, suddenly there drifted into my mind the smiling face of my littlest sister who is dead now. Oh, I recovered my senses. Through darkness like the bottom of Hell, I could hear the voices of other students calling for their mothers. I immediately got up and without any definite idea of escaping I just frantically ran in the direction they were all taking . . .

At the base of the bridge, inside a big cistern that had been built there, was a mother weeping and holding above her head a naked baby that was badly burned bright red all over its body . . . In the cistern the students stood with only their heads above the water and their hands . . . screaming for their parents. But every single person who passed was wounded . . . and there was no one to turn to for help. The singed hair on people's head was frizzled up and whitish, and covered with dust—from their appearance you couldn't believe these were human creatures . . . I looked at my two hands and found them covered with blood, and from my arms something that looked like rags was hanging [skin] and inside I could see the healthy-looking flesh with its mingled colours of red, white, and black . . . Shocked, I put my hand into my dress pocket to get out my handkerchief, but there was no handkerchief, nor pocket either.

My clothes were burned off at my hips. I could feel my face swelling up but there was nothing that I could do about it . . .

Even now the scars of those wounds remain over my whole body. On my head, my face, my arms, my legs, and my chest. As I stroke these blackish-red raised scars . . . and as every time I look in a mirror and see this face of mine which is not like my face and think that never again will I be able to see my former face and that I have to live my life forever in this condition, it becomes too sad to bear.

[Taken from *Children of the A-Bomb*, compiled by Arata Osada]

3. Nuclear power

Nuclear power is, in effect, a nuclear bomb but vastly slowed down. This process produces vast amounts of heat which boils water in boilers, the steam from which turn conventional turbines that drive the dynamos. Nuclear power merely replaces the gas, oil or coal boiler. Nuclear power has always been tricky because of the immense dangers of radiation—the real horrors of this were learned only after Hiroshima. Many safety precautions have to be taken, and in the end human error is unavoidable—as it was at the explosion at the Three Mile Island nuclear plant in the United States and, worst of all, Chernobyl in the Soviet Union. Here, more than a decade later, many thousands of hectares of land are still unusable because of scattered radioactive material.

4. Industrialization of Asia

After the war, Europe was too busy repairing its own shattered economy to supply Asia with goods as it had done in the past. The United States was also preoccupied with military and space research, so Asia, especially after independence, quietly industrialized. The extremely low wages in Japan, Taiwan, South Korea, Singapore, and Malaysia (at first at least) enabled goods to be produced much more cheaply than in western factories. As a result, Asian goods seized much of the world markets, especially in electronics, optics, textiles, and in heavy goods such as shipping and steel (from Korea and Taiwan). The export figures on p.47 of the Pupil's Book do not give a perfect picture, as the 1958 numbers are at the prevailing values of currency, and since then there has been massive inflation. Malaysia's increase is less than the others because it was a prosperous producer of tin and other metals, rubber, tea, and coffee even before the war.

5. New Products

The new products described on p.47 of the Pupil's Book were discussed before the war; some were even at crude stages of development in the late 1930s. The war, however, provided a stimulus. Under normal circumstances, these inventions might have taken half a century to develop. The story of penicillin, the first antibiotic drug, which literally saved millions of lives during the war, might interest pupils.

A British doctor, Alexander Fleming, was experimenting with growing colonies of bacteria in his laboratory. These germs are grown on a nutrient jelly in a flat covered dish. Fleming accidentally left the cover from one Petri dish on his bench near an open window in London after it had been inoculated with the bacteria he wanted to use. When he discovered the open dish, he replaced the lid, but in that short space of time, a spore of the penicillin mould (which was already known as a minor and useless organism) must have fallen on the jelly. The bacteria with which the jelly had been inoculated grew steadily, and began to cover its surface, but then, as the unknown mould began to develop, the others died. Fleming was clever enough to grasp the significance of this, and made the substance in minute quantities. When the war

broke out, the British government was forced to reveal this secret to the Americans, who had the industrial/laboratory capacity to produce penicillin in large quantities.

Answers to Workbook pp. 45–47

1. Refer to the last photograph on p.47 of the Pupil's Book.
2. Class discussion.
3. The term 'Cold War' refers to the hostility between the United States and the Soviet Union. As both sides could have resorted to nuclear warfare (but never did), the whole world at risk.
4. Pakistan power: 43 per cent hydroelectric; 57 per cent thermal; 1 per cent nuclear. If a bar chart of 20 centimetres is made, 8.6 centimetres will be hydroelectric, 11.4 thermal and 2 millimetres nuclear.
5. Individual work.
6. Bar chart of Pakistan's main industrial output: Pakistan seems to be lacking in the electronics and high-technology industries perhaps because Japan has become so well-established in these fields, and there is a shortage of skilled labour in Pakistan.
7. They feared competition. Colonies were regarded as sources of raw materials. It was for this reason that a fine railway network—the best in Asia—was built in India by the British. It facilitated the movement of raw materials to the ports quickly, easily, and cheaply.

NATIONALISM AND DECOLONIZATION –

SOUTH-EAST ASIA

48/49

Points to emphasize

1. Early freedom movements

Small communist independence movements were started in south-east Asia in the 1920s as part of Lenin's policy of taking potential leaders from that area to Moscow for instruction in communism. He hoped that they would return to their countries and stir up rebellion against the colonial powers, thus weakening them. These small-scale movements were curtailed, particularly by the French, with severe punishments.

2. The Japanese example

The lightning conquest of south-east Asia by Japan at first, encouraged the local inhabitants, as the Japanese set up committees and councils. It was soon obvious, that these were only to restrict guerrilla movements. The people realized that their new masters were even worse than the old ones. Despite promise of independence to some unspecified times, the people of south-east Asia were kept savagely under the heel of Japan, and more escaped to the jungle to join the guerrilla groups. At Japan's surrender, these groups came out of the jungle and did excellent work in rounding up the Japanese. They were not prepared to accept any authority other than their own.

3. Sukarno of Indonesia

Sukarno, who had been trained in Japan during the war, assumed power, and though the Dutch tried to reach a settlement on the basis of a union with Holland, negotiations broke down and a two-year war followed. The Dutch eventually surrendered, and Sukarno set up the independent Republic of Indonesia.

4. Indo-China

The French in Indo-China were very reluctant to give up control. A Japanese nominee, Bao Dai, claimed to be president, but was opposed by one of the most brilliant politicians of the age, Ho Chi Minh. War broke out between Ho Chi Minh's communist party (allied with the nationalists) and the French. Ho Chi Minh's troops were driven back by the superior weaponry of the French until 1949, when the communist victory in China meant that help for Ho Chi Minh could stream across the border.

French incompetence in this war was incredible: their elite forces established their main base in a hollow surrounded by hills at Dien Bien Phu, 300 kilometres from the capital, Hanoi. There was no real road access, and the troops had to be supplied by air. Ho Chi Minh and his Vietminh army were very suspicious that this might be a trick for, if the French had searched the whole of the country, they could not have found a more impractical base. When they were certain that there was no serious strategy, the Vietminh easily forced the French to surrender. It was the most decisive battle in Asia since Clive at Plassey in 1757.

5. Conference at Geneva

At a conference in Geneva it was decided that Vietnam should be divided into a communist north under Ho Chi Minh and an American-dominated south, along the 17th parallel. Laos and Cambodia also achieved nominal independence. The American nominees in the south were totally corrupt, and many people looked longingly at the poorer, but seemingly honest, north.

6. Vietnam War

In 1958, war broke out between North Vietnam and South Vietnam. The Americans sent 'advisers' to assist South Vietnam, followed by massive numbers of troops and supplies. While the South Vietnamese army and their American allies could always win the pitched battles because of their superior military strength, the Viet Cong (the North Vietnamese army) usually took back most of the gains at night. The United States tried everything short of nuclear weapons in its attempt to halt what it saw as the creeping threat of communism over Asia. The jungle was sprayed from the air with Agent Orange, which stripped all the leaves from the trees so that the enemy could be spotted. This chemical also caused terrible birth deformities for years to come. Napalm, a flaming substance which stuck to people's bodies and burned them alive, was also sprayed everywhere. It was a vicious war – so much so that immense opposition to it built up in America. It was largely domestic opposition that caused the Americans to withdraw in about 1972. Again, the country was divided as before, but in 1975 the communist north swept into the south and quickly captured the whole country.

7. Effects of the Vietnam War

The effect on the mighty and seemingly invincible United States was shattering. They had been defeated by a small Asian country with an ill-equipped army and virtually no planes or tanks. Even today, almost thirty years later, Vietnam is a highly emotive issue and continues to colour much American politics.

8. Korean War

The story was much the same in Korea, which was also divided in half with a communist north and an American-dominated south. As China was nearby, troops could cross into North Korea to help the communist side. Massive American involvement, together with troops from other

countries under the United Nations flag, fought an indecisive and bloody war for three years, only to end up again along the 38th parallel from which they had begun. The position remains much the same today, with desperately poor North Korea under one of the most repressive communist dictatorships in the world. South Korea, under a democratic regime, has become one of the most prosperous countries in south-east Asia with the fastest-growing industrial economy in the world.

Answers to Workbook pp. 48–50

1. The feeling that people of one race, religion, and language should govern themselves as a single country and not be under the control of foreigners.
2. War by irregular methods; usually small groups of men acting more or less independently. Although they cannot fight pitched battles, they hinder the enemy by surprise attacks, ambushes, and the sabotage of communications. They are often local men who know the countryside and can inflict the maximum amount of damage in jungles and difficult terrain.
3. (a) North Korea, occupied by communist troops at the end of World War II; (b) South Korea, occupied by American troops at the end of World War II; (c) China, which became communist in 1949; (d) 38th parallel—the dividing line between North and South Korea.
4. (a) France. (b) French troops eventually came back to reclaim their colony but were defeated by the Vietnamese. (c) Laos; Cambodia; Vietnam.
5. They decided that Laos and Cambodia should be independent, but divided Vietnam into a communist north and a democratic south along the 17th parallel.
6. The Americans feared a domino effect—that one country after another would become communist.
7. The United States and South Vietnam were defeated. South Vietnam remained independent for a few more years but was conquered by the North in 1975.
8. Britain and the United States gave independence to their colonies by peaceful negotiations, whereas France and Holland fought wars to preserve their overseas territories.
9. Individual work.

THE UNITED NATIONS AND THE COLD WAR

50/51

Points to emphasize

1. Atlantic Charter

In 1942, Winston Churchill met President Roosevelt on a warship in the mid-Atlantic. They discussed the state of the world ‘after’ the war. This was perhaps exaggerated optimism, for Britain, stood alone against Germany, and the United States was still neutral. A world organization was one of the ideas they discussed—and so, the United Nations was born in what was called the Atlantic Charter.

2. Learning from the past

The UN realized that one of the weaknesses of the League of Nations was its domination by European countries, especially Britain and France. Accordingly, every nation, from China with nearly one billion people, to Syria with two million, had one vote in the General Assembly. But the UN recognized that some nations were of various reasons, more important than others, and so the United States, the Soviet Union, France, Britain, and China were made permanent

members of the 'cabinet' with a right of veto. These nations were originally selected because they had taken an active part in World War II. A serious problem of the UN now is whether to include Japan and Germany on the Security Council as permanent members. They were initially excluded because they were 'enemy' countries, but they are now the second and third most powerful nations economically to the United States. Should, for example, Britain and France be dropped to make room for them? Discuss this issue with a good class.

The other ten members of the Security Council are elected to give as wide a representation as possible, including rich and poor, developed and underdeveloped, eastern and western, communist and non-communist, nations. This has, in general, worked well.

3. Secretary-General

The Secretary-General, who wields immense power, is traditionally chosen from one of the smaller countries—like Norway, Sweden, Myanmar, Peru, and Egypt. So far, no female Secretary-General has been nominated.

4. Direct intervention

The only actual fighting the UN has been involved in directly, as a matter of policy, was in the Korean War. When Japan surrendered Korea, which was one of its colonies, it was occupied by Russian communist troops in the north and American troops in the south, with the frontier along the 38th parallel. The Potsdam Conference (1945) decided that elections should be held in Korea to determine its future, and both Russian and American forces withdrew. But the north refused to join the elections, so the country remained divided.

When the communists came to power in China in 1949, the whole situation changed, as the communist north now had a frontier with friendly communist China. Its troops invaded the south, and the United States rushed in to help its ally. Troops from a dozen other countries helped the south, but the great majority of them were American. The American government persuaded the UN to make this an official UN army. After a savage three-year war in which the battle swung from the Chinese border to the southern tip of Korea, a ceasefire was arranged—with no change in the boundary and hundreds of thousands of deaths. Thus the situation remains today, and a UN peace-keeping force still patrols the region. It might be worth mentioning that American foreign policy at this time was dominated by the 'domino theory': Asia was like a row of dominoes or bricks; if one country became communist, it would trigger off a series of other communist 'conversions' in neighbouring areas.

5. Communist Russia

Russia, despite its apparent strength in 1945, was in fact very weak. The destruction of its industry, communications, and agriculture and the loss of many millions of troops, had made it very vulnerable after World War II. A concerted push by the Western Allies would almost certainly have defeated it (as Churchill advocated). But after four years of war, Europe was war-weary and had no will to fight again for a mere political principle. Fighting for freedom from Nazi/Japanese tyranny was one thing, but merely to decide whether capitalism or communism was the dominant political force was another.

Answers to Workbook pp. 51–52

1. The Security Council is a 15-person 'cabinet' of the General Assembly. It makes major decisions which are later sent to the General Assembly for approval. It has the power of veto. The United States, the Soviet Union, China, France, and Britain—because they were the major participants in World War II.

2. Creative work.
3. Individual work.
4. Their political systems were diametrically opposed. Both were competing in the arms race; both wanted to be the dominant power in the world.
5. Russia planned to install nuclear missiles in its ally, Cuba, which was only 150 kilometres from the American mainland. The United States had nuclear bases in Europe which brought most of the important cities and industries of the Soviet Union within range. If Russia had not backed down, there would almost certainly have been a nuclear war.
6. Individual work. Ask pupils to share their options with the rest of the class.

CHINA SINCE 1920

52/53

Points to emphasize

1. Mao Zedong and the Long March

Early in the 1920s, Jiang Jie Shi's Kuomintang allied themselves with the young Communist Party because they needed the help of the peasants and workers against the warlords. In 1927, Jiang Jie Shi suddenly turned on the communists in Shanghai and other cities, killing many thousands of them and forcing the rest into hiding. The Communist Party fell from about 60,000 members to only 10,000.

One man who escaped these purgings was the young Mao Zedong. He retreated into the interior and, with only a few supporters at first, began to build up the Red Army. His followers were mostly members of the peasantry. They were constantly attacked by the Kuomintang and, in the last assault, were forced into enduring the terrible Long March to the remote north-west, 13,000 kilometres away. This march only compares with Napoleon's retreat from Moscow in 1812.

2. Treatment of peasants

The Long March was an incredible feat of endurance. Mao issued orders that nothing was to be forcibly taken away from the peasants and everything had to be paid for generously. Peasants were assisted and treated extremely well. This was probably good politics rather than pure altruism. About 30,000 survivors of the Long March reached the relative safety of Shensi province, where they often had to hide out in caves.

3. Japanese threat

In 1936, Jiang Jie Shi was forced by his own Kuomintang Party to cooperate with Mao Zedong to fight the Japanese, but virtually nothing was done. For about 10 years, Mao's followers settled in the inhospitable countryside, supporting themselves and even setting up a university.

4. Civil War resumes

Within days of dropping the atomic bomb on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Russia declared war on Japan and occupied Manchuria, collecting vast amounts of Japanese weapons. These they cleverly allowed the Chinese communist forces to 'seize'.

The United States tried desperately to prevent the resumption of the Chinese Civil War, but Mao Zedong and Jiang Jie Shi were irreconcilable. Most people realized that the rule of the corrupt Kuomintang would mean a continuation of the old landlord system and all the evils

of the past. When the People's Liberation Army, as the new communist force was called, went over to the offensive in 1947, it met little resistance from the demoralized Kuomintang. Beijing fell without a fight, and all Nationalist resistance came to an end as Jiang Jie Shi and his troops fled under American protection to Taiwan. Mao proclaimed that China was the People's Republic of China in October 1949. The country itself, however, was in shambles. A massive effort was initiated to dig canals and dykes, build roads, and cultivate crops. The people, in the belief of a new world, toiled unstintingly with the most basic of hand tools.

5. Social changes under Mao Zedong

Social as well as political change was essential if the new communist state was to be a success. Land was confiscated and organized into communes. Women were given the same rights as men; free from the traditional submissive family role, they joined the workforce in large numbers. The strict obedience of children to parents was discouraged so that young people would be willing to move to other parts of the country where their services were required.

In the Great Leap Forward (1958), Mao Zedong announced that China would be industrially as strong as Britain in fourteen years. He initiated several impractical schemes to introduce industry into the house of peasants, but the tiny iron-producing furnaces and small-scale electronic goods were a complete disaster. These things can only be produced efficiently in large-scale factories with technically trained staff.

6. Chinese aggression

In the 1950s, the Russians and the Chinese suspected each other of not being 'true' communists. The Russians withdrew all of their technical support and aid to China in 1960. In the early 1960s, disputes and border clashes occurred in the Himalayas where the frontier between Tibet and India (the MacMahon Line) was not clearly defined. In 1963, the Chinese invaded, pushing back the Indian army. Then, having made their point, the Chinese retreated to the original border. This military victory was an immense boost to Chinese morale. It was also a signal to the world that the country which officially was not supposed to exist (at the time Jiang Jie Shi's government in Taiwan was internationally considered 'China') just had to be accommodated. This was even more obvious when, shortly afterwards, China developed its first highly sophisticated nuclear bomb.

7. Cultural Revolution

The Cultural Revolution (1967–1977) was a bizarre phenomenon. Millions of chanting students waving Mao's "Little Red Book of Thoughts", virtually took over the country. No one was safe from the Red Guards. They demanded that admission to university should be based on one's contribution to the state (how many hours, for example, one had worked in industry, agriculture or the Red Army), not on the basis of examinations. Untold havoc was unleashed because of this movement. The Cultural Revolution was a "Frankenstein's monster" which had gotten out of the control of its creators. Much of China's great artistic and cultural heritage was wantonly destroyed. Mao finally realized that the movement had to be stopped when the Communist Party was on the verge of disintegration. 200 million Red Guards were sent into semi-exile in remote areas of China to toil in the fields and, as Mao put it, 'learn from the peasants', who were invariably hostile to the young fanatics. Slowly the movement died down, and China began to regain some semblance of stability. The Red Army, which had remained aloof from the Red Guards, emerged as the most powerful force in the country.

8. International recognition

By 1971, Mao felt that China must be recognized internationally. He gained the support of the Americans largely through the efforts of his cultured, sophisticated, and French-educated foreign minister, Chou En-Lai. Mao's government was recognized by the United Nations, and China was made a member of the Security Council.

9. New leaders

But the 'Great Steersman', as Mao was affectionately called, was weakening. He had created communist China almost single-handedly but, as his abilities declined, he became a ceremonial figurehead while political conflicts were quietly brewing. Eventually, another veteran of the Long March, with very different views and more liberal policies, emerged as the leader of modern China. Deng Xiaoping relaxed the savage control which Mao had formerly imposed and brought in reforms which allowed China more access to the outside world in finance and tourism. Joint ventures such as hotels, factories, and plantations were set up with large industrial groups from all over the world.

As Deng Xiaoping himself has departed from the scene, the future of China is still open to doubt. The most sophisticated industrial systems in the world exist side by side with the primitive past.

Answers to Workbook p.53

1. Jiang Jie Shi (Chiang Kai-shek). Mao Zedong. It was based on peasants instead of industrial workers in cities.
2. The Communists under Mao were forced to escape from the Kuomintang over terrible terrain to the relative safety of the remote and desolate north-west.
3. 1947. Vast amounts of weapons, taken by the Russians from the Japanese who had surrendered in Manchuria, were handed over to Mao Zedong's forces.
4. Mao believed that Communist Party leaders were out of touch with the people. The next generation, he felt, should also experience the hardships of the early days when the Communist Party was struggling for power.
5. Deng Xiaoping. Becoming part of the world economic system and integrating with other countries. By reintroducing capitalism; turning agricultural communes into private land again; initiating joint projects with wealthy outside countries to set up factories, farms, and hotels; encouraging tourism.

JAPAN SINCE 1945

54/55

Points to emphasize

1. Surrender

Traditionally in Japan an official who had made a serious mistake committed *hara-kiri*, or ceremonial suicide, with its special rituals and robes, followed by disembowelment with a ceremonial sword. Scores of high officers and officials did this following their surrender in World War II. Tojo, the army general who had been virtual dictator of Japan during the war, attempted *hara-kiri* but survived only to be tried and hanged by a War Crimes Court. This was the ultimate degradation. It was a similar story with the ordinary soldiers, though they were not considered noble enough to commit *hara-kiri*.

2. Ban on overseas military service

The ban on overseas military service still exists, although there is a strong possibility that Japanese troops might serve in UN Peace-Keeping Units in due course. Japan contributes more in money (partly in lieu of military participation) to the United Nations than any other country except the United States. (The United States contributes 25 per cent of the UN budget, while Japan contributes 12.45 per cent).

3. Economic success

The economic and commercial success of Japan is absolutely phenomenal, although in earlier years it was paid for by harsh living conditions, low wages, and many hardships. It was a shrewd move for a country with few natural resources to concentrate on the high tech industry of electronics (radios, televisions, videos, household goods, photography, and specialized machinery), as these generate enough income to balance out the few expensive items that Japan does have to import. Japan followed the Swiss example—Swiss precision watches and other specialized equipment are renowned throughout the world.

4. Standard of living

The Japanese standard of living has soared in a quarter of a century. Japan has the second highest number of cars in the world (52 million as compared to the American 183 million); the largest shipping fleet (32 million tonnes as compared to Greece's 22 million tonnes); the third highest number of passenger planes (454,000 as compared to the American 630,000 and British 573,000); and the second highest number of televisions per head (587 as compared to the American 811). Japan also has the world's highest number of library book issues, and the world's highest life expectancy (76 male, 82 female).

The cost of living, however, based on New York (which is not a particularly cheap city) as 100, is 169 compared to Sweden's 130, France's 122, Britain's 118 and Pakistan's 50. The suicide rate in Japan, particularly among children and young people, is among the highest in the world. Despite its prosperity, Japan's position is still precarious: a serious slump in world trade would destroy its economy.

Answers to Workbook p.54

1. Japan had never been defeated in the past. The Japanese believed that they had a divine right to victory. Their eventual defeat in World War II was a great humiliation.
2. (a) Destroyed the Japanese military regime; (b) instituted western-style democracy with parliamentary rule; (c) instituted American-style education; (d) banned Japanese military forces except for home defence; (e) de-deified the emperor by making him a constitutional monarch.
3. The Japanese industrialized their country, which, within a few decades, became the third largest industrial power in the world.
4. They must overcome their dependence on imports for fuel, food, and raw materials; their economy is very sensitive to world economic conditions.
5. Balance of trade means trying to make exports and imports roughly equal. An export surplus generally means that the country is doing well, while an import surplus indicates the reverse. The economic condition of a country can be measured by calculating its trade balance.
6. Children should make their own lists and then compare their findings with the rest of the class. Japan's main area of specialization is in electronics and the high tech industry.

Points to emphasize**1. Britain**

After World War II, Britain was in such a powerful position that it could have dominated the whole continent. The British, however, remained aloof from early moves towards European integration. Aside from political dogmatism, Britain had very favourable trading terms with the Commonwealth countries and was reluctant to jeopardize these links. When in the early 1960s the Commonwealth trade switched to Asia and America, Britain tried to join the EEC, but its entry was vetoed three times by General de Gaulle, president of France, who had a personal grudge against Britain. The EEC is now generally known as the European Union.

2. Problems

Although there are certain advantages of being a member of the EEC, there are complications as well. Britain is particularly obstructive of new EEC legislation, resenting any infringement of its national rights. While members do largely obey most EEC directives and legislation, there is a tendency for some (especially France) to ignore those which they do not like.

The inequality between the economies of member nations (one of the chief problems of total integration) is indicated by the GDPs per head in US\$, which range from \$22,500 for Germany and \$22,000 for Denmark to \$6000 for Greece and \$5000 for Portugal.

3. Parliamentary struggle

The struggle at the moment is between the relative powers of the national parliaments and the EEC. The EEC parliament has 626 members, roughly in proportion to the size of the national population of each country. It is steadily increasing its powers to interfere with the domestic policies of member states, setting hours of work, minimum wages, etc.

4. Germany

Germany, with its immensely strong economy, is the major power behind the EEC. French policy is to remain closely allied to Germany with the memory of three destructive wars in the last 80 years. This is an insurance policy for its security.

5. Common currency, language, and military forces

The common currency is a divisive issue at the moment, with almost all countries reluctant to abandon their traditional coins. A common language has never been mooted because there would certainly never be any agreement. Freedom of a transnational movement and trade has, however, prompted a great interest in language study. A number of business schools teach in two or three languages.

The military forces have, to some extent, been integrated, and equipment has been standardized.

Answers to Workbook p.55

1. Constant warfare, especially after the two World Wars, was so shattering that the nations of Europe felt that there must be some formal association to prevent future conflicts. The European Economic Community or the Common Market.

2. Refer to p.56 of the Pupil's Book: Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Austria, Denmark, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Portugal, Spain, the United Kingdom, Sweden. Applications: Turkey, Cyprus, Poland, Hungary. Associate membership: Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Poland, Romania, Slovakia.

MIDDLE EAST CONFLICTS: THE ARABS AND THE JEWS

58/59

Points to emphasize

1. British and French involvement

The problems in the volatile eastern Mediterranean region stem largely from British-French pronouncements during World War I. The MacMahon letters of 1915, from the British high commissioner in Cairo to Sheikh Hussein of what is now Saudi Arabia, were interpreted as promising the Arabs self-government as soon as the Turks had been defeated. The secret Sykes-Picot discussions (between British and French negotiators) came to a very different conclusion. They decided that the eastern Mediterranean should be carved up between Britain and France; Turkish Armenia would be given to Russia. The most damaging statement was the declaration by the British foreign secretary, Balfour, in 1917 that Britain supported the Zionist demand for a national home or state (the words have totally different connotations) for the Jews. This was done partly to gain favour with the United States, which the Allies hoped would join their side in the war. The Jews have great power and influence in the United States and used this to their advantage both in 1917 and in the troubles of 1947 to 1973.

2. Britain's White Paper

In 1937, the British government, reluctant to tie up 20,000 troops in Palestine with a looming threat of war, made a last attempt to resolve the situation. They suggested that, (as the mandate was unworkable), the country should be divided into two states, one for each race. The Arabs did not see why they should give up any of the territory that they rightly considered their own, and the scheme was dropped. In 1939, the British government issued a White Paper that the country was to be made independent within ten years, with the Arabs and the Jews sharing authority. The immigration of the Jews was to be strictly controlled, and the number of Jews in the country was never to exceed one-third of the total population. This White Paper included the ironic line, 'It is not part of His Majesty's government's policy that Palestine should become a Jewish state . . .'

3. The defeat of Nazi Germany

When Nazi Germany was obviously close to defeat, hundreds of thousands of Jews flocked to Palestine as illegal refugees from the persecutions in Europe. The British navy played constant cat-and-mouse game trying to intercept these smuggling ships. But, as the horrors of the Nazi extermination camps gradually became known, there was a strong wave of sympathy for the Jews throughout much of the world. Many people felt that they should be compensated for all that they had suffered. There was a report widely circulated at the time (although there is no documentary evidence apart from the actual fact of the sinking) that one ship, with many hundreds of Jewish refugees on board, was deliberately sunk by the Jews themselves. They blamed the sinking of the ship on the British navy in order to gain sympathy for their cause.

4. Jewish terrorist groups

Jewish terrorist groups played havoc among the British forces in Palestine after the end of World War II. Their activities culminated in the blowing up of the largest hotel in Jerusalem, the King David, with the loss of a hundred lives. The Arabs took little part in these atrocities but were active politically. In 1945, Egypt, Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, and Yemen (later joined by Sudan and Libya) formed the Arab League. This was the first serious attempt by Arab nations to associate voluntarily and was welcomed by Britain. The League, however, became unstable because of the different goals of its members and broke up in the 1960s.

5. UN intervention

In 1947, the new Labour government in Britain decided that it would withdraw from the region. The UN, created precisely for resolving international disputes like this one, took control of the situation. The powerful Jewish lobby exerted immense pressure on the UN, as can be seen from the partition plan which was eventually produced. The Jews were given most of the fertile coastline, while the Arabs were given the central (and barren) highlands along with the fertile Jordan Valley. Jerusalem, the holy city of Muslims, Jews and Christians, was made an international city. All three parts were to be linked in an economic union.

6. The 1948 War

Immediately after the above plan was announced, Egypt, Syria, Jordan, and Iraq invaded Palestine to take what they rightly felt was Arab territory. The outcome of this war was a disaster. All of the Arab armies were pushed back by a much smaller military force. The reasons for the débâcle were: (a) the Israelis were desperate, as they knew that they were fighting for the existence of the new state; (b) the Jewish state received massive support in material and money from the United States; (c) the Arab armies were not very well coordinated. In the aftermath and recriminations, a military dictatorship was set up in Syria and Sheikh Abdullah of Jordan was assassinated; King Farouk of Egypt was expelled, and a republic was set up with General Nguib as leader. He was soon succeeded by Nasser, who then became leader of the Arab world.

7. Aswan Dam

Nasser dreamed of building a huge dam at Aswan to store water for irrigation and to provide a third of Egypt's electricity. The west refused to lend him money, which he desperately needed, so he turned to Russia. Russia, interested in gaining more influence in the Middle East, agreed to finance part of the construction. The west, afraid of Soviet expansion, outbid Russia and offered to lend even more money for the scheme. Then, when Russia announced that it could not have financed the dam anyway, the west withdrew its offer. Nasser, stung by the insult, announced that he was going to nationalize the Suez Canal, owned largely by British and French shareholders and use the toll money to finance the Aswan Project.

8. Suez Crisis 1956

In October 1956, Israeli forces, with the support of Britain and France, invaded Egypt. They were followed by British and French paratroopers. They soon controlled most of the Suez Canal, which was full of wrecked ships. The Soviet Union and the United States, through the UN, threatened to use nuclear weapons against the invaders. Israel, Britain, and France were forced to withdraw. British and French influence in the Middle East declined, to be replaced

by that of the United States and the Soviet Union. The canal was quickly cleared up by the Egyptians and began operating profitably. With the tolls and money now forthcoming from the Soviet Union, the dam was opened in 1969. Nasser was at the peak of his power and became leader of the Arab. In 1958, he formed the United Arab Republic of Egypt, Syria, and Yemen, but this, the last serious attempt to form a political union in the Middle East, failed after three years.

9. Seven Days War 1967

Egyptian military reconnaissance reported a build-up of Israeli forces, who were apparently preparing to invade Syria. Two weeks later, in the early morning, Israel suddenly launched its lightning war. In the first attacks, 300 out of Nasser's 340 Russian planes were destroyed on the ground, and late in the morning, the Syrian and Jordanian air forces were similarly demolished. This was the virtual end of the war, but Israeli armour crashed through Sinai to the Suez Canal and occupied the whole of the West Bank and the strategically vital Golan Heights in Syria. It was a devastating blow, and while the world admired the brilliance of the Israeli plan and its execution, it was at the same time horrified at the savage and callous way in which the Israelis smashed Egyptian tanks and left Arab soldiers in the burning desert of Sinai to die of wounds and thirst.

10. Rise of terrorism

The years after 1967 were dominated by terrorist activity, much of it rather senseless. Palestinian acts of violence were usually followed by disproportionate revenge attacks by Israeli planes or commando groups, who turned on Arab territory and often targeted innocent civilians.

11. Peace efforts

After the short 1973 War, in which the growing strength of Arab industrialization was beginning to show, more efforts were made to find a peaceful solution to the conflicts in the Middle East. In 1977, Egypt's president, Anwar Sadat, flew to Israel to meet President Begin. For this, Sadat (jointly with Begin) received the Nobel Peace Prize. Unfortunately, Sadat was assassinated shortly thereafter.

Since then, steps have been taken to come to a peaceful settlement. Both sides have now realized that the division is more or less a *fait accompli*, and that both Arabs and Jews must learn to coexist. There have been a number of atrocities on both sides, military incursions and other serious problems, but with men such as President Mubarak (elected for a third six-year term in 1993), President Asad of Syria (elected for a fourth five-year term), Yasser Arafat, leader of the Palestine Liberation Organization, and the moderate and stabilizing influence of King Hussein of Jordan, something like the beginning of a settlement seems likely in the future.

Answers to Workbook pp. 56–57

1. Jerusalem is an important city for the world's three great religions, Islam, Christianity, and Judaism; the area is also important strategically and because it has vast oil reserves.
2. The Romans forced the Jews to leave Palestine because they were constantly rebelling against the government. In AD 70, the Jews were scattered all over the known world. Since then, the Jews have dreamed of returning to their original 'homeland'. Zionism, a Jewish movement for a return to Israel, gained importance in the 19th century.

3. After World War I, Britain promised the Arabs self-government in return for their help in fighting the Ottoman empire. Secretly, however, France and Britain agreed to share the region between themselves and Russia. In addition, Britain (in the Balfour Declaration, 1917) promised the Jews that they would be given Palestine.
4. The UN divided the region into three parts: a Jewish state called Israel, an Arab state, and the international city of Jerusalem.
5. Individual work.
6. Refer to the maps on p.58 of the Pupil's Book. Discussion: the weakness from the Arab point of view was that they were given virtually none of the fertile coastline, although they were given the fertile Jordan Valley. A considerable portion of nominally Arab territory was studded with Jewish settlements. From the Jewish point of view, Jerusalem, so important to them, was surrounded by Arab territory. Although access was nominally guaranteed, the Arabs could block access to the city.
7. Refer to the maps on pp.58–59 of the Pupil's Book. The map on p.59 (the area today) will vary as things change so rapidly in this region: refer to current news reports and update your map.
8. Individual work and class discussion.

MIDDLE EAST CONFLICTS: IRAN AND IRAQ

60/61

Points to emphasize

Answers to Workbook pp.58–59

1. Map as below:



2. (a) Fuel for all forms of transport; (b) generating electricity in power stations; (c) making bottled gas as propane for domestic and industrial use; (d) raw material for many chemicals from drugs to food dyes; (e) lubrication.
3. (a) Iraqis are of Arab descent. The rulers are Sunni, but two-thirds of the population are Shiah. The form of government is a military dictatorship; (b) Iranis are not of Arab descent but of Persian origin. The majority are Shiite Muslims. Religious element dominates the government.

4. (a) Boundary quarrels over the Shatt al-Arab waterway; (b) religious differences between the leaders; (c) Iraq's ruler, Saddam Hussein, thought that he could easily conquer Iran, confused after the downfall of the shah. This would make him the most powerful man in the Middle East as he would control a huge proportion of the world's oil supplies.
5. (a) Expansionism largely for oil and power; (b) unprovoked aggression by one Arab state against the other; (c) the threat of Saddam Hussein attempting to expand further.
6. Kuwait had once belonged to Iraq; Kuwait had a Sunni majority; the dictatorial regime of the Kuwaiti ruling family.
7. The majority of the Iraqi troops were ill-trained and poorly equipped. They had to face one of the most technologically sophisticated forces ever assembled. They very quickly lost all air power.

AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE

62/63

Points to emphasize

1. European expansion

The Europeans seized Africa in the 19th century mainly to prevent others from colonizing it, not for any discernible practical purpose. Its resources, apart from the gold and diamonds of South Africa and some farming districts on the eastern side, were relatively small. This colonization was done very unsystematically, with territory being carved up for convenience largely in straight lines. (Ask pupils to refer to an atlas, where they can observe the straight frontiers.) As these boundaries were drawn regardless of tribal limits, many native tribes often found themselves in different countries with different languages and administrators. This still remains a problem, especially when tribal units try from time to time to gain independence from one another.

2. Approaches to colonization

Africa was even less industrialized than 19th century Asia, apart from the south and parts of the east where minerals such as copper had been discovered. There were a few railways but nothing that could compare to the sophisticated railway system of India. The colonial powers were very different in their approaches to African colonization. The British and French were, on the whole, relatively reasonable. The British foresaw eventual independence for their African colonies but believed that two centuries of 'civilization' would be necessary before the black people were ready to govern themselves. The French wanted to turn all of their African subjects into 'honorary' Frenchmen, who would speak French and be versed in French culture. The Belgians, Portuguese, and Germans (who had some territory in east Africa), were totally exploitative. The Dutch (Boers) who dominated South Africa treated the black people as little better than slaves. They were exploited as cheap labour and were offered little in return.

3. World War II

World War II was a dramatic turning point in the history of African independence. Many African soldiers were recruited to fight in Italy, the Middle and Far East. Many left their villages for the first time in their lives and were well-fed, well-clothed, well-housed and well-paid. Many learned how to read and write and heard news broadcasts which gave them an objective view of their homeland. It was a revelation! The Reverend Sithole, a black African leader in Rhodesia, wrote:

The girls of England, France, and Italy who went out with African soldiers did not help the preservation of the white myth. The African soldiers found themselves in the front line ... with one purpose in view: to kill every white enemy soldier they could get hold of. African soldiers saw white soldiers wounded, dead, and dying. The bullet had the same effect on black and white alike. After spending four years hunting white enemy soldiers, the African never again regarded them as gods . . .

The impact of Asian independence was vitally important. Although they were often working from a much lower base, the African people did not see why they too should not become independent.

4. 'Wind of Change'

The famous 'Wind of Change' speech which was very significant in African independence was made by the British prime minister, Macmillan, on a trip to Africa. He said:

Fifteen years ago this movement [i.e., independence] spread throughout Asia . . . today . . . the same thing is happening in Africa. The wind of change is blowing through this continent, and whether we like it or not this growth of national consciousness is a political fact, and our national politicians must take account of it . . .

5. Portuguese colonies

The Portuguese fascist dictatorship was overthrown in a rebellion in 1974, and a more liberal government took power in Lisbon. Soon after the change in government, the Portuguese colonies in Africa were given independence, somewhat, peacefully. Angola, however, was an exception. Two rival governments were set up, a Marxist one and a right-wing one. UNITA, another powerful party with its base in the countryside, also competed for political ascendancy. The Marxist element was defeated, but the cruel civil war continues as the right-wing MPLA is still, despite resolutions, fighting with UNITA for control of the government.

6. Belgian Congo

The transition to independence in the Belgian Congo was a complete disaster because the Belgians had made no preparations whatsoever. It was an orgy of slaughter—tribe against tribe, black against white.

Lumumba, who had made a name for himself, seized power at independence. Soon after, the province of Katanga broke away under the Belgian-assisted leader, Tshombe. This vital province was the wealthiest of the Congo and contained very productive copper mines. Because Lumumba saw that the country must remain united to be viable, he asked for UN assistance. Although 20,000 troops, mainly Irish and African, were sent to the Congo, they refused to obey Lumumba because they felt that he was merely after wealth and power. Lumumba, left with no other choice, called in Russian soldiers. The Russians were only too anxious to get a foothold in Africa, for it would mean that the Congo would become a communist country. It was a highly critical situation—only slightly less explosive than the Cuban Missile Crisis. The United States pressurized the UN, and Lumumba was overthrown and murdered by Kasavubu, who took control as president. The Russians did not intervene. The province of Katanga was reunited with the Congo, and Tshombe became prime minister. In 1965, General Mobutu overthrew both Kasavubu and Tshombe and became virtual dictator of the country. This potentially rich country is now moving towards stability.

7. Apartheid

The story of apartheid ('apartness') in South Africa is well known. The blacks and 'coloureds' (a powerful group of people of subcontinental origin) were treated abominably by the white South Africans. Their average wage was about one-seventh that of a white worker. They also suffered other forms of discriminations. The infant mortality rate among the blacks was 300 per 1000 live births, while that of the whites was only 25; the money spent on educating blacks (1969) was 342,000 rands for 16 million people, while the whites were allocated 53,000,000 rands for 4 million people. In addition, black South Africans were not allowed to live in towns with the whites but were forced into squalid shanty towns on the outskirts of cities. They had to have pass cards before they were allowed to enter the town where they worked. For the slightest offence (leaving the pass card behind, for example) they were banished to remote villages where they had to scratch a pathetic living from the poor land. Hundreds of black Africans were killed by police during peaceful protests. African leaders were either imprisoned or exiled.

8. The end of the apartheid

South Africa was ostracized by the rest of the world and forced out of Commonwealth for its racist policies. The assassination of the Boer president, Verwoerd, in 1966 did not help improve the situation as a more fanatical apartheid follower, Vorster, was installed.

World pressure forced some weakening of apartheid in the late 1980s: although the coloureds and Indians were allowed to vote for a kind of assembly, the whites were still firmly in control. The black South Africans still had no representation. When de Klerk became president in 1989, the movement to dismantle apartheid gained momentum. The ban on the African National Congress, the outlawed African party, was lifted, and their leader, Nelson Mandela, was released from prison after 30 years of incarceration. In 1992, a referendum among whites voted heavily for constitutional reform. In 1993, there was a multiracial election which naturally returned a large black majority. Mandela became president, with de Klerk as vice president. The transfer of power has been unexpectedly peaceful as far as blacks and whites are concerned, but there have been thousands of deaths in the violence which erupted between the two major black parties, the ANC and Inkatha. Inkatha is largely supported by the militant and powerful Zulu tribes.

Answers to Workbook pp.60–61

1. The divisive tribal system made resistance impossible. The Africans could not win against the Europeans who had sophisticated weapons.
2. Refer to pp.62 and 63 of the Pupil's Book.
3. Ask pupils to read pp.62 and 63 of the Pupil's Book to help identify the colonies. France: Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria. Britain: Ghana, Kenya, South Africa (with heavy Dutch influence). Portugal: Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, Angola. Belgium: Zaire or the Congo (the Belgian Congo). Italy: Libya. It is sufficient for pupils to colour only those regions which are mentioned in the Pupil's Book.
4. The Belgians had made no provisions for independence; they had not educated the Africans, nor had they given them positions in the government or army. They declared independence suddenly, instead of notifying the people in advance. The Africans themselves had no real leaders who could unite them.
5. Rigidly separating people according to race. The whites and blacks are treated differently: the whites, who were in power, were given preferential treatment in everything, while the blacks were neglected and discriminated against. The blacks were unfairly treated

under apartheid in the following ways: (a) they couldn't pass laws and were denied access to government; (b) they had no voting rights; (c) they were paid lower wages; (d) the educational standards in their schools were low; (e) they generally lived in camps in appalling conditions; (f) they were not allowed to live in white cities; (g) there was racial segregation on buses, in theatres, restaurants, and sports events, etc; (h) they were given much lower health care provisions; (i) they were restricted to certain generally low-paid jobs; (j) they were allowed to buy land only in restricted tribal areas, away from white people. Although the Pupil's Book only mentions a few of the above examples, ask pupils to come up with their own from reference books, or read out this list in class.

6. There was general world pressure against apartheid; people realized that a terrible blood bath would ensue unless the blacks achieved equal status with the whites. The great change came with the election of the liberal de Klerk, who almost single-handedly reversed the system by legalizing the African National Congress and releasing prisoners.
7. Individual work.

TWENTIETH CENTURY PROBLEMS

64/65

Points to emphasize

The section on modern problems in the Pupil's Book is best dealt with orally. As there are no questions for this and the next spread in the Workbook, teachers can set optional essay-type questions to encourage pupils to think about these important issues.

1. Energy consumption

The demand for energy is rising relentlessly. For statistical purposes, the amount of energy produced is given in coal equivalents, regardless of whether the energy is derived from oil, gas, coal or nuclear sources. The countries with the largest consumption of energy per head per year are Qatar and the United Arab Emirates, where each person burns the equivalent of 22 tonnes of coal a year. The highest consumers of energy are all of the oil-producing nations. A typical western nation consumes the equivalent of 5 to 8 tonnes of coal in electricity per year.

2. Nuclear power

Although new resources are constantly being trapped, supplies are finite. As supplies begin to dwindle, fuel prices will soar. Alternative sources of energy must be found before we reach this stage. Nuclear power was once considered the answer to modern energy problems, but now many people are doubtful of its efficacy because of its unstable nature and the dangers associated with radiation—the devastation at Chernobyl in Russia is a warning. Scientists are desperately trying to find new ways of producing a viable source of energy from the power locked in the atom. At present, only fission—that is, breaking the atom apart—is practicable, but scientists are also experimenting with nuclear fusion.

3. Alternative energy sources

Although hydroelectricity is, in many respects, a perfect solution, not all countries have the geographical conditions necessary for its production. Pakistan is fortunate in that almost 40 per cent of its energy is derived from hydroelectric plants. Ask pupils to make a bar or pie chart to illustrate the following figures: total energy output (1992) 41,390 million kilowatts/hour; thermal (oil/coal) 23,110 million kilowatts/hour; hydroelectric 17,898 million kilowatts/hour; nuclear 382 million kilowatts/hour.

Wind power can be made use of only a very limited scale because it requires constant, powerful winds. Wind farms, as they are called, are useful only on islands and remote places because they are unsightly and noisy. Once installed (and they are expensive), they provide virtually free power.

Pupils will be familiar with solar power from their pocket calculators. The output of solar power, however, is minute. Cars have been made to run on solar power but require large sheets of solar cells on the roof. They remain, even today, only a scientific toy. In remote areas where there is no mains electricity (in Africa for example), they can be used to power radio and television sets.

Many countries have experimented with using the power of waves to generate electricity but, although it is possible, no one has discovered an economically viable system. Similarly, geothermal power needs to be further developed before it can become an economical source of energy. Geothermal energy is derived from pumping water into the depths of the earth, where the temperature is high, and using the power from the steam to drive turbines. A few countries (especially in Latin America), where there are few fossil fuels but the land is extremely fertile, are developing alternative energy sources. They are using plants, such as sugar-cane to make alcohol, which can be used as fuel to power cars. This has been remarkably successful, but whether enough fuel from this renewable source can be used for power stations is another question.

4. Pollution

Although visual and noise pollution are unpleasant, it is chemical pollution that is life threatening. Fumes from vehicles of all kinds seem to be responsible for many diseases which have increased dramatically over the last few years, like asthma, lung conditions, and some cancers. The lead in cheaper petrol is definitely responsible for abnormalities in babies and developing children. Modern cars are fitted with special exhaust systems which minimize the dangerous elements in fumes from vehicles. These are now compulsory in many western countries, but the dangers are still considerable. Industrial fumes are restricted by law in some countries, but these safeguards do not exist in many developing nations.

The ever-increasing search for cheaper and more abundant foods has forced scientists to come up with new drugs and methods to meet this demand. Agricultural chemicals to increase growth and inhibit disease in both plants and animals are washed into the general water supply, where they often cause deformities in unborn babies. The use of regular antibiotic injections in animals (to make them grow more rapidly by preventing infections) is extremely dangerous. These antibiotics get into the food chain and eventually end up in human beings. When these antibiotics are required to combat human diseases, they are no longer effective.

Perhaps pupils can discuss whether they feel noise pollution should be restricted. (Music, noisy wedding parties, loud neighbours, etc.)

5. Population problems

Tell pupils about Thomas Malthus, the early 19th century British economist who forecast that while food production would go on increasing by an arithmetic progression (2, 4, 6, 8, 10, . . .) population would increase in geometric progression (2, 4, 8, 16, 32, . . .). Population, according to his theory, would soon outstrip resources. Fortunately, the worst of Malthus's projections have not materialized because he did not foresee the technical advances in food production. Nonetheless, he does have a valid point. Population is outstripping production, even if at a lower rate than he anticipated. There is a limit to what can be done to increase output.

Every year, many millions die of sheer starvation and many millions more from diseases which weakened bodies cannot fight.

Much can be done to alleviate the situation: while new agricultural methods, new crops and better irrigation schemes are essential, a great deal has to be done in the field of education to break down old taboos and prohibitions, customs, and attitudes. Improved communications are important: it seems ironic that while parts of the world are starving, in others governments are paying farmers to stop producing crops as there is too much food. If surplus food is to be taken from one country to another, who is to pay? Is it good for poorer people to live on hand-outs and aid? Would it not be better to teach them to support themselves?

6. Aging population

This is a major problem, especially in more developed countries. Longevity puts a strain on hospital and medical services as older people need more care. It also puts a strain on state finances. As the number of retired people rises, the burden of pensions and health care falls on fewer people of working age. Then there is the problem of what older people should do to pass the time, as many of them are quite active after retirement.

MORE TWENTIETH CENTURY PROBLEMS

66/67

Points to emphasize

1. Space

Rockets were invented about 2000 years ago by the Chinese and were used for both amusements and military purposes. In the 1930s, Germany experimented more seriously with rockets for carrying mail, but its efforts were largely unsuccessful. The V2 rockets designed in World War II were intended to terrorize Britain into surrendering. They resulted in several thousands casualties, but the launching sites were soon overrun with the invasion of Europe.

After the war ended, there was severe competition between the United States and the Soviet Union, as both wanted German engineers to help them develop their own rocket programmes for military purposes. In 1957, the Russians astounded and horrified the United States by launching a satellite. The Americans strained to catch up and during the Cold War, even the launch of a small, low-orbit satellite was a major propaganda victory as well as a major military threat. America launched a very small satellite in 1958 and then had to suffer the indignity of being outstripped by the Soviet Union on all fronts—the first (unmanned) moon orbiter which took photographs of the dark side of the moon; the first animal (a dog) in space and, in 1961, the first man to orbit the Earth. After that, the United States began to catch up. In 1969, the Americans were the first to land a man on the moon, a feat which the Russians have not been able to match. Probes from the United States in particular have now gone outside our solar system into deep space, sending back photographs and other information.

Points which might lead to a fruitful class discussion:

Is the cost of space exploration justified? A single, relatively simple operation such as a Challenger launch could settle a small nation's whole debt problem.

In the event of a war, space would become a major battlefield. Modern rockets can carry a dozen or more separate nuclear warheads which can be programmed to detach themselves in the stratosphere and head for different targets. It is virtually impossible to destroy all of them with present technology.

Space exploration seems a rather academic discipline. Although we gain knowledge of the solar system and the universe, it is not of much practical help. Would it not be better to spend a similar amount of money on cancer research, for example?

Space satellites can pinpoint tiny objects on the Earth's surface, like bases or the movement of large forces, thereby preventing a build-up of military activity. This way, the military activities of nations can be monitored to promote peace. The same process can be used to make extremely accurate maps, discover new geological data and provide very accurate meteorological information.

Telecommunications and international television would collapse without the space satellite relaying information across the world as events happen. Through satellite, ships, and aircraft can navigate with amazing accuracy. Ships, for example, can lock on to a satellite and cross any ocean without human involvement. Devices similar to the pocket radio can be bought quite cheaply (in the United Kingdom for less than £200) which will give an instant position on the Earth's surface within a few metres.

Spin-offs from space research, including new materials and equipment, are being developed all the time, from solar panels to metallized blankets which will keep people warm in the coldest weather.

In the distant future, humans might have to obtain raw materials from other planets. The research conducted today will be very useful if such a need should arise. Similarly, the superficially academic knowledge gained from space research may find a dramatic practical use one day. Already some substances, such as extremely pure chemicals used for computer chips, can be produced only outside the Earth's gravitational field in satellites or rockets.

2. Haves and have-nots

Pupils will be only too aware of the disparity in the living conditions of different nations: compare Japan, with its GDP of US\$26,000 per person per year, and Pakistan's US\$380. And there are many countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, which are well below Pakistan's GDP. Ask pupils to look at the chart on p.66 of the Pupil's Book: what factors have enabled the richer nations to prosper? The richer countries have higher life expectancy rate, almost complete literacy (the missing 1 per cent are those who cannot, for various reasons like mental disability, acquire education) and a high cost of living. The poorer nations have high birth rates (and population increase), lower literacy standards, lower exports, and lower living costs.

Discuss why some nations, with good agricultural and mineral resources, are so poor. Can this, in part, be attributed to colonialism and the reluctance of the colonial powers to develop local industry? Colonialism, however, ended almost half a century ago. Are there others factors involved? How much does the lack of good quality higher education contribute to this problem? Is it realistic to expect a developing nation to leap into the complex, modern industrial world in a generation or two? How can this vicious circle to be broken?

Lack of capital is one possible factor. Many countries spend a large proportion of their income on military power. Sometimes, as in some African countries, this is mainly for show as there is no external military threat. Mismanagement and corruption have often been cited as one of the possible reasons for slow growth in the developing world. Of money advanced by an international aid organization to build 30 schools in one African republic, only enough remained for one school actually to be erected.

3. Terrorism

This topic could lead to an interesting discussion on whether the ends ever justify the means. Possible discussion points include: What means do people have to redress what they feel are grave social injustices? Would the utter sincerity of a terrorist—his or her belief in the cause—count as a mitigating factor? Are there situations where terrorism is justified? Is there any justification for terrorism now that most people have access to the ballot box and democracy? Can a government rule effectively when the state is torn by terrorist activity, or will mere anarchy prevail? Are terrorists just a minority of bad losers and fanatics? How should those in authority deal with terrorists? (Savage punishments often make terrorists into martyrs; on the other hand, if governments don't punish them, others may also resort to terrorist activities.)

THE COMMONWEALTH

68/69

Points to emphasize

1. Official definition

The Commonwealth was defined at the Imperial Conference in 1926 as 'a group of autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations . . .'

The only change to this definition since then is the allegiance to the Crown. Most of the world wonders how such a disparate group of states can coexist at any level, much less work closely together, but they somehow manage to cooperate.

2. Members

Some regions formerly under British mandates or jurisdiction (but never true colonies) did not choose to become members. These include Egypt, Jordan, Iraq, Palestine, Sudan, British Somalia, South Cameroons, and Aden. In 1961, South Africa was forced out of the Commonwealth because of its racial policy of apartheid but was readmitted when the Nationalists lost power in 1994. Pakistan left the Commonwealth in 1972, after the split with Bangladesh, but rejoined in 1989.

3. Administration

The Commonwealth is run by a Secretariat which coordinates all activities. Although meetings are held in different capitals and regions of the world, the Commonwealth's permanent base is in London, which is at the hub of communications. Besides the biennial meetings of the heads of state, the Secretariat organizes other meetings in areas such as finance, health, education, and the law as and when the need arises. The Commonwealth Secretary-General and his/her staff are recruited from all member countries. The present Secretary-General (1996) is Nigerian.

4. Internal crisis

The Commonwealth faced a crisis in 1949 when India decided to become a republic. Until then, all member nations had accepted the British sovereign as their head of state. A reasonable solution to this problem was found: the British sovereign would remain the head of the Commonwealth as an organization but not necessarily of each individual country. At present, thirty member countries are republics while an additional five have their own monarchs.

Answers to Workbook pp.62–63

1. Refer to p.68 of the Pupil's Book.
2. A republic has an elected president while a monarchy has a hereditary sovereign as head of state. Advantages of a republic: a president is elected directly or indirectly by the people, for a fixed term, and can be rejected at the next elections if his/her term in office was unsatisfactory; the president is usually a person of political integrity and is highly respected; the president is often limited to ceremonial duties by the constitution. Disadvantages: although elected constitutionally, the president can seize power (e.g., certain African states or Hitler); he/she can become the tool of a powerful political party; there is little prestige in the title (often a senior politician who is given this position at the end of an active political career); can cause problems and bitterly dispute elections when rival candidates are fighting for office. Advantages of a monarchy: generally no disputes about succession; the monarch has no political power whatsoever and is in the hands of the party that is currently in power; the monarchy is imbued with pageantry and tradition – a quasi-religious status acquired over the centuries; the monarch is a focus for the people and gives them a feeling of stability and permanence. Disadvantages: the monarch is not elected and cannot be removed under normal circumstances; could (though unlikely today) become dictatorial; has to be accepted regardless of his/her personal character and ability; position emphasizes class differences; position can fossilize with tradition.
3. (a) Population densities: Bangladesh 805 per square kilometre; Britain 233; Canada 2.6; India 257; Kenya 41; Malaysia 54; New Zealand 13; Nigeria 117; Pakistan 164; Singapore 4313. Pupils could make bar chart of these figures in ascending or descending order. Ask pupils to refer to their atlases and discuss this disparity in density of population on the grounds of geography. Canada, for example, has a very large land area, but a considerable amount of it consists of tundra and forest.
(b) Ask pupils to relate these figures to the statistics of age structure in the population. Birth rates per 1000 of the population are as follows: Bangladesh 41; Britain 14; Canada 13; India 31; Kenya 47; Malaysia 28; New Zealand 16; Nigeria 46; Pakistan 42; Singapore 16. For comparison, Germany's figure is 11 and Japan's 11.5. Discuss why the richer the country, the lower the birth rate, and vice versa. A higher birth rate means a greater strain on the country's resources, as education, health care, food, and shelter must be provided for a greater number of people.

COMMUNISM AND CAPITALISM

70/71

Points to emphasize

1. Karl Marx

Explain that modern communism was set down by Karl Marx in the first half of the 19th century. Marx, a German-Jewish exile, lived most of his life in London working on his great book, the bible of communism, 'Das Capital'. He was in London at the height of the Industrial Revolution, when greedy ambitious capitalists repressed the desperately poor workers. Much of what Marx wrote at the time was completely justified but is perhaps not so relevant today as governments have passed so much legislation.

Marx's thesis was that the rich capitalists would go on getting richer, and the poor workers poorer, until the working masses would rise in rebellion and overthrow the capitalists. Then the workers would take control of government, industry, and agriculture and work all of these for the benefit of the ordinary people. Marx believed that ultimately the state (i.e., the

government) would wither away and society would run smoothly on its own. Marx's theories were amplified by Lenin, to meet the changed circumstances of the 20th century.

2. Advantages and disadvantages of communism

Advantages:

State ownership of all resources and a planned economy means that the government can order people to produce or grow just what is needed. There is no waste and no shortage, and prices are fixed—if necessary, by state subsidy. Unfortunately, although good in theory, this does not work out in practice.

Under communism, society tends to be more equal, as there are no extremes of wealth and poverty. Again, this does not work out in practice as the party elite is often wealthy, while masses are equal but worse off. There are differences in wages according to the value the state places on certain skills. The peasant is paid much less than the skilled engineer, although the differentials are not as great as in capitalist countries, where trade unions can pressurize industries.

The provision of free health care, pensions, education and other social benefits is excellent, and this was one of the first socialist practices adopted by western governments. Most nations now have these social benefits.

As there is no opposition party, a communist government is strong and can enforce decisions even of an unpleasant nature. This is a disadvantage.

Disadvantages

Since it does not allow any opposition and is in sole control of the state, a communist government must resort to the use of secret police, brutal military-style discipline, prison camps, and widespread executions to eliminate all opposition.

In a communist state, there is no political opposition. Many states had 'elections' in the past but these were merely a matter of form, where the people were practically forced to approve of a list of communist members for assemblies. Few would dare to say they disapproved, although sometimes they could choose between alternative communist leaders.

Because all industry is government-controlled, there is no scope for anyone to try new methods or to invent new/better products. There is little incentive to work hard because the rewards are minimal. The choice of goods is also extremely limited because governments tend to concentrate on basic necessities.

All freedom of speech, movement, assembly, and thought—is severely suppressed. Even music, art, and literature have to conform with party doctrine.

3. Advantages and disadvantages of capitalism

Advantages

Through democratic elections, people have the power to change their government once every four or five years. If they are pleased with the government, they can re-elect the ruling party. Alternatively, they can elect an opposition party which they feel might do a better job.

Private firms manufacturing goods and services have to be competitive. Their products must be better than the products of their rivals, either in price, quality or design. People have a choice: if a firm produces bad or expensive goods, it goes out of business because people do not buy its products.

People have, on the whole, complete freedom of movement, thought, and expression. They are restricted only when these come into conflict with the law (libel, obscenity, etc.).

Under capitalism, most people have the opportunity to become wealthy and rise in the world if they are hard-working and willing to take risks. The rags-to-riches phenomenon is rare in the communist world.

Disadvantages:

Democratic governments can be weak, especially if the ruling party has a small majority and is reliant on third party support. Weak governments cannot take strong action for fear of upsetting a section of the electorate, whose support they require for re-election.

Under capitalism, wealth is not evenly distributed. Some people are very rich, while others are extremely poor. Although most governments now have 'safety nets' (health care, unemployment benefits, old age pensions) to protect the most vulnerable, the costs of these social benefits are very high. The better off can now buy private education and health care which are superior to that offered by the state, so increasing the gulf between the classes.

When an opposition party gets into power, it often reverses much of the legislation passed by its predecessor. Powerful lobbies—industry, transport, banking, etc.—can exert pressure on right-wing governments to pass legislation which favours them. Left-wing governments can come under pressure from strong trade unions to pass legislation which favours them.

Answers to Workbook p.64

1. See (2) in the teacher's notes above.
2. See (3) in the teacher's notes above.
3. Creative work
4. Creative work

INDIA 1780 TO 1856

74/75

Points to emphasize

1. Tipu Sultan

Tipu Sultan was the enlightened ruler of Mysore, an Indian state where the peasants were well-protected and prosperous. The British claimed that he was an ally of France and fearing a revival of French influence, launched a campaign against him. Tipu had signed a nominal 'alliance' with Revolutionary France, for which he received 150 ragged, undisciplined French soldiers and the title of 'Citizen Tipu'. Tipu had most of his father's qualities and was a military genius. Unlike Haider Ali, however, he lacked caution and expediency, neither did he appreciate the East India Company's strength and reserves. At any rate, he had little reason to believe in the company's words and promises.

After two defeats between 1789 and 1790, Tipu was forced to surrender. He lost half of his territory, paid a vast sum in indemnity and had to hand over two of his sons as hostages. He was now virtually surrounded by British-controlled territory. There was an uneasy peace for five years, then, with the Marathas pressing on the Nizam on one side and Tipu on the other war broke out again. Two company armies, from Madras and Bombay, converged at Mysore and besieged the capital, Seringapatam. Tipu was martyred leading his troops in battle.

With the capture of Seringapatam, the Hindu royal family, in the form of a five year old prince, was restored to the throne, with Tipu's Brahman chief minister in control. He signed a subsidiary treaty with the British. Part of Mysore was handed over to Hyderabad and instead of Tipu's progressive regime, the peasants found themselves subjected to the Nizam's usual methods, described by a contemporary British official in the following way:

The scene which presented itself to the British officer was beyond all description shocking. The different quotas to be paid by each inhabitant had been fixed, and every species of torture was inflicted to enforce it . . . Men and women, poor and rich, were suffering . . . some had heavy muskets fastened to their ears, some large stones on their breasts; whilst others had their fingers pinched with hot pincers. Their cries of agony and declarations of inability to pay seemed only to whet the appetite of their tormentors . . .

2. The Marathas

The Marathas were still a threat to British rule in India. After much internal strife, their leader, Daulat Rao, accepted British protection. The Maratha chiefs rose in rebellion against the British in 1803 and were defeated. British forces marched into Delhi to liberate it from the Marathas, where they found the old, blind emperor, Bahadur Shah II, the last of the Mughals. A contemporary officer recalls:

The courts of the palace were full of people, anxious to witness the deliverance of their sovereign from a state of degradation and bondage. At length the commander-in-chief [Lord Lake] was ushered into the royal presence, and found the unfortunately venerable Emperor, oppressed by the accumulated calamities of old age, degraded authority, extreme poverty, and loss of sight, seated under a small tattered canopy, remnant of his royal State, with every external appearance of the misery of his condition . . .

3. Fear of Russia

The British government in the earlier part of the 19th century was obsessed with the fear that Russia would invade north-western India. Although this was utterly impossible, given the communications that then existed, it led to considerable paranoia. It may amuse pupils to learn that scores of Indian officials disguised as Buddhist pilgrims were sent to Tibet, which was expected to be one of the Russian invasion routes. There they made maps and took distances, as no one had explored the region. As the 'pilgrims' dared not make notes lest they be caught, everything had to be memorized. To help them memorize, the priests walked steadily, telling their rosary beads but, instead of praying as was the practice, they were actually recording distances in strides. Later, when maps were made, these distances were found to be remarkably accurate.

Answers to Workbook pp.65–66

1. The East India Company was almost bankrupt. Officers were corrupt and were more concerned with making private fortunes than in generating profits for the company. The officers were incompetent and could not maintain law and order as well as engage in trade.
2. (a) The trading and political parts of the company were separated; (b) the company was only allowed to deal with trading matters; (c) a committee of senior politicians in London was formed to control all political matters; (d) all senior company appointments were to be approved of by the Board of Control (and hence, the British government). British government; East India Company.

3. (a) Military conquest (Mysore, Maratha territory); (b) subsidiary alliances (princely states more or less run by British officials); (c) the Doctrine of Lapse (in the absence of a direct heir to the throne, the British put forward a nominee who was under their control).
4. Map as below:



5. (a) Russia was weak, badly organized and ill-equipped. It did not have the sophisticated communications system necessary to cover such vast distances. (b) Britain's response was to send spies to Afghanistan and central Asia. When it invaded Afghanistan itself, Britain suffered an enormous defeat and was forced to retreat.
6. During the Sikh Wars, Britain conquered Kashmir, which it sold to a Hindu dynasty even though the population was largely Muslim. At partition, Kashmir was given to India, although the majority of the population wanted to join Pakistan. The Kashmir question continues to be a threat to the peace of the subcontinent and is a major strain on Pakistan-Indian relations.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC LIFE UNTIL 1857

76/77

Points to emphasize

Answers to Workbook pp.67–68

1. Bad things: (a) Destroyed traditional economy of the villages by heavy taxation and cheap imported cloth. (b) Failed to understand traditional system of land tenure and allowed land to be sold to rich businessmen. (c) Agricultural output was reduced largely due to supplying raw material to the west, and new crop plantations were owned by the British. (d) Legal proceedings conducted in English and the whole concept of their legal system

was alien and incomprehensible to the majority of Indians. (e) The Indians were largely barred from all of the highest offices in the legal system and the civil service.

Good things: (a) Introduced western-style education at all levels. (b) Improvements in transport and communications (railway, postal service, roads); female control through railways. (c) Big irrigation schemes and new crops. (d) Shariah and Hindu laws were largely retained. (e) Banning of suttee, thuggee and Pindaris; improvements in sanitation. (f) Gradual admission of Indians into higher branches of the law and civil service.

2. The way in which ownership of land is held and passed into heirs. Because the zamindars collected land tax and passed it onto the authorities, the British assumed that they owned the land. The families who worked the fields really held it in trust for their families and successors. When the zamindars did not collect the right amount of tax, the British seized their land and sold it to what we would call speculators—usually rich Calcutta businessmen. This meant that these huge estates were worked by something not a great deal better than slave labour.
3. (a) General funds for education; (b) Hindu College at Calcutta; (c) Calcutta Medical College; (d) three universities opened; (e) Roorkee College of Engineering.
4. (a) Abolition of suttee; (b) abolition of thuggee; (c) abolitions of Pindaris; (d) flogging in the army abolished.
5. Indian lawyers were allowed to become second-rank judges in 1830. Civil service posts were open to competitive examinations in 1853. The first Indian civil servant was appointed in 1864.
6. Expansion of roads, railways, telegraph lines, postal system, and canals. Allowed for the rapid movement of troops and supplies and food in times of famine. Abolition of the transport tax enabled people to travel more freely.

THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

78/79

Points to emphasize

Well over a century later, the whole business of the troubles of 1857 to 1858 are still hotly debated by historians and others. The causes and course of the War of Independence are complex, and there is no simple explanation.

1. Rapid reforms

The conflict was partly the reaction of the conservative, highly traditional section of the Indian community to the rapid reforms of the British, especially those reforms enacted during Dalhousie's governorship. Legal marriage for Hindu widows, land confiscation, the use of English, the real or imagined Christian missionary zeal, along with the banning of child marriages, infanticide, suttee, and thuggee seemed to undermine Hinduism. Opposition to these reforms was largely from the uneducated lower classes. The middle classes, richer and more peaceful than ever, remained outside the conflict and were rather apprehensive at times of its outcome.

2. Feudal retaliation

The nobles, princes and landowners were the real driving force behind the uprising, particularly where they had been dispossessed. They saw their power and position disappearing. The minor Muslim prince were perhaps the most active. The great mass of peasants, particularly outside the northern strip where agitators were most evident, realized that they had at least some

rights under British rule, whereas before they had been totally at the mercy of their prince. The current view of many historians is that the uprising was also the last desperate fling of feudalism against approaching modernism.

3. Colonial arrogance

The British were often arrogant and insensitive, despising the Indian people whom they regarded as inferior beings. Their upbringing and education made them regard themselves as the natural rulers of the world. Few knew the local languages, although some of the very senior officials and governors were fluent in Persian, Arabic, and Sanskrit. By the War of Independence, the worst corruption had been curtailed but company officials still lived a very luxurious and comfortable life indeed.

4. Missionary zeal

Christianization, though in the spirit of the evangelism of Victorian England, was misplaced. Caste was a system which held the Hindu masses together. There had been risings among the sepoys on this subject earlier, both at Vellore in 1806 and in Bengal in 1824, where insubordination was dealt with savagely by the British, who executed the rebels and condemned hundreds of others to fourteen years hard labour. In 1852, another regiment refused to go to Burma for fear of losing caste. By this time, the British had learned their lesson, and the regiment was re-routed to another camp.

5. Lee Enfield rifle

The whole of this region was a powder keg, waiting for a spark to ignite it. This the British supplied with the introduction of the Lee Enfield rifle. This rifle required a greased cartridge, which had to be held in the mouth in the process of loading. Rumours, whipped up by agitators, led the Hindus to believe that this grease was from the sacred cow while the Muslims were led to believe that it came from the unclean pig. Actually, at the time of the Meerut outbreak which precipitated the rising, the cartridges were supplied dry, each man providing his own grease as he felt appropriate.

6. The armies

There were about 40,000 European troops in 1857 and some 300,000 sepoys. While some of the senior officers were men of skill, the majority were old, worn out and had been promoted only because of seniority and long service. The bulk of the European troops was in the Punjab, which had been annexed only eight years earlier. The rest were scattered thinly right across northern India. The sepoys were probably aware that if they rebelled, there were few Europeans to confront them. Oudh was the focus of the whole affair, where there was great discontent, especially among the nobles, at the annexation of 1856.

The number of sepoys involved in the War of Independence is not known, but they outnumbered the troops, Indian and European, which remained loyal to the British by 50 to 1. This numerical advantage was partly offset by the fact that the British troops were highly regimented and controlled, while the sepoys were somewhat disorganized.

This disadvantage was underlined over and over again with the capture of the great fortresses, which should have been virtually impregnable. The great fortress of Gwalior, which rose on a sheer rock 100 metres high, is one notable example. After the town was taken (during which the Rani of Jhansi, whom the British commander General Rose described as the bravest and best military leader of all the rebels, was killed) most of the Indians fled from the city while

some remained in the fortress. The following morning, two young officers, Lieutenants Rose and Waller, with a contingent of Indian police, climbed up the precipitous and heavily guarded path, taking with them an immensely powerful blacksmith, who forced open six iron gates. By the time the last was breached, the alarm was given and some resistance met. But the two men and a few policemen captured the great fort which, if commanded properly, could have resisted attack for years.

7. Atrocities

The War of Independence was accompanied by atrocities on both sides. The massacre of European women and children on the orders of Nana Sahib, an otherwise fine ruler, illustrates how desperately the Indians wanted to achieve victory and independence.

The following is a contemporary extract from an article by the Times of London correspondent who reported on the fall of Lucknow to the British after the European inhabitants had been besieged in the Residency for months. The behaviour of the British soldiers is described thus:

The scene of plunder was indescribable. The soldiers had broken up several of the store rooms [in the city] and pitched the contents into the court which was lumbered with cases, with embroidered cloths, gold and silver brocade, silver vessels, arms, drums, scarves, musical instruments, mirrors, pictures, books . . . gorgeous standards, shields and spears. Through these moved the men, wild with excitement, 'drunk with plunder' . . . They smashed to pieces, the guns and pistols to get the gold mounting, and the precious stones set in the handles . . . They burned in a fire brocades, embroidered shawls for the sake of the gold and silver in them . . . China, glass, and jade they smashed for sheer fun. Pictures they ripped up or tossed on the flames; furniture shared the same fate. It was horrid enough to have to stumble through endless courts . . . amid dead bodies, across frail ladders, suffocated by the smell of rotting corpses . . . it was like a scene from Hell. But the seething crowds of camp followers into which we emerged was something worse. As revenous and almost as foul as vultures, they were picked in a dense mass in the street, afraid or unable to go into the palaces, and like the birds they resembled, waiting till the fight was done to prey on their plunder . . .

8. Delhi

The British knew that Delhi was the key to the whole uprising. Once Delhi was retaken, it would only be a matter of time before peace was restored to the region. The attack on Delhi was made by a relatively small force of 3800 troops, of which 1000 were European, the rest largely Punjabi, Kashmiri, Sikh, Balochi, and Bengali. When the rebels seized Delhi, every European they could find—men, women and children were murdered. This atrocity was repeated even more savagely when the British troops retook the city.

Some of the incidents read like stories out of the an adventure book. General Greathed was pushing ahead in the hopes of relieving Kanpur. Near Agra, he saw:

. . . a fakir seated under a tree close to where our tents were pitched. The man was evidently under a vow of silence, which Hindus often make as a penance for sin . . . When we addressed him he pointed to a small wooden dish, making signs for us to examine it. The dish had been quite recently used for mixing food in, and at first there seemed nothing unusual about it. On closer inspection, however, we discovered a small detachable square of wood had been let in at the bottom. On removing it, a hollow became visible and in it lay a small folded paper that proved to be a note from General

Havelock written in Greek characters. It contained the information that he was on his way much to the relief of the Lucknow garrison and begging any commander into whose hands the communication might fall to push on as fast as possible to his assistance as he sorely needed reinforcements . . .

This shows the amateurish way in which much of the campaign was conducted and also illustrates the value of a classical education. A senior general advised his officers to write in Greek, as the rebel officers would certainly be able to read English.

Answers to Workbook pp. 69–70

1. (a) i. Foreigners who have taken over the territory that rightly belongs to us. ii. Brought in too many reforms and are changing our traditional way of life. (b) i. We have brought peace to the subcontinent; we have enacted reforms in education, transport, communications and the law. We have enacted humanitarian laws to make life easier and better for the people. ii. Appreciate all that we have done for them. (c) i. All of our former wealth and power as well as our territory and independent status. ii. To regain our former positions of authority and do not want to be subject to British control. (d) We do not want to grease our cartridges with the grease of cows (the Hindus) or the grease of pigs, which are unclean (the Muslims); we (the Hindus) do not want to be sent overseas because that would mean losing caste.
2. Delhi; it was very important in the history of both the Muslims and the Hindus.
3. (a) There were very few leaders, at the time, who could unite the Indian people; (b) there were little feelings of unity and nationalism among the Hindus and Muslims at this period; (c) the scattered uprisings were not coordinated and the troops were not very disciplined; (d) the company forces outnumbered the rebelling sepoys; (e) Punjab, Bengal, Madras, and Bombay garrisons remained loyal to the British.

THE PEAK OF BRITISH POWER: INDIA 1858 TO 1905

80/81

Points to emphasize

1. The Government of India Act 1858

Although in theory, Parliament was directly responsible for the running of India, the Secretary of State for India had an extraordinary amount of powers. When the Red Sea telegraph line was opened in 1870 (this would transmit messages in Morse code, not speech), communication between London and Delhi became almost instantaneous.

Britain left the princely states virtually untouched, despite the fears of the local princes. Over 500 states, covering two-fifths of India, remained as they were. During the War of Independence, these states had remained either neutral or in favour of the British. The British probably felt that they might be of similar help in any future uprisings.

2. 1858 to the 1890s

Apart from a brief incursion by the British into Afghanistan and the seizure of Burma (because of the fear of French expansion in Indo-China), the years 1858 to the 1890s were relatively peaceful. There were steady improvements, with a gradual increase in the political powers given to the Indian people. Although central control still rested in the hands of the viceroy and his officials, these measures did influence future events, especially in relation to the demands

for self-government. One of the most important events in this period was the setting up of the Indian National Congress. Perhaps the greatest improvements were on the social side, in communications, education, health, and sanitation.

Answers to Workbook pp. 71–72

1. The War of Independence, 1857.
2. (a) Power was transferred from the East India Company to the British government. The company's possessions were made into Crown colonies. A viceroy was appointed to replace the Governor-General. A Secretary of State for India was appointed along with a committee in London; (b) the Bengal army was disbanded, and a new army was formed, largely of Sikhs, Gurkhas, and Punjabis. New ranks of non-European junior officers were created; (c) three universities and some colleges, were opened; (d) tea and coffee growing were encouraged under European owners.
3. The act contained no suggestion of self-rule, of independence.
4. (a) The government appointed Indians to sit on the Viceroy's Legislative Council; (b) Indians were appointed to sit on provincial councils as well.
5. (a) Universities and colleges were opened, mainly for the sons of chiefs and nobles; (b) Curzon made universities into real educational institutions; (c) Curzon extended primary and secondary education to the ordinary people. It can also be mentioned that the Mohammadan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh was founded by Sir Syed Ahmed Khan.
6. (a) An organization where educated Indians and (some) Europeans could meet to discuss social and political issues. (b) It was weak because it had no real political power; the absence of a large Muslim representation. (M.A. Jinnah was one of the notable exceptions.)
7. (a) Created the North West Frontier Province to try to settle constant wars there; (b) Punjabi peasants were given the same protection as peasants in Bengal; (c) Reformed universities and education; (d) Promoted Indian heritage, especially archaeological findings; (e) Partition of Bengal.
8. (a) Muslims felt that they were being discriminated against because of their involvement in the War of Independence; they were the poorest section of community; they wanted to register their protest against the British government. (b) The Muslims were not given the same opportunities as the Hindus and fell behind in education. As they were not as well educated, they did not have access to better paying jobs and few leaders could emerge.
9. (a) Making it illegal for certain topics to be printed in the press or books, shown on television or in the cinema, heard on radio, or even discussed in public on moral, religious or political grounds. (b) Possible discussion points: censorship can be imposed by governments who do not want certain areas of their business known to the public. If this is in the interests of national safety—state secrets such as the strength and position of the armed forces—there may be some justification for censorship. If it is to conceal their devious dealings or corruption, there is a strong case against state censorship. Censorship can be imposed by religious leaders, although it is impossible to make this total unless the country is ruled by a theocracy. Public opinion can exert pressure on the government to impose censorship in certain areas, like films of executions, pornography, etc.

Other questions which you might like to pose to the class. Is there ever any justification for censorship? Who is to decide what items should be censored? What should happen to people who defy censorship laws? How does one prevent scurrilous libel from being published for personal gain? Should free speech be subject to limitations?

Pupils might be amused at a famous example of state censorship in early Soviet Russia. There was a photograph of Stalin and Trotsky, standing side by side on a podium behind a table with

a cloth on it which did not reach to the ground. When Trotsky fell from power and was exiled, the photograph was printed without him. Unfortunately, the person in charge of censoring the photograph forgot to delete Trotsky's legs, which appeared below the table.

THE ROAD TO INDEPENDENCE 1900 TO 1940

82/85

Points to emphasize

Answers to Workbook pp.73–75

1. It was the first time a major European power had been defeated by an Asian country. This victory gave other Asian nations the hope that they too might overthrow the Europeans. Boosted nationalism.
2. The All-India Muslim League was formed so that the Muslims would have a voice in Indian politics. The Indian National Congress was largely dominated by the Hindus. The Muslim League demanded separate electorates for the Muslims because they would always be in a minority in any joint elections.
3. (a) Self-government at some unspecified time in the future; (b) elected members in provincial councils should outnumber appointed officials; (c) the Viceroy's Council to include appointed Indian members, but British officials remained in the majority; (d) Separate electorates for the Muslims and the Sikhs. Jinnah was opposed to separate electorates at the time because he hoped to work with the moderate Hindu leaders, Gokhale, for a united India.
4. (a) People could be arrested and imprisoned for political offences without trial. (b) The Amritsar Massacre.
5. (a) The viceroy could veto any decision passed by the Legislative Assembly; (b) The central government, under the viceroy, controlled the police, judges, defence and the budget; (c) There were only two or three Indian ministers in the viceroy's inner cabinet.
6. (a) Moderate Hindu leader. Aimed to work with the Muslims for a united state; (b) Extreme Hindu nationalist who took power on the death of Gokhale. He was determined that the Hindus should dominate the Muslims.
7. The aim of the Khilafat Movement was to support the caliphate in Turkey, which was being threatened by the victorious Allies in Europe. There were rumours that the Allies were going to depose the sultan of Turkey, who was the caliph of Islam. The Muslims saw this as an attempt to destroy Islam. Maulana Muhammad Ali and Maulana Shaukat Ali were instrumental figures in the movement.
8. (a) The British promised the Indians self-government in the future; (b) Indian ministers were present in the British wartime cabinet, the Versailles Conference and the League of Nations; (c) the collapse of the Russian, German, Austrian, and Ottoman empires gave the Indians hope that the British empire would be the next to collapse.
9. (a) Non-attendance in schools and colleges; (b) not voting in elections; (c) resigning from government jobs. It also asked princes and nobles to renounce titles given to them by the British.
10. (a) Muslim-Hindu riots were on the rise; (b) At the All-parties Conference in Calcutta (1928), the Indian National Congress rejected Jinnah's plea for the two sides to work together.
11. (a) Gandhi made little impact and refused to consider anything but Hindu majority rule; (b) The scheduled castes demanded separate representation, which was rejected by Gandhi and the higher castes.

12. (a) A certain percentage of seats in the provincial assemblies was to be reserved for the Muslims; (b) Muslims were to have one-third of the seats on the Central Legislative Assembly; (c) Sindh was to become a separate province. There were riots and disturbances. The Muslims accepted the Award reluctantly, as they felt that they had been treated unfairly. The Hindus rejected the Award. Gandhi vowed to fast unto death unless the Hindus were given what they demanded.
13. (a) India was to have a federal government consisting of a central government and provincial assemblies; (b) The viceroy's cabinet was to be responsible to the central (mainly elected) assembly; (c) Defence and foreign affairs were to remain in the hands of the viceroy; (d) Governors in the provinces were to have the power of veto only in emergencies or a breakdown of law and order; (e) India was to be a self-governing dominion as soon as possible.
14. (a) They would be permanently powerless because of their minority status; (b) The princes, who had a majority in the upper house, could block any legislation which they did not like; (c) The element of democracy was a threat to their power.

INDIA 1939 TO 1947

86/87

Points to emphasize

1. Change

By 1939, there had been a marked change in the attitude of the British public to India. Many people, and political parties, were coming to regard colonialism as a relic of the past. In India itself, the pressure of public opinion was now a powerful force, especially since there was an educated section of the public who not only wanted independence but also had the education and skill to decide/be the masters of their own destinies. In British circles, vague promises of 'independence when suitable' were being discarded.

2. World War II

The conquest of much of Europe by the Germans in 1940 and Britain's role as the sole power against the Nazis, made its position as a world power very precarious. Linlithgow's August Offer 1940 was made as a last desperate attempt. Japan had not yet entered the war but, with turbulence in India, the whole of the British empire in Asia seemed to be in jeopardy.

The collapse of France in 1940 seemed to herald the immediate surrender of Britain. Gandhi was delighted and praising Marshal Petain (the French leader who surrendered to the Germans and who was later charged with treason): urged ' . . . every Briton to find a nobler and braver way' of ending the war by surrendering to Hitler.

3. The August Offer 1940

This offer contained one important concession not present in earlier offers. The Indian constitution was to be formulated by the Indian Constituent Assembly and the British Parliament would accept whatever was decided by it. However, Gandhi's total intransigence by insisting that Congress alone should represent India in any discussions forced the Muslim League to issue the Lahore Declaration. Jinnah had always fought for a united subcontinent, but he now realized that it was impossible. Gandhi's civil disobedience campaign reached its peak in early 1941 when 14,000 Congressmen were imprisoned. There was no real support for this movement from the masses.

4. Role of Indian troops in World War II

Troops from the subcontinent played a major role first in north Africa, where they showed their brilliance in modern warfare with tanks and after December 1941, when Japan joined the conflict in south-east Asia. 90,000 Indian troops were involved in the disaster in Malaysia and Singapore, where the Allied troops were overrun by the Japanese. It was largely Indian troops who pushed back into Assam, broke the Japanese advance towards India at Kohima. After that, the defeat of Japan was virtually inevitable.

5. Indian Independence Bill 1947

Jinnah urged Mountbatten for a more equal division of India but was told peremptorily that he must take what was offered or he would give everything to India. Mountbatten, in retirement, was murdered by the IRA in Ireland. The partition was brought forward ten months from the proposed date of June 1947 to August 1947, leaving just six weeks to sort out the extremely complex arrangements.

Answers to Workbook pp. 76–78

1. It wanted to gain Congress support for India's participation in World War II. (a) India would become a full dominion after the war if all parties agreed; (b) Indians could frame their own constitution if they all agreed.
2. The first unequivocal demand for a separate state for Indian Muslims. Without their own state, Muslims would always be powerless in the face of a Congress/Hindu majority.
3. (a) To solve the constitutional problems in India; (b) India to become a union with full dominion status after the war, with its own self-formulated constitution; (c) Any state or province could opt out of the union (princely state to be given same status as province).
4. (a) The Simla Conference offered the Indian government full power with the viceroy as ceremonial head. (b) It wanted the complete control that it would get in any election because it would always hold a majority of votes. (c) It knew that it would never have any say in running a united country.
5. (a) Provinces and states to form an Indian Union; (b) Three groups of states, a mixture of Muslim and Hindu people of mixed religions; (c) Major issues (defence, foreign affairs, etc.) to remain in the hands of the central government, while other issues would be dealt with by state and provincial governments.
6. (a) Britain would withdraw from India in 1948, handing over power to any government which had the support of the Indian people. (b) Make provision for two states, one Muslim and one Hindu.
7. (a) The subcontinent was to be divided into two separate states, India and Pakistan, with the viceroy dividing the assets between them; (b) the princely states, now released from all treaties with Britain, could join either of the two independent states; (c) Britain no longer had any authority over the subcontinent.
8. (a) A senior British judge, Lord Radcliffe, assisted by two Muslim and two Hindu judges. (b) Refer to pp. 86–91 of the Pupil's Book.

Points to emphasize

1. Eye-witness accounts

The following are various eye-witness accounts:

‘More horrible than anything we saw in the war’ is the universal comment of experienced officers, British and Indian, on the present slaughter in East Punjab. The Sikhs are clearing East Punjab of Muslims, butchering hundreds daily, forcing thousands to flee westwards, burning Muslim villages and homesteads, even in their frenzy burning their own. The violence has been organized from the highest levels of Sikh leadership and is being done systematically, sector by sector. Some large towns like Amritsar and Jullundur, are now systemically, sector by sector. Some large towns like Amritsar and Jullundur, are now quieter, because there are no Muslims left. In a two hours’ air reconnaissance of the Jullundur district at the weekend I must have seen 50 villages aflame.

The Sikh jathas . . . assemble usually in the *gurdwaras*, their places of worship, before making a series of raids. Many jathas cross over from the Sikh [princely] States. The Muslims are usually only with staves. When threatened they assemble on their roofs and beat gongs and drums to summon help from neighbouring Muslim communities, and prepare to throw stones at the attackers. The Sikhs attack scientifically. A first wave, armed with firearms, fires to bring the Muslims off their roofs. A second wave lobbs grenades over the walls. In the ensuing confusion a third wave goes in with kirpans—the Sikh sabres, which are also religious emblems—and spears, and the serious killing begins. A last wave consists of older men, often Army prisoners with long white beards, who carry torches and specialize in arson. Mounted outriders with kirpans cut down those trying to flee. British officers have seen jathas that have included women and even children with spears. Appalling atrocities have been committed; bodies have been mutilated; none has been spared—men, women, and children. In one village, out of 50 corpses, 30 were those of women. One officer found four babies roasted to death over a fire . . .

[The London Times, 24 August 1947]

A Colonel Sher Khan wrote the following account after witnessing a train massacre on 22 September 1947:

It appeared that practically everyone on it, except thirteen Hindu soldiers of the guard [put on the train], had been killed, wounded or abducted. I saw a British officer, a lieutenant, lying dead with a Muslim Havildar. There were still thousands of people, mainly Sikhs, shouting slogans . . . After passing Amritsar the train slowed down and then stopped. Soon after, heavy firing started from both sides. Then hundreds of Sikhs rushed on the train. They first started collecting valuables off the women, and throwing out boxes. Anyone who resisted was killed . . . Having done all the looting, they started killing. There was some firing from the train, presumably the escort . . . I then talked to the Hindu members of the guard. They said that they did open fire, but the Lieutenant Sahib was killed . . . these soldiers, thirteen in number, said there had been eight Muslims as well with the Lieutenant Sahib in command. They thought they had all been killed.

It is impossible to estimate the number of the dead as they were piled on top of each other in the compartments; between 1200 to 1500. Altogether forty lorries were sent to Lahore loaded with wounded, including 200 who had escaped serious injuries . . . The police said they were going to dump the bodies in the Beas River . . .

Stephens writes of early Pakistan:

At Delhi, the new Indian regime inherited all the splendid buildings and equipment of the Imperial Secretariat; but at Karachi the Pakistan Government scarcely possessed typewriters, telephones, desks, ink or stationery: and its personnel struggled with urgent tasks of creative nation-building not in palatial buildings of carved red sandstone, but temporarily in corners of shabby tin hutments and other structures left over from World War II. They focused their glowing hopes, in this shared new venture, on their Quaid-i-Azam, their own Governor-General and fellow-Muslim, Mr Jinnah. It was inspiring to visit Pakistan, and to feel the enthusiasms that did away with difficulties, in those early days . . .

In September 1947, there were violent anti-Muslim riots in Delhi. Nehru and Sardar Patel turned to the Governor-General, Mountbatten, and temporarily gave back many of their powers to him, hoping he would solve the problem. One British writer records:

In fear and squalor many thousands of Delhi's Muslim citizens who had fled their homes lived herded in improvised refugee camps, one of which, by an irony of fate, was the bastioned Purana Qila or Old Fort, built in the 16th century by the emperors Humayun and Sher Shah . . . It was an appalling sight; there was no shelter, no doctor, no sanitary arrangements, no means of communication. I was surrounded this time by a circle of men ten or twelve deep; and once more the cry went up 'Sahib, help us!' Many of these Muslims were Pakistani-to-be; people who had opted for the smaller Dominion but had been unable to get there because of the slaughter and derailments in the Punjab: the poor, mainly; but members of the Delhi aristocracy also; government officials, high and low; mercantile people of all sorts. They may have seemed demoralised in the camps; but the spirit of fortitude bred amidst these adversities, when eventually they were taken to Karachi by air, helped Pakistan to get through the daunting stresses and confusions of her first few months of life.

Answers to Workbook pp. 79–80

1. Refer to pp.86–91 of the Pupil's Book.
2. They were surrounded by Indian territory and could receive no support from Pakistan.
3. Kashmir is close to the region where Russia, China, Afghanistan, India, and Pakistan meet. This is a highly volatile area.
4. (a) The large majority of the people were Muslim; (b) Kashmir controlled the headwaters of the rivers on which much of Pakistan's agriculture depended.
5. The ruler of Kashmir and most army and government officials were Hindu. The chief minister, though a Muslim, wanted to join India.
6. India refused to accept Pakistan's proposal because they were opposed to the idea of elections in Kashmir: they realized that the large Muslim majority would almost certainly opt to join Pakistan.

7. Map as below:



THE BOUNDARY COMMISSION AND ITS FINDINGS

90/91

Points to emphasize

1. One unfortunate aspect of the commission was that the Muslim and Hindu judges who formed it under Radcliffe could agree on almost nothing. As a result, decisions were left to Cyril Radcliffe, who, though a worthy lawyer, had no experience of the subcontinent.
2. There seems little doubt that Radcliffe was under pressure from Gandhi and Nehru to make what seem unfair decisions on the frontiers. The most glaring of these are, of course, Kashmir and Gurdaspur/Jalandhar—the latter not only having a Muslim majority, but are also vital to the whole of Pakistan's agriculture. Calcutta, the great commercial asset, did have a Hindu majority but a large proportion of that was scheduled classes which sided with the League. The population of territory round Calcutta, on which much of Calcutta's prosperity was based, was predominantly Muslim.
3. It was unfortunate, though perhaps unavoidable, that Pakistan was allocated two areas where there was most trouble in the subcontinent—the North West Frontier Province and the Burma/Assam border with East Pakistan.
4. The whole concept of two parts of an independent state separated by 1600 km was impractical.
5. Mountbatten must take some of the blame for the unjust decisions, as he seems to have definitely favoured Gandhi (whom he liked as a man, if not as a politician) and Nehru. Stephens, who had long discussions with all the leaders at the time of partition, in his *Pakistan* (Benn, London, 1976) writes:

Clearly Lord Mountbatten and Mr Jinnah differed very much in temperament. Any visitor to Government House could learn that, whereas both the Viceroy and Vicereine were on affable terms with leading Congressmen, they were not so yet with Mr Jinnah

or the Leaguers. Mr Jinnah was not easy to become affable with. It seems doubtful whether Lord Mountbatten had yet really developed the hostility to him which he later showed. If he had, Mr Jinnah seemed unaware of it. For it is a fact that, near the start of this episode, Mr Jinnah pressed him (i.e., Mountbatten) to become ‘a sort of super-Governor-General’, with both Dominion Governors-General under him . . .

Answers to Workbook p.81

1. Division along religious lines: Muslim majority areas to go to Pakistan, and Hindu majority areas to India.
2. Over many centuries the different religious groups had intermingled so that there were often large minorities of one religion in an area which would, under a strict head count, be given to the other country. Then there was the problem of safeguarding vital water supplies and communications which, by the simple religious division, would be within the other country. Princely states, which had a ruler of one religion but a majority of the population of the other, posed another problem. Though not mentioned in the text, it might be worth mentioning that there were no natural boundaries for the two states—mountains, rivers, etc. (though the Hooghly might have been seen as a natural western boundary for East Pakistan). (a) Kashmir had a large Muslim majority while its maharaja was a Hindu; (b) Calcutta was essential to the economy of East Pakistan. It had a Hindu majority in the city itself, a very large number of whom were the scheduled classes who were allied to the Muslim League. There was a majority of Muslims in the land surround the city, on whom Calcutta depended for its economic life; (c) the Gurdaspur and Jalandhar region was given to India, although it had a Muslim majority and also controlled some of the canals and waterways that were vital to Pakistan’s agriculture. Another disputed area was Hyderabad which had a Muslim ruler and a very considerable Muslim minority. The Nizam did not wish to join India but the state of Hyderabad was seized by force.
3. It was a commission appointed to draw up the frontiers. It was presided over by the English Judge Cyril Radcliffe, assisted by equal members of Muslim and Hindu judges and legal advisers. Its members toured the regions to hear the opinions of local people and to survey the ground. They reported back to Radcliffe whose offices were in the viceroy’s house. The survey was done at maximum speed—in six weeks.
4. Giving Kashmir to India when the great majority of the population was Muslim, though the ruler was Hindu. Even his own Hindu prime minister advocated joining Pakistan. Gurdaspur and Jalandhar did have Muslim majorities, though not as large as that of Kashmir, but they did control the headwaters of the Sutlej and other river systems which were essential to Pakistan’s irrigation, but this area too was given to India.

PAKISTAN AND BANGLADESH

92/93

Answers to Workbook pp. 82

1. (a) Separation by 1600 kilometres across hostile India made communications very difficult except by radio or sea; (b) East Pakistanis believed that their province was being exploited as a source of raw materials for West Pakistan; (c) West Pakistan enforced the use of Urdu in the National Assembly instead of Bengali. Although East Pakistan had more people, it had the same number of representatives in the National Assembly. The East was given poorer health and education provisions.

2. They were united by Islam: the West—97 per cent Muslim; the East—77 per cent Muslim.
3. (a) West Pakistan was using East Pakistan as a source of raw materials and a captive market for its goods; (b) they disliked the use of Urdu in the National Assembly; (c) although they had a larger population, they had the same number of seats as West Pakistan in the National Assembly; (d) they claimed that they had fewer civil servants and members in the armed forces; (e) they felt that they were not given enough resources to improve health and education.
4. (a) The distance between West and East: troops from West Pakistan had to make the long voyage all round India to reach the East. Once there, they were, in effect, totally isolated; (b) the intervention of the strong Indian army.
5. When Yahya Khan agreed to one-man-one-vote, the East, with its larger population would always have a majority in the National Assembly and could outvote the West on any important issue.

PROBLEMS FACING THE YOUNG PAKISTAN

94/95

Answers to Workbook pp.83–84

1. Partition problems: Whereas India had inherited the military forces, civil service and administration of the British Raj, Pakistan had to build these anew. India was automatically given a seat on the UN Security Council by virtue of its name. Millions of refugees sought refuge in Pakistan, where the new government had to provide for them out of a limited supply of resources. The issue of Kashmir continued to create tension between Pakistan and India long after the partition.

Geographical resources: Only one-third of the country was cultivated. There were huge areas of barren desert and high mountains, where nothing could grow. The fertile areas were threatened by India's control of the sources of the great rivers. Pakistan had few industries or minerals. East and West Pakistan were 1600 kilometres apart, so it was difficult to govern both.

Political difficulties: After the deaths of the early leaders, like Jinnah and Liaquat Ali Khan, there were no inspirational leaders who could compete with the great stature of the founders of the state. There was widespread corruption. Pakistan gained a bad international reputation, and was on the verge of bankruptcy. There were also political quarrels, changes in ministries and general instability.

Unforeseen accidents: The deaths of Jinnah and Liaquat Ali Khan shortly after the partition; the troubles in Kashmir; the conflict between East and West Pakistan.

PAKISTAN—THE FIRST FIFTY YEARS

96/99

Answers to Workbook pp.85–86

1. Mohammad Ali Jinnah (died in 1948); Khawaja Nazimuddin (1948–1951); Ghulam Muhammad (1951–1955); Iskander Mirza (1955–1958); Ayub Khan (1958–1969); Yahya Khan (1969–1971); Zulfikar Ali Bhutto (1971–1973), Bhutto became the prime minister in 1973; Fazal Elahi Chaudry (1973–1978); Ziaul Haq (1978–1988), Ziaul Haq became Martial Law Administrator in July 1977 and assumed the role of president towards the end

of 1978; Ghulam Ishaq Khan (1988–1993); Farooq Ahmed Leghari (1993–1997). For forms of government, refer to the timeline at the bottom of pp.96 to 99 of the Pupil's Book.

2. (a) 1955; (b) 1956; (c) 1959; (d) 1965; (e) 1969; (f) 1971; (g) 1973.
3. Individual work.
4. Pakistan allied itself with China as a counterbalance to India's close ties with the Soviet Union.
5. This could result in a fruitful class discussion. Possible reasons include: high birth rate; relatively few natural resources; political instability; high cost of defence; feudalism.
6. (a) Pakistan People's Party; (b) Pakistan National Alliance; (c) International Monetary Fund.
7. (a) Approximately 27 years; (b) approximately 24 years.
8. Creative work.

SIR SYED AHMED KHAN

100/101

Answers to Workbook pp.87

1. Religious toleration: Although a devout Muslim, Sir Syed had great respect for all religions and argued that Islam and Christianity shared many things in common.
Technology: Sir Syed Ahmed Khan tried to reform traditional views of science by arguing that technology was as much a part of God's creation as nature and that it was right and proper to study science and technology.
Muslim/Hindu relations: He respected the religion of the Hindus but feared that if India adopted a democratic form of government, the Hindus would always be dominant because of their majority status.
Muslim/British relations: He tried to convince the people to remain loyal to the British as they had brought peace to India. In 1857, during the disturbances, he personally intervened to save the British residents of Bundelkhand. He wanted to establish a more friendly relationship between the British and the Muslims.
Education: Above all, Sir Syed was a great educational reformer. He realized that the key to the future of the Muslims in India was education. He established the Mohamman Anglo-Oriental College so that Muslims could learn both Islamic texts as well as science and languages. The effect was dramatic: when these students entered the adult world, they reached high posts in the government and in political assemblies.

MOHAMMAD ALI JINNAH: THE QUAID-I-AZAM

102/103

Answers to Workbook pp.88

1. Timeline: 1876: birth; 1892: Jinnah matriculates at the age of 16; 1896: Jinnah returns to Karachi after qualifying as the youngest Indian barrister; 1906: Jinnah joins the Indian National Congress; 1910: Jinnah is elected to the Imperial Legislative Council; 1916: the Lucknow Pact; 1920: Jinnah resigns from Congress; 1928: Jinnah's 'Fourteen Points'; 1930–1936: Voluntary exile; 1935: the Government of India Act is passed by the British Parliament and Jinnah returns to India in 1936; 1940: The Lahore Resolution on Pakistan; 1946: British Cabinet Proposals.

Answers to Workbook pp.89

1. After Z.A. Bhutto: Ziaul Haq became Martial Law Administrator and President (1977–1988); 1979 Russians invade Afghanistan; 1984 Announcement that martial law would end in 1985 and that there would be a referendum; 1984 Results of referendum confirm Ziaul Haq’s power; 1985–1988 Economic problems; 1988 Dismissal of Junejo, return of Benazir Bhutto, death of Ziaul Haq, elections. Benazir Bhutto, prime minister (1988–1990); Nawaz Sharif, prime minister (1990–1993) with Ghulam Ishaq Khan as president. Benazir Bhutto, prime minister (1993–1997) Farooq Leghari president (1993–1997). Nawaz Sharif, prime minister (1997) with Farooq Leghari as president.

PAKISTAN TODAY: THE ROAD TO PROSPERITY

The pages on modern Pakistan in the Pupil’s Book should be read and then discussed in class. Although there are no formal written exercises in the Workbook, pupils should be encouraged to think about these issues.

