

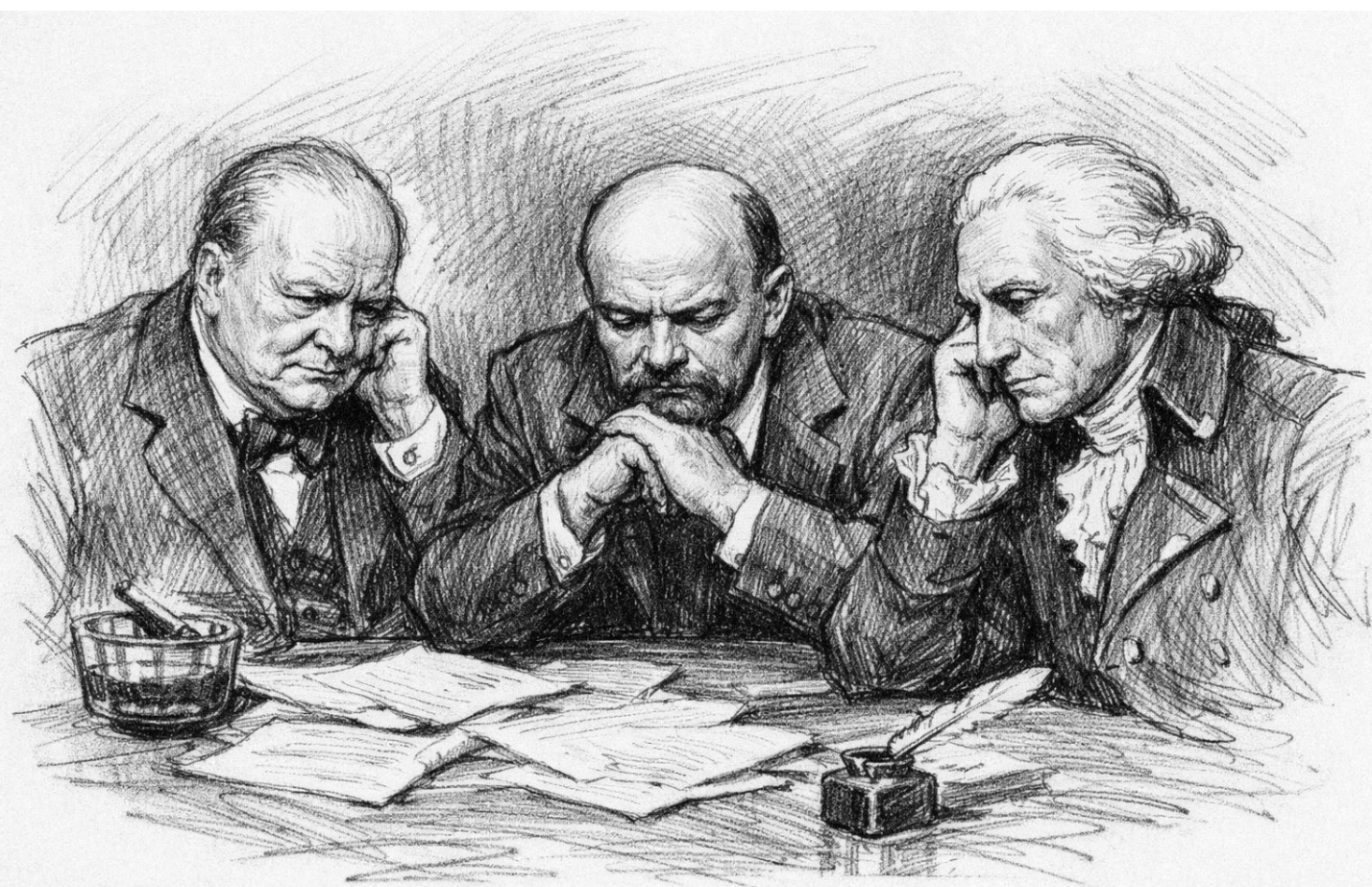
A-LEVEL HISTORY

AT NEWCASTLE SIXTH FORM COLLEGE



IN THE

KNOW!



NAME:	
MEG:	

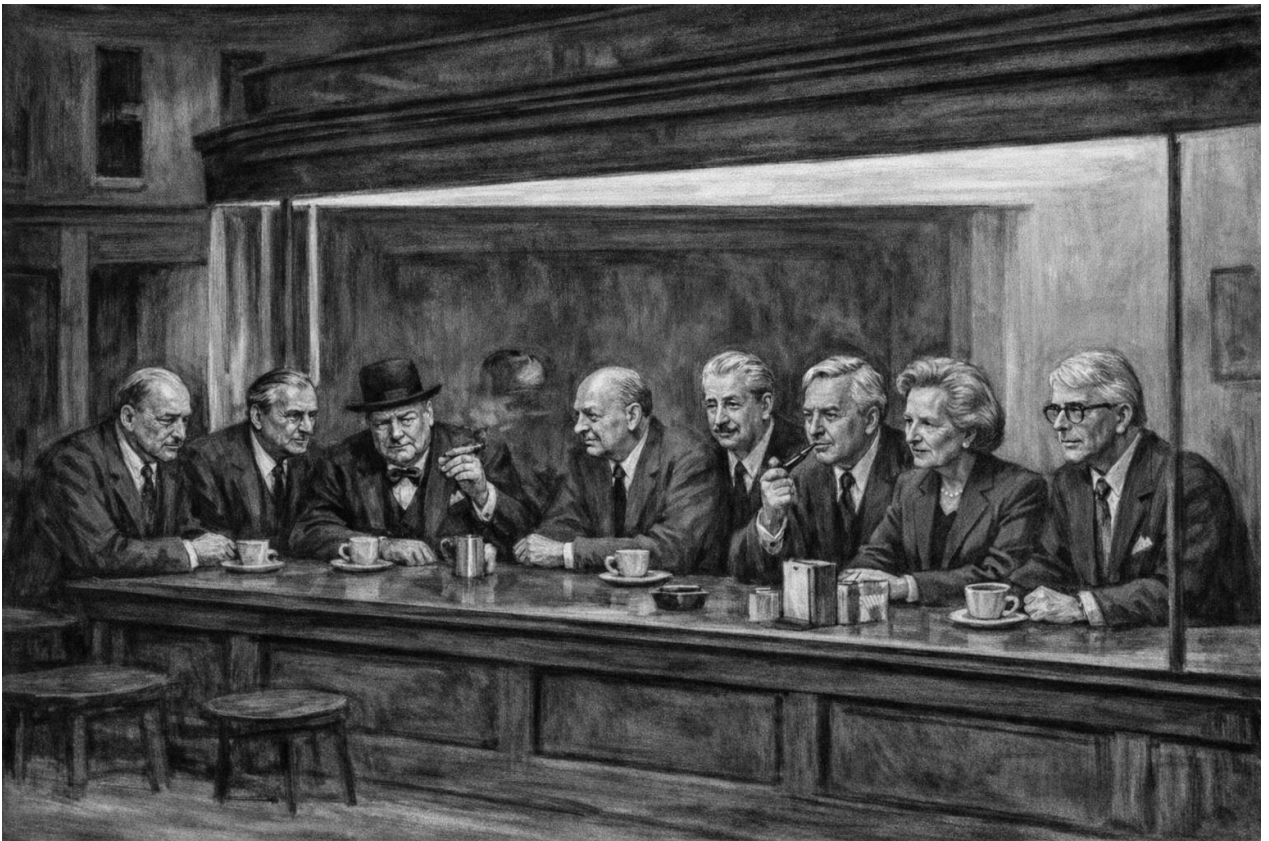
Britain 1930-1997 – Russia and its Rulers – American Revolution

Contents

This booklet contains key information across the three subjects you have covered. The information has been broken down into themes that can be used as evidence during the exam.

Britain 1930-1997	p. 2
➤ Section A – Churchill	p. 3
➤ Section B – 1951-1997	p. 17
 Russia and its Rulers 1855-1964	 p. 26
➤ Thematic	p. 27
➤ Depth	p. 56
 American Revolution 1740-1796	 p. 61
➤ The development of British hegemony in America	p. 62
➤ Causes of the American Revolution	p. 68
➤ The American Revolution 1774–1783	p. 75
➤ The early Republic 1783–1796	p. 82

Britain 1930-1997



Section A – Churchill

Section B – 1951-1997

Churchill: Early Years

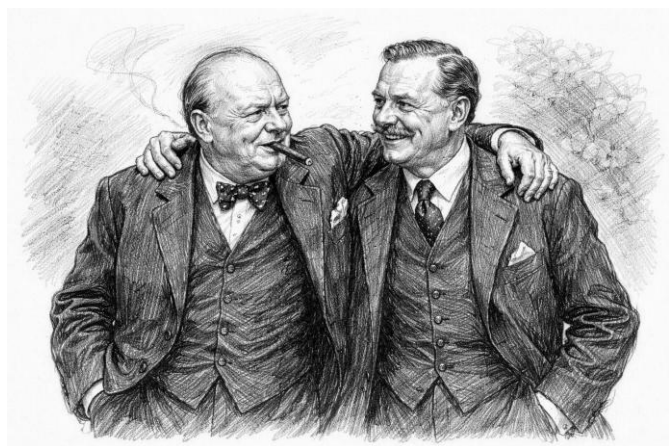
Early Military Career

Winston Churchill served in **India** and **Sudan**, fighting at Omdurman, and gained fame during the **Second Boer War** after escaping from captivity.

During the First World War, as **First Lord of the Admiralty**, he helped plan the **failed Gallipoli Campaign**. After resigning, he briefly returned to **serve as a lieutenant-colonel on the Western Front** before re-entering government by 1918.



Early Political Career



Gold Standard: A monetary system in which the standard economic unit of account is based on a fixed quantity of gold. It severely overvalued the pound by roughly 10%, making British exports expensive.

Winston Churchill entered Parliament in 1900 as a **Conservative MP** but switched to **the Liberal Party** in 1904.

After the First World War, he **returned to the Conservative Party** and was appointed to senior posts by **PM Stanley Baldwin**, including **Chancellor of the Exchequer** (1924–29), where he **controversially returned Britain to the Gold Standard**.

Churchill supported strong government action against strikers, including the **use of troops at Tonypandy (1910)** and **tanks in Glasgow (1919)** to maintain order.

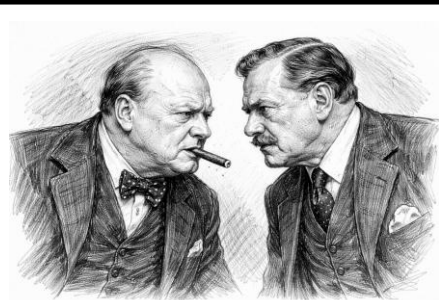
During the **Irish War of Independence (1919-1921)**: As Secretary of State for War, Churchill was responsible for sending the **"Black and Tans"** to Ireland to fight the IRA, who issued **harsh reprisals against civilians** after IRA attacks. This led to a period of intense conflict and criticism.

The National Government was a cross-party coalition formed in 1931 during the Great Depression to deal with Britain's economic crisis, led first by Ramsay MacDonald but largely dominated by the Conservatives.

Churchill: Wilderness Years

Wilderness Years

After 1929, Winston Churchill entered what became known as his “wilderness years.” Falling out with Stanley Baldwin, exiled from government and increasingly isolated within his own Conservative Party, he was out of office for most of the 1930s.



Indian Independence – Key Information

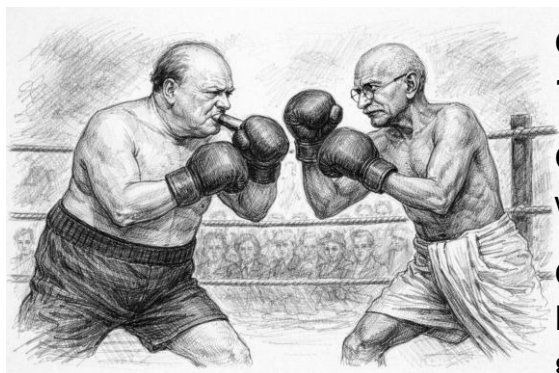
Winston Churchill strongly opposed Indian independence, calling India the “jewel in the crown” and arguing it should remain part of the British Empire.

The **Indian National Congress (INC)** was set up in 1885 to campaign for greater Indian participation in government.

Mahatma Gandhi led major non-violent protests against British rule.

The **Amritsar Massacre** destroyed Indian trust in **British rule**, strengthened the independence movement, and marked a turning point towards demands for **full independence**.

The **Round Table Conferences** were held between 1930 and 1931 to discuss constitutional reform in India.



Gandhi was released from jail in **1930 and 1931** to attend the conferences in London.

Gandhi attended Buckingham Palace for tea with **George VI** in 1931.

Churchill spoke at meetings of the **Indian Empire Society**, which opposed Indian self-government.

Baldwin undermined **Churchill's** position by making **calm, moderate speeches** mocking Churchill's position on India.

After the Government of India Act 1935, Churchill reduced his active opposition but continued to support maintaining and protecting the British Empire.

The **Amritsar Massacre** took place in 1919. Around 400 people were killed and 1,200 were wounded.

The **Indian Empire Society** was a British group in the 1930s that **opposed Indian independence** and supported maintaining imperial rule.

Churchill: Wilderness Years

Abdication Crisis – Key Information

Early 1936 – **Edward VIII** becomes king and makes clear his intention to marry **Wallis Simpson**, an American divorcee.

During a visit to **Merthyr Tydfil** in 1936, Edward declares that “**something must be done**” about **poverty**, causing concern among politicians.



Prime Minister **Stanley Baldwin** informs the King that the **government** and the **Church** will **not accept his marriage** to Simpson.

Winston Churchill, part of the informal group known as **King's Friends**, who supported the King.

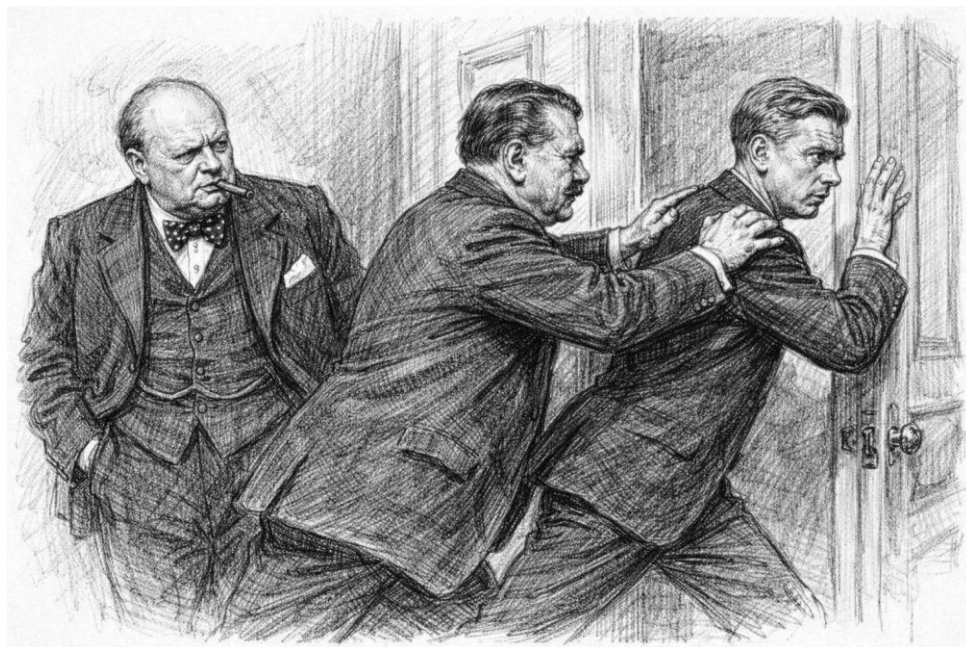
Churchill suggests a **morganatic marriage** as a way to resolve the crisis. This solution is rejected by **Baldwin** and the government.

Edward VIII formally **abdicated** the throne on the 10th December 1936.

The next day, the abdication is announced publicly, bringing the Edward VIII abdication crisis to an end.

Abdication means formally stepping down or renouncing the throne.

A **morganatic marriage** is one where a lower-ranked spouse cannot share the monarch's title, status, or pass rights to their children.



Churchill: Wilderness Years

Appeasement and Rearmament – Key Information

Hitler's Foreign Policy

Hitler's Key foreign policy aims:

- Uniting German speaking peoples
- Recovery of lost territories
- Rearmament
- Lebensraum (expansion into the East)
- Union with Austria



Timeline

- **January 1933: Hitler** became **Chancellor** of Germany.
- **1933:** Germany withdrew from the **League of Nations**.
- **1935:** Hitler sought to **abolish the Treaty of Versailles**.
- **June 1935:** Britain and Germany agree the **Anglo-German Naval Treaty**.
- **1935:** Hitler reintroduced **rearmament and conscription**.
- **March 1936:** Germany **remilitarised the Rhineland**.
- **March 1938: Anschluss** – Hitler achieved a political union with Austria.
- **September 1938:** Hitler demanded the **Sudetenland** from Czechoslovakia. The **Munich Conference**, attended by **Germany, Britain, France, and Italy**, agreed on the German annexation of the Sudetenland, where three million people, mainly ethnic Germans, lived.
- **March 1939: Germany invades Czechoslovakia.**
- **August 1939:** The **Nazi-Soviet Pact** was signed. It was an agreement between Germany and the Soviet Union not to attack each other and secretly divide Poland.
- **September 1939:** Germany and the Soviet Union **invaded Poland**, triggering the start of World War II.

Anglo-German Naval Treaty:
Germany was allowed to have **35% of Britain's navy**.

Munich Conference (1938): Germany, Britain, France, and Italy agreed to give Germany the Sudetenland from Czechoslovakia to avoid war.

Churchill: Wilderness Years

Appeasement and Rearmament – Key Information

There was an **anti-war** feeling amongst the **British public** following the **great loss** suffered during **World War I**.

Great Depression (1929) impacted **Rearmament** as military spending was not prioritised. Even so, in the 1930s, British **military spending** grew to **£700 million**.

Ten Year**Rule:**

Assumed there would be no major war for ten years.

Despite the **growing threat of Fascism**, in 1935, **Stanley Baldwin** avoided committing to **rearmament**, fearing it would **cost him the election**.

Winson Churchill was fearful of the rising threat of extremism, such as **Communism** but especially **Fascism** which he saw as the greater evil.

In 1935, the signing of the **Anglo-German Naval Treaty** shocked Churchill. He was bitterly **opposed to appeasement**.

Neville Chamberlain returned from the **Munich Conference (1938)** claiming he had secured “**peace for our time**,” believing that giving Hitler the Sudetenland would avoid war. Churchill claimed it was “**Disaster of the First Magnitude**”, and a “**total and unmitigated defeat**”.



Churchill hoped to build a **Grand Alliance** between **Britain, the United States, and the Soviet Union** because he believed only a united front could defeat Hitler. However, the plan was never fully feasible, since the three powers had deep **ideological mistrust**, conflicting war aims, clashing visions for the post-war world, and the US's **isolationist** stance.

Germany's occupation of the rest of Czechoslovakia in March 1939 proved that Hitler could not be trusted. The invasion convinced Churchill that Britain had to abandon negotiation and prepare for war immediately, as Hitler's ambitions were clearly unlimited. Churchill's warnings were still unpopular with many politicians, but the collapse of Czechoslovakia finally pushed the government closer to the stance he had argued for all along.

Military Strength

1939: Britain had 897,000 men (approx. 208,630 Regulars) in its army, spread across the empire.

1936: Germany had 1 million men in its army.

Churchill: World War II

Churchill becomes Prime Minister– Key Information

Appeasement had failed, as it did not prevent the outbreak of the Second World War.

Churchill returned to government in September 1939, when Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain appointed him **First Lord of the Admiralty** following the outbreak of the Second World War.

In 1940, **unemployment** in Britain stood at around **1 million**.

The early months of the war were known as the **Phoney War**, a period (Sept 1939–April 1940) when Britain and France were **technically at war** with Germany, but **very little fighting** took place. During this period, Britain focused on **rearmament**, and a massive propaganda campaign conducted primarily by the Royal Air Force (RAF), dropping **leaflets** over Germany. The public grew increasingly frustrated by the lack of action.

The disastrous **Norway Campaign** damaged confidence in Chamberlain's leadership. **Leo Amery** openly criticised Chamberlain in Parliament, urging him to step down: "**You have sat too long here for any good you have been doing. Depart, I say, and let us have done with you. In the name of God, go!**".

Neville **Chamberlain resigned** in 1940, losing political support.

The main candidates for Prime Minister were **Lord Halifax and Winston Churchill**.

Lord Halifax, the Foreign Secretary, was considered unsuitable because he sat in the **House of Lords**, and there were doubts about his confidence and willingness to lead.

Churchill's Reputation for Determination: Churchill was seen as a man of action—energetic, decisive, and uncompromising—which made him appealing during a national crisis.

Churchill became PM in May 1940, on the very day Germany invaded Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg. Britain needed a leader who could respond immediately to a rapidly collapsing situation in Europe.



Churchill: Churchill: World War II

World War II: Britain 1940 – Key Information

Dunkirk

The fall of France in June 1940 was shockingly swift:

German forces bypassed the **Maginot Line**, broke through the Ardennes, and overwhelmed French and British troops in just six weeks. Large numbers of Belgian, British, and French troops were cut off and surrounded by German troops at Dunkirk. A huge



improvised operation known as **Operation Dynamo**, using every available vessel—from Royal Navy destroyers to fishing boats, ferries, and private **“little ships.”** These boats shuttled soldiers from the beaches and harbour at Dunkirk across the English Channel to safety in Britain. Around **300,000 troops** were **evacuated** from Dunkirk, a **major boost to British morale** despite the defeat in France.

On June 4, **Churchill** rallied the nation in a speech to the House of Commons:

“we shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets, we shall fight in the hills; we shall never surrender...”

The collapse of France left **Britain standing alone** against Nazi Germany and marked one of the most dramatic defeats in modern European history.

To stop the **French fleet** falling into German hands, Churchill ordered an attack on five French vessels on 3 July 1940, resulting in **1,297 sailors killed**.



British troops lined up on the beach awaiting evacuation

Churchill: Churchill: World War II

World War II: Britain 1940 – Key Information

Battle of Britain

Sir Hugh Dowding, head of Fighter Command, defied Churchill's orders by refusing to waste aircraft on offensive missions over France, preserving planes for home defence.

The **Battle of Britain** (summer–autumn 1940) was the first major military campaign fought entirely in the air, as the **RAF defended Britain** against relentless attacks from the **German Luftwaffe**. Despite being outnumbered, Britain's fighter pilots—later celebrated as **“the Few”**—prevented a German invasion and delivered Hitler his first major defeat of the war.

The Luftwaffe was the name of the German air force

Churchill famously praised the RAF pilots who defended Britain, declaring that:

“Never in the field of human conflict was so much owed by so many to so few.”

The Blitz

Following the failure of the Battle of Britain, the Luftwaffe shifted to a bombing campaign against British cities **beginning in September 1940**, aimed at breaking morale and crippling industry. Night after night, the Luftwaffe targeted major urban centres, cities including London, Coventry, Birmingham, Liverpool, Manchester, Sheffield, Glasgow, Bristol, Southampton, and Hull, causing widespread destruction.

The Blitz left **around 2 million people homeless**, causing widespread destruction across British.

1 million children were evacuated from major cities to the countryside for safety during the Blitz.

Britain's resolve remained unbroken.



Churchill: Churchill: World War II

World War II: The Mediterranean Strategy – Key Information

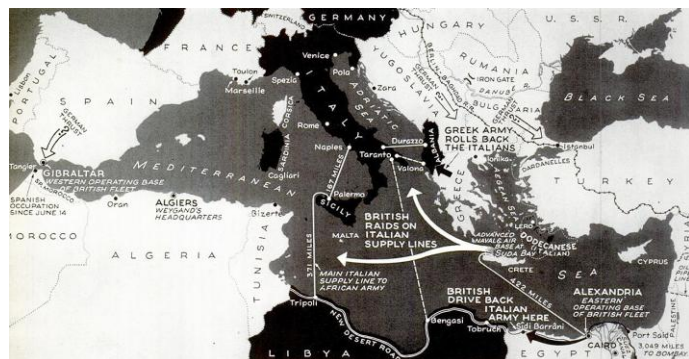
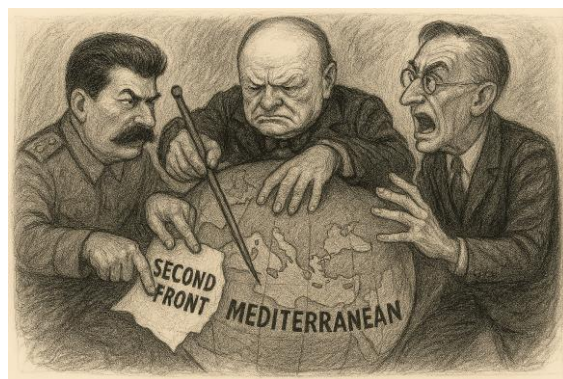
Italy joined the war in 1940 as part of the Axis with Germany, threatening British positions in the Mediterranean.

Churchill advocated for an invasion of **North Africa, Italy** and the **Balkans**, believing this was the “soft underbelly of Europe” and Germany’s weak point.

This strategy would also protect the **Suez Canal**, which was of vital importance to Britain, as it **protected access to India** and Middle Eastern oil.

Both the **United States** and the **USSR** opposed the Mediterranean Strategy, preferring to focus resources on opening a Second Front in northern France.

Fighting linked to the Mediterranean Strategy occurred in **Italy, North Africa, and the Balkans**.



British forces suffered **defeat in Greece** (1940–41), undermining hopes for a strong Balkan campaign.

The German **Afrika Korps** was commanded by General **Erwin Rommel**, known as the “Desert Fox.”

The **Battle of El Alamein** took place in 1942, marking a major turning point in North Africa.

Britain **invaded Sicily in 1943**, beginning the Italian Campaign.

Sixteen Allied divisions fought in Italy, reflecting the scale of the campaign.

Italy fell in 1943, when **Mussolini** was overthrown in July and the new Italian government signed an armistice with the Allies in September. Although German forces continued fighting in Italy, the Italian state itself had collapsed and switched sides.

Churchill: Churchill: World War II

World War II: Wartime Relations – Key Information

Joseph Stalin

Operation Barbarossa was the **German invasion of the Soviet Union** in June 1941, the largest military attack in history at that time.

Churchill's relationship with Stalin during the Second World War was **tense** but ultimately **pragmatic**: both leaders recognised that defeating Hitler required cooperation despite their deep ideological differences.

On April and May 1940, 4,253 Polish officers were killed in the Katyn Massacre, carried out by the Soviet NKVD. Churchill refused to confront Stalin publicly, fearing it would damage the Allied alliance at a crucial stage of the war.

The **Percentages Agreement** was a 1944 understanding between Churchill and Stalin that informally divided Eastern Europe into spheres of influence.

The USSR suffered **8–10 million military casualties** by 1945, reflecting the scale of fighting on the Eastern Front

Franklin D. Roosevelt

The U.S. **Neutrality Acts**, designed to keep the nation out of foreign wars, were dismantled in stages between 1939 and 1941 as the U.S. moved from isolationism to aiding the Allied powers.

In 1940, the USA traded **50 destroyers** to Britain in exchange for access to **8 naval and air bases** in the Atlantic.

The **Lend-Lease Act signed in March 1941**, authorised the U.S. president to transfer arms, food, and strategic materials to any nation deemed "vital to the defence of the United States". By 1945, Britain had received **\$31.6 billion worth of aid** through Lend-Lease.

The **Atlantic Charter** was agreed in August 1941, setting out that there would be **no territorial expansion and no territorial changes** without the consent of the people concerned.

The USA entered the Second World War after Japan attacked **Pearl Harbour** on 7 December 1941.

The USA suffered around **416,000 military casualties** by 1945

The Tehran Conference (1943) was the first meeting of all three leaders—Churchill, Roosevelt, and Stalin.

Churchill: Churchill: World War II

World War II: Relations with Generals – Key Information

Churchill not only became Prime Minister in 1940, but also **Minister of Defence**. His writings had led him to a study of military history and he had great confidence in himself as a **strategist**. However, he was an amateur working alongside highly trained professional soldiers. The results were **not always harmonious**. Churchill believed in **direct supervision** and detailed questioning of his military leaders

Sir Archibald Wavell

Churchill personally **disliked** Wavell, which strained their working relationship.

Wavell failed in the Balkans because he was not given enough time to prepare and had troops diverted to a deeply flawed campaign.

As a result, Wavell was demoted.



Sir Claude Auchinleck

Wavell's successor was General Auchinleck.

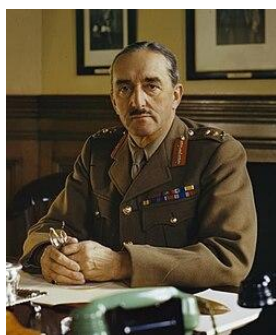
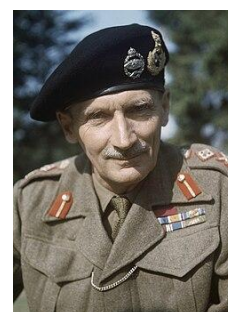
Auchinleck was sacked for delays and for not being bold or aggressive enough in Churchill's view.

Bernard Montgomery

Auchinleck was replaced by General Bernard Montgomery.

Churchill's relationship with Montgomery was warm—Montgomery was considered Churchill's favourite.

Montgomery took credit for victory at the Battle of El Alamein.



Sir Alan Brooke

Sir Alan Brooke was the Chief of the Imperial General Staff (Head of the Army).

Churchill and Brooke worked well together, though Brooke was often frustrated by Churchill's political interference in military planning.

Churchill: Churchill: World War II

World War II: Bombing of Germany – Key Information

The bombing of Germany was **controversial** because many of the raids—especially on cities like Hamburg and Dresden—caused **huge civilian casualties** and widespread destruction, raising moral questions about whether such attacks were justified.

Hamburg

Hamburg was the main target of Operation Gomorrah.

The bombing of Hamburg began on 24 July 1943.

Around 42,600 people were killed in the Hamburg raids.

Around 1 million civilians fled Hamburg during Operation Gomorrah.



Dresden

The bombing of Dresden took place on 13 February 1945.

- During the Dresden attack, 3,300 tons of bombs were dropped.

Approximately 40,000 people were killed in the bombing of Dresden.

Temperatures during the Dresden firestorm peaked at around 1,800°C, creating a devastating firestorm.

Total German civilian casualties from Allied bombing are estimated at **400,000–600,000**. The Blitz caused 60,595 British civilian deaths.

1945 Election

1945 Election – Key Information

Britain's experience of total war exposed deep **social inequalities**, making reform feel not just desirable but essential. The belief that a fairer, more secure post-war society had to be built once the fighting ended.

The **Beveridge Report** was released in 1942, outlining plans for major post-war welfare reform.

The report was written by **William Beveridge**, a **Liberal economist** and civil servant.

Beveridge identified **Five Giants of Poverty**:

Want – a lack of sufficient income or resources, leaving people unable to afford basic necessities.

- **Disease** – poor health and limited access to medical care, trapping people in illness and hardship.
- **Ignorance** – inadequate education that restricts opportunities and keeps people in poverty.
- **Squalor** – unhealthy, overcrowded, or unsafe living conditions caused by poor housing.
- **Idleness** – unemployment or lack of available work, preventing people from supporting themselves.

During the war, these issues were addressed through measures such as **rationing** and **price controls** (tackling Want), the **Emergency Medical Service** (tackling Disease), **expanded schooling** and evacuation (tackling Ignorance), improved **housing controls** (tackling Squalor), and **full employment** in wartime industry (tackling Idleness).

Clement Attlee defeated **Churchill** in the **1945 election** largely because the British public **wanted major social reform** after the hardships of war, and Labour's programme—built around the Beveridge Report and promises of welfare, housing, and full employment—matched that mood far better than Churchill's focus on wartime leadership.

Churchill also damaged his own campaign with **misjudged attacks** on Labour, comparing them to the **Gestapo**, while Attlee appeared calm, competent, and in tune with voters' hopes for a fairer post-war Britain.

Attlee's Government 1945-1951

Attlee's Government 1945-1951 – Key Information

Society

Labour was associated with building a **Welfare State**.

The **NHS** was introduced in 1948 (Act in 1946).

Only 10,000 dentists served 47 million people in 1948.

The first **local health centre** opened in 1952.

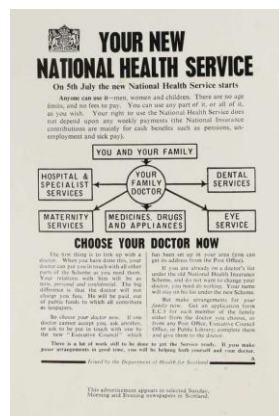
187,000 prescriptions were issued in the NHS's first year.

95% of the population **enrolled** with the NHS.

The **National Assistance Act** (1948) supported the destitute.

The **New Towns Act** (1946) created 14 new towns.

The National Insurance Act was introduced in 1946.



Austerity

meant
deliberately
holding down
living
standards to
limit
spending.

Economy

NHS spending doubled between 1948 and 1951.

Britain's involvement in the **Korean War** in 1950 led to a policy of **austerity** with rationing and high taxation.

The Conservatives promised more red meat to address rationing frustrations.

Politics, the 1950 and 1951 Election

Labour won the 1950 election but was left with a **majority of only 5 seats**.

The Conservative leader in the 1951 election was **Winston Churchill**, who since the war had become **internationally renowned**.

The **debate** over **prescription charges** involving Aneurin **Bevan** and Hugh **Gaitskell** split the party (Bevanites and Gaitskellites).

In the 1951 election campaign, Labour promised to build **200,000** homes per year; but the Conservatives promised **300,000**.

Lord Woolton reformed Conservative Party's finances, making it a far more effective, modern, and well-funded election machine.



Conservative Dominance: 1951-1964

Conservative Dominance: 1951-1964 – Key Information

Conservative Leadership

R. A. Butler served as **Chancellor** under **Churchill**.

Churchill suffered a **stroke** in 1953.

Eden became Prime Minister in 1955.

Macmillan became Prime Minister in 1957.

Macmillan increased the Conservative **majority to 100** in 1959.

Macmillan became known as “**Super Mac**”.

Macmillan delivered the “**winds of change**” speech in 1960, suggesting Britain had to accept the end of empire.

**Society**

Commercial **television** introduced in 1954.

Massive housing expansion: **354,000** homes were built in 1954, exceeding the target.

Homes built for **private sale rose from 30% (1954) to 50% (1964)**.

Growth of private home ownership (30% → 50%).

Clause IV was the section of the Labour Party constitution that committed the party to common ownership of the means of production, distribution and exchange.

Economy

The **Industrial Charter** (1947) accepted a mixed economy, reflecting post-war consensus.

Balance of payments deficit of £700 million in 1951.

By 1952, this became a **£259 million surplus**.

Weekly male **wages rose** from **£8 (1951) to £18 (1964)**.

Car ownership increased by 500%.

Labour Weaknesses

Bevan published **In Place of Fear** in 1952, highlighting internal ideological tensions.

Clause IV caused major division within the party.

Labour's left supported **unilateral nuclear disarmament**.

Labour's right supported maintaining a **nuclear deterrent**.



Conservative Decline: 1960-1964

Conservative Decline: 1960-1964 – Key Information

Conservative Weaknesses

Suez Crisis (1956) damaged Britain's international reputation and Eden's credibility.

Macmillan applied to join the **EEC**, but the application was rejected by Charles de Gaulle.

Macmillan's 1962 cabinet reshuffle, the "**Night of the Long Knives**," replaced one-third of the cabinet. **Selwyn Lloyd** was removed as Chancellor in the reshuffle.

Conservatives lost the **Orpington by-election** (1962) by 7,000 votes to the Liberals.

Concerns over Macmillan's successor **Alec Douglas-Home**, seen as out of touch and an Old Etonian.

The **Liberal revival** hurt the Conservatives by winning by-elections in previously safe Tory seats.

The **1964 election** was close because Conservative support had eroded but Labour had not fully united.

Economy

800,000 unemployed by 1963.

Strike action increased by 1961.

Government attempted economic management through **NEDDY, NICKY**, and the **Pay Pause**.

Scandals

Vassall Affair – spy scandal involving civil servant John Vassall.

Philby Case – exposure of Kim Philby as a Soviet double agent.

Argyll Divorce Case – sensationalised court case involving allegations of infidelity.

Profumo Affair – John Profumo's relationship with Christine Keeler and subsequent cover-up, severely damaging government credibility.



Society

Race riots broke out in 1958 in London, Bristol, and Nottingham.

The **Salmon Inquiry** was set up to investigate the causes of the riots, blaming increased immigration, ignoring discrimination and racism.

Government responded with the **Commonwealth Immigration Act** (1962), limiting immigration.

Youth subcultures such as **Mods** and **Rockers** emerged, causing moral concern.



Wilson's Government: 1964-1970

Wilson's Government: 1964-1970 – Key Information

**Economy**

Proposed solutions to the **balance of payments** deficit were **deflation** and **devaluation**.

The **National Plan** was introduced in 1965. It aimed to boost long-term growth by improving planning between government, industry, and trade unions, and by setting clear national targets for productivity and exports.

Aims of the National Plan: **3.8% annual growth over six years and 5.25% annual export growth**. It was **limited** because the **Treasury** refused to work with the **Department of Economic Affairs**, leaving unions unwilling to cooperate.

Unemployment rose from **1.7% (1964) to 2.5% (1967)**.

Jim **Callaghan** negotiated **foreign loans** to prevent a run on the pound. Britain secured foreign **loans from the USA** in 1964.

Roy Jenkins pursued **deflation** by cutting **military commitments**, reintroducing **prescription charges**, **delaying the rise in the school-leaving age**, and **raising taxation by £923 million**.

Deflationary measures in 1964 included higher taxes on alcohol and tobacco and a temporary import surcharge.

Society

The **death penalty** was abolished in 1969.

The **Sexual Offences** Bill was passed in 1967. This partially decriminalised homosexual acts between consenting adults over 21 in private.

The **Family Planning Act** was introduced in 1967. This allowed local authorities to provide contraception and family-planning advice to all women.

Mary Whitehouse launched a moral crusade against Labour's social reforms.

The **voting age** was lowered to 18 in 1969.

The **Equal Pay Act** was introduced in 1970. This required employers to pay men and women equally for the same work or work of equal value, aiming to reduce gender-based wage discrimination.

Industrial Relations

The **seamen's strike** occurred in 1966.

In Place of Strife (1969) was a UK government White Paper proposed by Labour's Barbara Castle to curb trade union power, following the 1968 Donovan Report. It aimed to reduce strikes through legally binding requirements, such as a 28-day "conciliation pause," strike ballots, and penalties for unofficial strikes.

Heath's Government: 1970-1974

Heath's Government: 1970-1974 – Key Information

Economy

Heath's 1971 budget aimed to stimulate growth through tax cuts.

The 1973 **Arab-Israeli War** caused the price of oil to rise fivefold, triggering an energy crisis. Rising oil prices made coal essential, worsening the impact of strikes.

The government introduced the **three-day week** (Dec 1973) to conserve energy.

Additional emergency measures included: a state of emergency, a 50mph speed limit, and a 10:30pm television curfew

Society

Margaret Thatcher **ending free school milk** in 1971 caused public backlash.

Enoch Powell's rhetoric shaped public attitudes to immigration and voting behaviour.



Industrial Relations

The Industrial Relations Act (1971) introduced providing a legal right to join or not join a union, powers for pre-strike ballots and cooling-off periods.

Escalating inflation triggered a **major NUM strike** in 1972.

The 1972 miners' strike resulted in: a **pay rise** of more than double inflation, other workers demanding similar increases, fuelling **further inflation**

In 1973, the **NUM launched another strike** as energy pressures intensified following the Arab-Israeli War.

Political

Heath and Wilson had similar backgrounds: both attended grammar schools and won scholarships to Oxford.

Labour was hit by a £31 million balance of payments deficit announcement just three days before the 1970 election.

Low Labour turnout in 1970 due to left-wing disillusionment (Vietnam, In Place of Strife) and a 150,000 drop in party membership.

Britain joined the EEC in 1973.

Heath's 1971 budget had mixed political impact: tax cuts popular, ending free school milk unpopular ("Thatcher – Milk Snatcher").

Heath's February 1974 election centred on the question: "**Who governs Britain?**"

Wilson' and Callaghan's Government: 1974-1979

Wilson and Callaghan's Government: 1974-1979 – Key Information

**Political**

Labour won the **February 1974 election**, but only had a 4-seat lead, forcing a **minority government** and a second election in **October 1974**, where they won a very **small overall majority**.

Labour's **drift to the left** shown by appointing **Michael Foot** and **Tony Benn**.

Wilson managed Labour's **Europe divisions** by holding a 1975 referendum and allowing Cabinet members to campaign freely. Parliament elected to remain in the EEC.

Wilson resigned in 1976 due to concerns about his declining memory.

Callaghan became Prime Minister in 1976.

The **Lib-Lab Pact** (1977–78) was formed after by-election losses left Labour without a majority; Liberals agreed to support Labour with 13 MPs.

Callaghan promised **devolution referendums** for **Scotland and Wales**; both failed.

An election was called in 1979 after the **government lost a vote of no confidence**.

Economy

Stagflation hit mid-1970s Britain: low growth with inflation reaching 25% in 1975.

Denis Healey served as **Chancellor** from 1974–79.

Anti-inflation measures included: 1975 budget: higher taxes and spending cuts; £6 per week wage ceiling (1975); £4 per week wage ceiling (1976).

Wage increases fell to 10% by 1977.

Britain requested a **\$3,900 million IMF loan** in 1976 due to a collapsing pound and risk of bankruptcy. The **IMF loan** caused a major **party split** because it required **£2 billion in spending cuts**.

Industrial Relations

Labour had agreed the **Social Contract** with the **TUC** while in opposition (1973). It promised union cooperation on wage restraint. The government committed to keeping prices down and maintaining welfare. The Social Contract **collapsed** in 1978 as **unions rejected** Healey's pay restraint policies.

The **1974 miners' strike** was settled with a **29% pay rise**, encouraging other unions to push for more.

The **breakdown** of the Social Contract in 1978 led to widespread strikes.

The **Winter of Discontent** began when Ford workers secured a 15% pay rise after a long strike, encouraging industrial action across multiple sectors.

During the **Winter of Discontent**, other groups striking included: Lorry drivers demanding a 30% pay rise, and NUPE workers (dustmen, gravediggers) demanding 40%.

Thatcher's Government: 1979-1987

Thatcher's Government: 1979-1987 – Key Information

Leadership

The Financial Times described Britain as “**a very divided country**” after the 1979 election because **Thatcher won** mainly in the **South and Midlands**, while **Labour** dominated the **North, Scotland, and Wales**.

Thatcher managed her first Cabinet by appointing “**wets**” to reduce division and placing key “**dries**” (Howe, Joseph) in major economic posts.

Victory in the **Falklands War** boosted Thatcher's reputation by portraying her as a **strong, decisive leader** after Britain's swift victory.

Thatcher remained close to US President **Ronald Reagan** throughout the 1980s as they had a similar political and economic outlook.

The **IRA bombed** the Grand Hotel, Brighton in 1984 during the Conservative conference.

Thatcher's defiant political style earned her the nickname “**The Iron Lady**.”

“**Wets**” were uneasy with Thatcher's tough policies.

“**Dries**” were allies and supporters.



Labour Weaknesses

Labour's **internal divisions** and the creation of the **SDP-Liberal Alliance** (1981) weakened the party.

Labour suffered a crushing defeat in the 1983 election after **Michael Foot's** 1983 Left-Wing manifesto (“*the longest suicide note in history*”).

Labour's 1983 defeat left the party needing major rebuilding under moderate **Neil Kinnock** who failed to appeal to the electorate.

In 1987, the anti-Conservative vote was split because the **SDP-Liberal Alliance** stood in every seat.

Thatcher's Government: 1979-1987

Thatcher's Government: 1979-1987 – Key Information

Industrial Relations

The Employment Act 1980 banned secondary picketing; strengthened rights of non-union workers.

The Employment Act 1982 restricted sympathy strikes; closed shops required 85% support.

The Trade Union Act 1984 required secret ballots before strikes.

The Miners' Strike (1984–85) began after plans to close 20 uneconomic pits.

Government preparation included **stockpiling coal and building up coal/oil reserves** in power stations.

The **strike collapsed** because the NUM was divided, the timing was poor, Labour refused to back Scargill, violence at picket lines damaged support, and Scargill refused to hold a national ballot.

Aftermath: **NUM membership** fell from 250,000 (1979) to under 100,000 (1987); the strike polarised opinion on Thatcher.

Economy

Monetarism: prioritising reducing inflation even at the cost of high unemployment.

Privatisation of BP (1979); BT (1984)

1980 and 1981 budgets cut government spending and raised VAT.

Recession (1980–82).

Inflation peaked at 22% in 1980 but fell to 4.9% by 1983.

“Big Bang” **deregulation** of the City's financial services (1986).

Continued **cuts to income and corporation tax.**

**Society**

Riots in areas hit by **unemployment** and **racial tension** (Brixton, Toxteth).

Housing Act 1980 introduced **Right to Buy**, expanding home ownership.

Home ownership increased from 55% (1980) to 64% (1987).

1981: **Cuts to university budgets.**

GCSEs introduced in 1986, replacing O-levels and CSEs.

Hospitals allowed to become **self-governing NHS trusts.**

Unemployment remained high, around *3 million* until 1987.

Thatcher's Decline: 1987-1990

Thatcher's Decline: 1987-1990 – Key Information

Leadership

High interest rates (15% by Oct 1989) angered Conservative-leaning homeowners.

Rising inflation undermined Thatcher's claim to have solved Britain's inflation problem.

Cabinet divisions deepened: Howe demoted; Lawson resigned.

By 1990, Thatcher's **unpopularity** was clear from European election results, the Mid-Staffordshire by-election, and polling.

Chancellor **Geoffrey Howe's** resignation and televised speech in Nov 1990 exposed deep Cabinet divisions over Europe and directly undermined Thatcher's authority

Michael Heseltine challenged Thatcher for the leadership.

Thatcher **won the first round** but not by enough to avoid a second.

Senior colleagues persuaded her to step down.

**Economy**

Black Monday, a global stock market crash, struck on 19 October 1987, with share prices collapsing dramatically in a single day, wiping billions off markets and triggering fears of a major recession.

Lawson's 1988 **tax cuts** to avoid a recession fuelled consumer spending and increased inflation.

Lawson attempted to **control inflation** by raising interest rates but failed.

Inflation reached 8.3% in June 1989.

Society

Poll Tax (Community Charge): flat-rate tax on every adult.

Strong public opposition, especially after early introduction in Scotland (1989).

Poll Tax riots on 31 March 1990, including major unrest in Trafalgar Square.

Europe

Conservatives were **deeply divided** over Europe.

Thatcher became increasingly **Eurosceptic**, opposing closer political integration.

She opposed joining the **ERM** in 1989.

Howe and Lawson, both pro-ERM, clashed with her.

Britain joined the ERM in October 1990, but Thatcher continued to **resist further integration** ("No, no, no").

Major's Government: 1990-1997

Major's Government: 1990-1997 – Key Information

Leadership

John Major became PM in 1990 with no strong support base and a party still divided.

Divisions over Europe damaged his authority, especially after he was overheard calling Eurosceptics “bastards.”

He tried to **end party infighting** by calling a 1995 leadership contest, defeating John Redwood but still appearing divided.

**Economy**

By September 1992, **anti-inflation** measures had pushed Britain into **recession**.

Britain was forced to withdraw from the ERM, an event known as **Black Wednesday**.

Black Wednesday emboldened **Eurosceptics** and severely damaged the Conservatives' economic credibility.

New Labour

John Smith became Labour leader in 1992; after his death in 1994, **Tony Blair** took over.

Blair rebranded the party as **New Labour** in 1994 to modernise its appeal.

New Labour's policies included accepting popular **Thatcherite** measures to appeal to the middle-classes, such as privatisation and Right to Buy, while also repealing Clause IV.

Memorable messages like “education, education, education” and “tough on crime, tough on the causes of crime.”

Labour's **popularity** grew steadily through the 1990s, culminating in a landslide victory in 1997 with 418 seats (Conservatives won 165).

Scandals

Major launched the “**Back to Basics**” campaign in 1993 to promote traditional values but was plagued by scandals

Cash-for-Questions (1994): Several Conservative MPs were accused of accepting money from businessman Mohamed Al-Fayed to ask questions in the House of Commons.

The **Tim Yeo** scandal involved the Conservative MP Tim Yeo admitting to an extramarital affair that resulted in a child, despite publicly criticising single mothers, which made him appear hypocritical and damaged the government's moral credibility during the “Back to Basics” era.

Jonathan Aitken, a former UK Conservative Cabinet minister, was jailed for 18 months in 1999 for perjury and perverting the course of justice. The scandal arose after he lied about a 1993 stay at the Paris Ritz, which was paid for by Saudi contacts, breaking ministerial rules.

Russia and its Rulers 1855-1964



Thematic

Depth

Theme - Nature of Government

Autocracy, dictatorship and totalitarianism

Alexander II

Russia in the 1850s was an **autocracy**:

“All Romanovs were raised to believe that their authority was ordained by God and that they were answerable only to God.”

Ministers were appointed and dismissed at will:

“All ministers were appointed directly by the Tsar and could be sacked at any time.”

Alexander II remained committed to autocracy despite reforms:

“He was fully committed to maintaining the tsarist autocracy... granting limited freedoms without altering the basic political framework.”

Alexander III

Reasserted autocracy: His 1881 Manifesto “declared that absolute political power resided in the Tsar”, crafted by Pobedonostsev, who believed stability rested on “autocracy, the Russian Orthodox Church and Russian nationalism”.

Ideological line: Unbending conservative; reversed his father’s limited liberalism and treated all opposition as illegitimate.

Nicholas II

Autocratic mindset: In 1895 he told zemstvo representatives their hopes for a national body were “senseless dreams. Russia was to remain an autocracy.”

Reluctant constitutionalism: Only conceded the October Manifesto and Duma under revolutionary pressure in 1905, then steadily hollowed out their power (use of Article 87, rigged franchise, docile Third and Fourth Dumas).

Provisional Government

The PG introduced freedom of speech, press, assembly, the right to strike, and ended the death penalty.

Document line: “the government announced that there would be freedom of the press, freedom of speech, the right to strike and an end to... the death penalty.”

It lacked the coercive authority of the Tsarist state because it abolished governors, police forces and the State Council, creating a power vacuum.

Document line: “One of its first acts was to abolish the governors... the loss of a functioning police force... the cessation of the State Council.”

Real power shifted to the Petrograd Soviet, creating “dual authority”.

Theme - Nature of Government

Autocracy, dictatorship and totalitarianism

Lenin

Lenin rapidly constructed a one-party dictatorship:

Closure of opposition press: “One of his first measures was to close down the opposition press.”

Banning of political parties: Kadets banned (Dec 1917); Mensheviks and SRs arrested.

Cheka established (Dec 1917) — secret police with power to arrest, torture and execute without trial.

Constituent Assembly dissolved after one day: “The doors were closed and the deputies were told to go home.”

Stalin

Stalin built a highly **centralised, personal dictatorship**:

Stalin accumulated enormous power through his bureaucratic roles: “He had the power to advance the careers of those within the Communist Party machine.”

He **removed rivals** through political manoeuvring (Trotsky, Kamenev, Zinoviev, Bukharin).

By 1929 he was “the undisputed leader of the USSR.”

Collectivisation and the **Five-Year Plans** were enforced through coercion, not consent.

The regime used **terror, propaganda, and control of information** to maintain power.

Khrushchev

Continuity of one-party rule: Power still concentrated in the Communist Party; Khrushchev ultimately combined roles as First Secretary and Head of Government in 1958.

Personal leadership but less terror-based than Stalin: He removed rivals (Beria, Malenkov, Zhukov, Bulganin) through party manoeuvres, accusations of “factionalism” and “cult of personality”, not mass purges.



Theme - Nature of Government

Developments in central administration and changes in local government

Alexander II**Local Government (Zemstva), 1864–70**

Elected district and provincial councils were created, but nobles dominated through weighted voting. By 1914, 43 of 70 provinces had zemstva. They managed roads, schools, public health, prisons, and poor relief, and became centres for liberal debate. They were especially effective in education and welfare.

Judicial Reforms, 1864

Juries were introduced, judges were better trained and paid, and open courts allowed legal reporting. Volost courts dealt with peasants. After the acquittal of Vera Zasulich, political cases were moved to special courts under the Ministry of Internal Affairs.

Alexander III

Centralisation: “No aspect of Russian society seemed untouched by central government control.”

Land Captains (1889–1890): Replaced elected justices of the peace; appointed by the Minister of the Interior; could “over-ride zemstva elections and disregard zemstva decisions... overturn the judgements of local courts and impose punishments.”

Zemstva restricted: 1890–92 franchise changes ensured landed dominance; doctors and teachers barred from election.

Nicholas II –**Central government vs Duma**

First Duma (1906) – “Duma of National Hopes”, strongly liberal; dissolved after 10 weeks when its “Address to the throne” demanded universal male suffrage, abolition of death penalty, civil service reform.

Second Duma (1907) – “Duma of National Anger”; dissolved after alleged SD plot; emergency law drastically reduced peasant, worker and minority representation.

Third Duma (1907–12) – “Duma of Lords and Lackeys”; approved 2,200 of 2,500 government bills.

Fourth Duma (1912–17) – largely ignored; PM Kokovtsov boasted, “Thank God we still have no parliament.”

Theme - Nature of Government

Developments in central administration and changes in local government

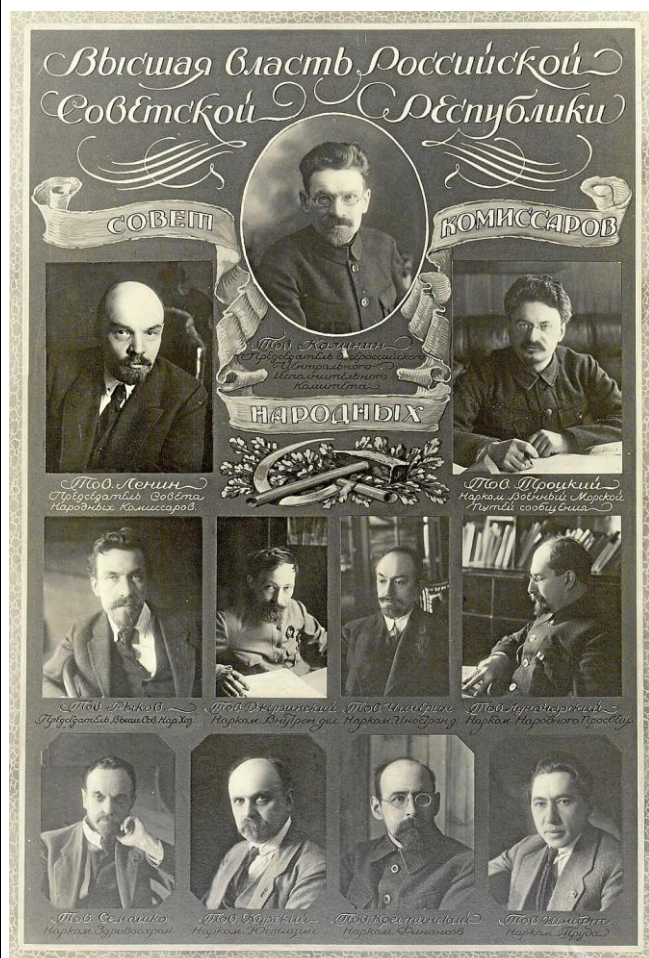
Provisional Government

The PG was not elected, but formed by Duma leaders.

It dismantled Tsarist administrative structures (governors, police, State Council).

Local power increasingly shifted to soviets, especially in Petrograd.

Soldiers' committees and workers' committees gained authority through Order No. 1, which stated soldiers would obey the PG only if the Soviet agreed.



Lenin

Centralisation under Sovnarkom

Sovnarkom, Lenin's executive government, used decrees to reshape land, labour, press, church, banks, and industry.

Party Dominance

In 1921, factions were banned at the Tenth Party Congress, with expulsion as the penalty. The Politburo became the real centre of power.

Republics and the USSR

The RSFSR was created in 1918; the USSR in 1922. Lenin preferred a federation, but Stalin sought tighter control. In practice, republics had no real autonomy, as party organisations acted as branches of Sovnarkom.

Theme - Nature of Government

Developments in central administration and changes in local government

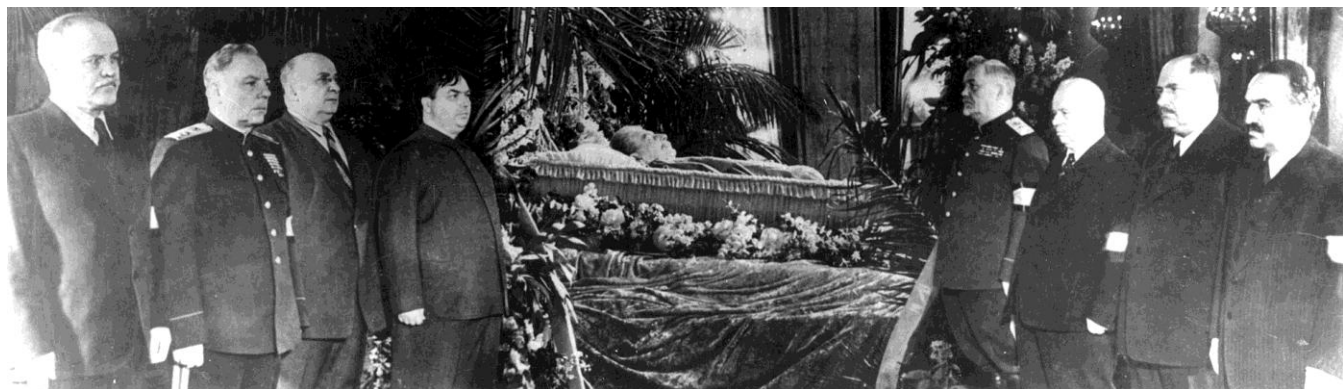
Stalin

Stalin used his position as **General Secretary** to appoint loyal supporters throughout the Party.

The **Party Congresses** were **increasingly stage-managed**: "Stalin packed the Congress with his own supporters."

Local government in the countryside was replaced by:

- Collective farm committees
- Machine Tractor Stations (MTS)
- NKVD oversight during collectivisation and famine



Khrushchev

Post-Stalin collective leadership initially: Malenkov (Head of Government), Molotov (Foreign Secretary), Khrushchev (Party Secretary), Bulganin (Deputy Head), Beria (MVD).

Khrushchev's steps to power:

- 1953: Beria arrested and shot with Red Army support (Zhukov).
- 1955: Malenkov forced to resign after poor harvests.
- 1957: Anti-Party Group (Molotov, Kaganovich, Malenkov) defeated.
- 1958: Bulganin removed; Khrushchev becomes Premier.

Theme - Nature of Government

The extent and impact of reform

Alexander II

Reforms modernised Russia but preserved autocracy.

Education expanded dramatically: primary schools rose from 8,000 (1856) to 23,000 (1880).

Censorship relaxed, then tightened again after 1866.

Military reforms reduced service from 25 to 15 years and introduced universal conscription.

Emancipation freed 22.5 million private serfs and 20 million state serfs (by 1866).

Economic reforms created state, municipal and savings banks.

Alexander III

Administrative 'reform' as rollback: Undid Alexander II's liberal measures—reduced university autonomy (1884), raised fees to exclude all but the wealthy, tightened censorship and judicial independence.

Economic modernisation: Backed Vyshnegradsky and Witte's industrial drive (see section 2), but without political liberalisation.

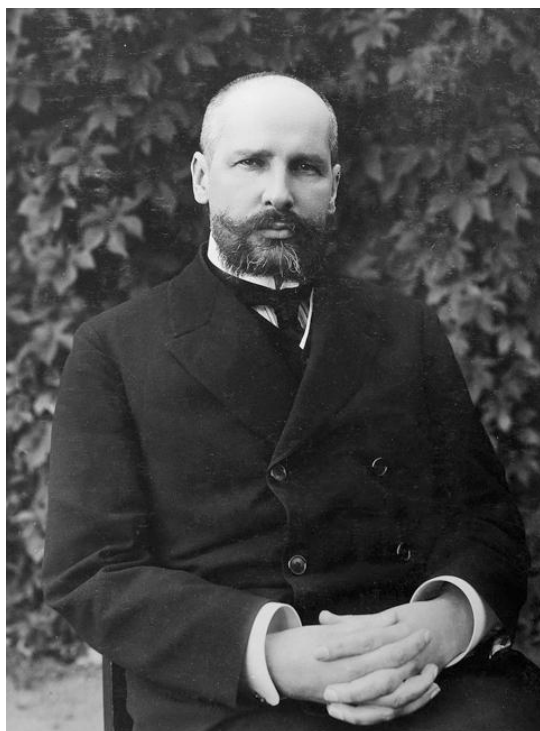
Nicholas II**Stolypin's agrarian reforms (from 1906):**

Peasants allowed to leave the commune; family collective ownership abolished; land could be consolidated into single farms.

New Peasant Land Bank and land organisation commissions created; redemption payments officially abolished from 1 January 1907.

Agricultural output rose from 45.9 million tonnes (1906) to 61.7 million tonnes (1913).

Education: Spending on elementary schools rose from 1.8% to 4.2% of the budget (1907–12); pupil numbers up 77%, schools up 85%; literacy from under 30% (1900) to over 40% (1914).



Theme - Nature of Government

The extent and impact of reform

Provisional Government

Amnesty for political, religious, terrorist and military crimes.

Civil liberties: freedom of speech, press, assembly, unions, strikes.

Judicial reforms: independent judges, trial by jury, abolition of exile and capital punishment.

Military reforms: self-government for the army; Petrograd garrison allowed to keep weapons.

Created early optimism: "It looked as though stability had been restored."

But reforms weakened state authority and empowered opposition groups.

**Lenin****Early Bolshevik reforms (1917-18)**

8-hour day; employment insurance; abolition of titles; equality for women; divorce reform; church land confiscation.

"Max. 8 hr working day... Women declared equal... Church land confiscated"

Nationalisation of Heavy Industry.

Nationalisation of banks; workers' control of factories; church land confiscated.

Decree on Land legalised peasant seizures.

NEP as a major reform

Grain requisitioning abolished; private trade restored; small businesses reopened.

"Grain requisitioning was replaced by a tax in kind... ban on private trade removed... small-scale businesses... allowed to reopen"

Heavy industry, banking, transport remained state-controlled.

Theme - Nature of Government

The extent and impact of reform



Stalin

Reforms under Stalin were transformative but coercive.

Economic

Collectivisation (1929–39), Five Year Plans (from 1928), and rapid industrialisation.

Political

Elimination of rivals, centralised Party authority, and shift to “Socialism in One Country.”

Impact

Industrial growth and a command economy achieved, but peasant autonomy destroyed and millions suffered from famine, executions, and Gulag labour.

Khrushchev

De-Stalinisation: 1956 “Secret Speech” attacking Stalin’s cult of personality, crimes, and failures in 1941.

Key measures:

- Release of political prisoners from labour camps.
- Relaxation of censorship; more critical works published.
- End of Stalin cult: Stalingrad renamed Volgograd, Stalin’s body removed from Lenin’s mausoleum and buried in a concrete-filled hole near the Kremlin.



Theme - Nature of Government

Methods of repression and enforcement

Alexander II

Third Section (secret police) strengthened under Shuvalov.

Show trials (Trial of 50, Trial of 193) intended to deter opposition but backfired.
“153 of the 193 defendants were acquitted.”

After 1878, **political crimes** moved to military courts.

Emergency powers granted to **governors-general** (1879).

Okhrana was created after the abolition of the Third Section (1880).

Alexander III

Statute of State Security (1881): Government-controlled courts for political cases; trials without jury; thousands exiled to Siberia; courts remained until 1917.

Censorship: 14 major newspapers banned 1882–89; foreign books and papers rigorously censored by the Okhrana.

Universities: Self-government abolished (1884); fees raised; universities closed in 1889 after protests.

Secret police and executions: Okhrana targeted People’s Will; Alexander Ulyanov (Lenin’s brother) executed after 1887 assassination attempt.

Nicholas II**1905–07 repression (Stolypin):**

- Field court martials: 1,144 death sentences Oct 1906–May 1907; hangings dubbed “Stolypin’s neckties”.
- 1908–09: 16,500 convicted of political crimes; 3,600 executed; 4,500 sent to hard labour. Political assassinations fell to 365 in 1908.
- Around 1,200 officials murdered by revolutionaries in 1907, prompting further crackdowns.

Press and unions: Between 1906 and 1912 “a thousand newspapers ceased publication and six hundred trade unions were forced to close.”

Black Hundreds: Pro-Tsarist gangs used in 1905 to hunt radicals and intimidate minorities.

Theme - Nature of Government

Methods of repression and enforcement

Provisional Government

- Used **grain requisitioning** squads in the countryside (Tsarist-style).
- Sent the **army to suppress peasant unrest**.
- Issued **arrest warrants for Bolshevik leaders** after the July Days.
- Closed Bolshevik newspapers in October.

Lenin

- Cheka terror:** "Officials records put the deaths at the hands of the Cheka... at nearly 13,000, but others estimate... closer to 300,000."
- Red Terror** (1918) after assassination attempt on Lenin.
- Grain requisitioning** enforced by Cheka; brutal reprisals against resisting peasants.
- Show trials of SRs** (1922): 34 convicted, 11 executed.
- Execution of the Romanovs** (July 1918).

Stalin

- Stalin's rule relied heavily on coercion:
- Forced collectivisation:** "Peasants would burn crops, farmland and kill livestock... Stalin declared war on the Kulaks."
- Mass deportations and executions:** "Approximately 3 million Kulaks were killed."
- Use of the **NKVD** and local activists to enforce grain seizures.
- Threats and intimidation:** "If anyone spoke out against it, he was threatened with arrest and forced labour."
- Purges** of Party members (Kamenev, Zinoviev, Bukharin).

Khrushchev

- MVD still central to control; order maintained through the security apparatus.
- Khrushchev still used **force when necessary**: Tanks sent into Hungary 1956 to crush the Nagy regime.
- Political opponents** (Zhukov, Bulganin, Anti-Party Group) removed from posts, though not usually executed.

Theme - Nature of Government

The nature, extent and effectiveness of opposition both before and after 1917.

Alexander II

Before 1861 there were over 300 **peasant risings**, caused by land hunger, conscription, and harsh conditions. Alexander II responded with emancipation (1861), but redemption payments and the mir kept control.

Troops suppressed unrest when needed.

Zemstva and professionals called for constitutional reform.

Censorship was relaxed at first, then tightened after 1866.

Alexander II expanded secret police powers, used military courts, and

increased repression to deal with radical opposition. Populists and nihilists rejected autocracy; many were arrested in 1874. **The People's**

Will assassinated Alexander II (1881).

Alexander III

Revolutionary underground: People's Will survived; attempted assassination in 1887; radical groups forced underground but not eliminated.

National minorities and Jews: Russification and pogroms (see section 4) created deep, long-term hostility.

Nicholas II

Marxist opposition:

- Social Democrats split into Bolsheviks and Mensheviks; disagreements over timing of revolution, party role, membership and internal democracy.
- By 1905, both wings encouraged strikes and soviets; Trotsky chaired the St Petersburg Soviet of 400–500 deputies representing ~200,000 workers.

Social Revolutionaries: Peasant-focused; organised “Red Cockerel” arson (1903–4) and assassinations (e.g. Grand Duke Sergei, 4 Feb 1905; Governor Shuvalov, July 1905).

Liberals: Zemstvo liberals and the “Union of Unions” (from May 1905) demanded full civil rights, universal suffrage and a legislative assembly.

Nationalists: 1905 saw mass strikes and protests in Poland, Finland, Baltic states and Caucasus; in Russian Poland over 400,000 workers struck, severely disrupting the economy.

• **Effectiveness:** Nicholas survived 1905 by concessions (October Manifesto) plus force, but opposition remained broad and radicalised, culminating in the February 1917 Revolution when army units defected and the Tsar abdicated.

Theme - Nature of Government

The nature, extent and effectiveness of opposition both before and after 1917.

Provisional Government

Bolsheviks: Initially small (26,000 members) and divided until Lenin's April Theses. They gained support by opposing the war and backing land seizures. After the July Days, leaders were arrested and Lenin fled to Finland.

Petrograd Soviet: Controlled key services (army, factories, railways) and could veto Provisional Government decisions. Order No. 1 weakened government authority.

Peasants and Workers: Peasants carried out 237 land seizures in July and resisted grain requisitioning. Strikes increased, workers' committees took over factories, and 568 factories closed, causing 100,000 unemployed.

Lenin

Opposition Groups

Civil servants, Mensheviks, SRs, railway workers, and peasants resisted Bolshevik rule. Major uprisings included the **Tambov Rising (1920-21)** and **Kronstadt Rising (1921)**.

Effectiveness

Early opposition was fragmented and suppressed, but 1921 uprisings pressured Lenin to end War Communism and introduce the NEP.

Stalin

Peasants resisted collectivisation by burning crops, killing livestock, and staging uprisings (1930, 1932-33).

Party members like Trotsky, Kamenev, Zinoviev, and Bukharin were removed or expelled; the United Opposition (1926-27) was defeated.

Effectiveness

Opposition was crushed due to Stalin's control of Party appointments, the ban on factions, terror, and propaganda branding opponents as "enemies of the people."

Khrushchev

Anti-Party Group (1957): Molotov, Kaganovich, Malenkov tried to abolish the First Secretary post; defeated and removed from the Presidium.

Satellite unrest: Strikes, riots and demands for more freedom in Poland and Hungary after the Secret Speech; Hungary brutally suppressed.

Theme - The impact of dictatorial regimes on the economy and society of the Russian Empire and the USSR

Economy (Agricultural and Industrial)

Alexander II

Agriculture

By 1858, Russia had 74 million people, 85% of whom were peasants. Agriculture dominated the economy.

There were 22.5 million private serfs and 19 million state peasants. Landowners held near-absolute authority over land, labour, taxes, and punishment.

Serfdom limited mobility and innovation, and farming lagged behind Western Europe. Output struggled to meet subsistence needs. By 1860, 60% of private serfs were mortgaged to the state.

There were 712 peasant revolts (1826–54). Emancipation (1861) gave personal freedom but tied peasants to the *mir* with 49-year redemption payments, and land shortages kept many in poverty.

Industry

Russia lagged far behind Western Europe in iron and coal production in 1850, producing only a fraction of Britain's output.

In 1830, just 67,000 worked in textiles and 20,000 in iron and steel. Most towns were administrative or market centres, not industrial hubs.

By 1855, Russia had only 1,049 km of railway (compared to Britain's 11,744 km).

The first major line opened in 1851.

Alexander III

Agriculture

Agriculture, supporting 80–90% of the population, was largely neglected and remained backward under the *mir* system. Vyshnegradsky increased grain exports by 18% (1881–91), contributing to the 1891–92 famine, which hit 17 provinces and caused over 350,000 deaths. Relief was poorly organised.

Inequality grew as kulaks benefited, while poorer peasants turned to seasonal labour.

Industry

Industrialisation was state-led under Vyshnegradsky and Witte. The 1891 Tariff Act protected industry, and railway expansion grew rapidly, including the Trans-Siberian Railway (begun 1891). Heavy industry expanded significantly, supported by foreign loans such as France's 1888 loan.

Theme - The impact of dictatorial regimes on the economy and society of the Russian Empire and the USSR

Economy (Agricultural and Industrial)

Nicholas II

Agriculture

Stolypin's reforms (from 1906) allowed peasants to leave the *mir*, consolidate land, and access the Peasant Land Bank; 3.5 million migrated to Siberia. Grain output rose from 45.9m tonnes (1906) to 61.7m (1913). However, many peasants became landless and rural poverty continued.

Industry

Industrial growth continued from Witte's Great Spurt. Factories increased (30,888 in 1887 to 39,856 in 1908) and workers doubled (1.3m to 2.6m). Heavy industry boomed: coal, oil, and pig-iron production rose sharply. Russia achieved 8% annual growth (1894-1904) and became the world's fourth largest industrial economy.

Provisional Government

Agriculture

Bad harvest in 1917; grain prices doubled (Feb-June). Peasants hoarded grain, forcing the Provisional Government to requisition supplies.

Industry

Fuel and raw material shortages closed 568 factories (Feb-July), leaving 100,000 workers unemployed.

Inflation

Prices soared: bread +300%, cheese +754%, milk +471%.

Lenin

War Communism (1918-21)

37,000 businesses were nationalised, private trade banned, and grain requisitioning enforced. Money collapsed—by 1920 the rouble was worth 1% of its 1917 value.

Economic Collapse

Industrial output fell to 20% of pre-war levels; finished goods to 16%. Key sectors collapsed: mining 29%, oil 36%, metal <10%, cotton 7%, wool 34%, grain harvest 48% of 1913 levels.

NEP (from 1921)

Grain requisitioning ended, replaced by a tax; private trade and small businesses reopened, while heavy industry stayed state-controlled.

Economic Recovery

Cereal production rose 23%, factory output 200%, and Nepmen handled $\frac{3}{4}$ of retail trade by 1923.

Economy (Agricultural and Industrial)

Stalin

Agriculture

Collectivisation: Aimed to modernise agriculture and supply grain for industry.

Farms included **Toz** (shared machinery), **Sovkhoz** (state-run), and **Kolkhoz** (collective). By 1937, 93% of land was collectivised; by 1939, 99%, with 90% of peasants on 250,000 kolkhozes. Grain production reached nearly 100 million tonnes in 1937.

Industrial

The **First Five Year Plan** focused on heavy industry, moving **17 million peasants** to cities. Key projects included **Magnitostroi** (mega steel city), **Dneprostroy** (hydroelectric dam), industrialised **Sovkhoz and Kolkhoz farms**, and **MTS stations** to distribute tractors and enforce state control.

Khrushchev

Agriculture

The Virgin Lands Campaign

Khrushchev aimed to boost grain production, citing low stocks under Stalin.

Policies included decentralising leadership, raising grain prices, reducing farm taxes, selling MTS to farms, expanding corn, and the **Virgin Lands Campaign** (1954) in Kazakhstan and unused territories. Over **250,000 volunteers** worked the land with **120,000 tractors**, ploughing **6 million acres** in year one. Corn acreage rose from **4.3 → 37 million hectares (1954–62)**; wheat land from **96 → 165 million acres (1950–64)**. Farm incomes more than doubled (1952–58).

Problems included poor planning, unsuitable soils, maize replacing reliable crops, labour shortages, low mechanisation (1 tractor/200 ha by 1959), and the **1963 harvest drop** (140 → 107 million tonnes), sparking riots in Novocherkassk.

Industrial

Khrushchev shifted **Five Year Plans** toward **light engineering, chemicals, and consumer goods**, using incentives rather than coercion. Plans saw mixed results: 5th Plan (1951–55) boosted agricultural equipment, 6th Plan (1956–60) focused on modern industries but abandoned targets, 7th Plan (1961–65) raised output but slowed growth.

Theme - The impact of dictatorial regimes on the economy and society of the Russian Empire and the USSR

Living and working conditions (urban and rural)

Alexander II

By 1858, Russia's population was 74 million, with 85% peasants. Around 22.5 million were private serfs and 19 million were state peasants. Landowners had almost absolute authority, including control over taxes and corporal punishment.

Serfs gained legal freedom, including the right to marry, own property, and travel. However, they faced 49 years of redemption payments at 6% interest and remained tied to the *mir* until these were paid. Many received too little land, and by 1881, 15% were still obligated to landlords.

Industrialisation was limited. In 1830 there were only 67,000 textile workers and 20,000 in steel and iron. Railway development was slow, with just 1,049 km of track by 1855.

Alexander III

Farming remained small-scale and tied to the *mir*, with peasants still using wooden ploughs and medieval rotation systems. Vyshnegradsky's **export-first** policy ("We ourselves shall not eat...") increased hardship and helped trigger the 1891–92 **famine**, which hit 17 of 39 provinces and caused over 350,000 deaths. The government failed to organise effective relief, and inequality widened as kulaks benefited from land banks while poorer peasants were pushed into seasonal labour.

Rapid industrialisation caused **huge urban growth**, but living conditions were extremely poor. Workers were crowded into barrack-style housing with no sanitation. In St Petersburg, 40% of homes lacked running water or sewers, contributing to 30,000 cholera deaths in 1908–09. Rents often consumed half a worker's wage, and women earned less than half the pay of men, deepening urban poverty.

Nicholas II

Urban population quadrupled 1867–1917 (7 → 28 million); ~2 million factory workers by 1900, 6 million by 1913.

In St Petersburg c.1900, 40% of houses lacked running water or sewerage; 30,000 died of cholera in 1908–09.

A 1904 survey showed 16 people per apartment on average; rents often took half a worker's wage.

Industrial wage rose only from 245 to 264 roubles per month while prices rose 40%; cost of living up 300% during WWI.

Living and working conditions (urban and rural)

Provisional Government

Urban: Rising prices made wages worthless.

Unemployment soared. Workers expected reform but faced lockouts and worsening conditions.

Rural: Peasants seized land due to hunger and desperation. Violent clashes with requisition squads. Lack of goods in villages discouraged grain sales.

**Lenin****Urban**

Under **War Communism**, rationing limited bread to 200 g/day, workers couldn't leave cities, wages were often in goods, and the black market thrived.

Petrograd's population fell from 2.5 m (1917) to 0.6 m (1920), with death rates of 90-100 per 1,000.

NEP: Markets, shops, and cafés reopened; rationing ended and wages returned. Small private businesses revived, factory output rose **200% (1920-23)**. However, Nepmen grew wealthy, creating inequality and resentment.

Rural

Grain requisitioning caused violent resistance. The 1921 famine killed up to 5 million, with reports of cannibalism, and peasants reduced production to avoid seizures.

Grain requisitioning replaced by a lower tax in kind; peasants could sell surplus. Production rose 23% by 1923. Kulaks benefited most, increasing village inequality. Trade between town and countryside revived.

Scissors Crisis: falling food prices, rising industrial prices hurt peasants. Crime and corruption increased. Political repression continued despite economic recovery.

Theme - The impact of dictatorial regimes on the economy and society of the Russian Empire and the USSR

Living and working conditions (urban and rural)

Stalin

Urban

- Rapid industrialisation created overcrowding and poor living conditions.
- Workers faced strict discipline and long hours.
- Industrial centres expanded massively.

Rural

- 1930 famine
- 1932–33 famine, especially in Ukraine, where 5 million died
- Peasants lost private land, livestock, and autonomy.
- Kulaks were executed or deported.

Khrushchev

Urban

- Average working day **7 hours**; wages by 1954 matched early 1920s levels.
- Housing doubled (1955–64), reducing communal living, though quality was mixed. Consumer goods were more available than under Stalin.

Education and Culture

- Free secondary education, expanded polytechnics and academies. Censorship eased: book publishing doubled since the 1920s; by 1959 there were **135,000 libraries** and a **60 million newspaper readership**.

Rural

- Farm-worker incomes more than **doubled (1952–58)**, with higher grain prices, lower taxes, and decentralised decision-making to boost productivity. The Virgin Lands Campaign provided **120,000 tractors** and drew **250,000 volunteers**, expanding wheat (**96 → 165 million acres**) and corn (**4.3 → 37 million ha**) production.
- Rural life remained difficult: poor housing, low-quality workforce, limited mechanisation (**1 tractor/200 ha by 1959**), and failed crops. The **1963 harvest drop (140 → 107 million tonnes)** triggered the Novocherkassk riots, killing 23.

Limitations on personal, political and religious freedom.

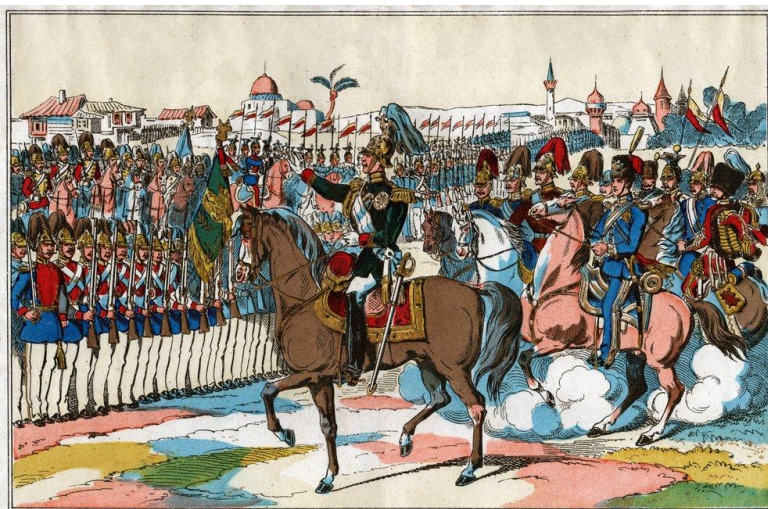
Alexander II

Autocracy restricted political rights.

Censorship relaxed (1865) but re-tightened in 1870s.

Ukrainian publications banned (1863, 1876).

Jews confined to the Pale, though Alexander II allowed some migration

**Alexander III**

Political: Statute of State Security, secret trials, censorship, Okhrana surveillance, university control.

Religious/national: Anti-Jewish May Laws (1882) restricted residence and jobs; pogroms often “organised or approved by the government”; thousands of Jews fled abroad.

Nicholas II

Political: Repression of parties, unions and press; limited, manipulated Duma; Okhrana infiltration of groups (e.g. Gapon initially supported by Okhrana).

Civil rights: October Manifesto promised “civil rights – e.g. freedom of speech and conscience, uncensored newspapers and the right to form political parties”, but many rights were curtailed again after 1905.

Provisional Government

Early freedoms were extensive, but:

Bolshevik newspapers were shut down in October. Arrest warrants issued for Bolshevik leaders. Grain requisitioning and military force used against peasants.

Theme - The impact of dictatorial regimes on the economy and society of the Russian Empire and the USSR

Limitations on personal, political and religious freedom.

Lenin

- Opposition press closed.
- Non-Bolshevik parties banned.
- Church land confiscated.
- Cheka surveillance and executions.
- Ban on factions (1921) ended internal party democracy.



Stalin

- Peasants forced into collective farms.
- Opposition labelled “Kulaks” and eliminated.
- Party members purged for dissent.
- Religious institutions suppressed (church land confiscated earlier under Lenin; repression continued under Stalin).

Khrushchev

- One-party state** and authoritarian rule remained; Khrushchev dismissed opponents at will.
- Satellite states:** when independence movements threatened Soviet control (e.g. Hungary 1956), force was used.



Theme - The impact of dictatorial regimes on the economy and society of the Russian Empire and the USSR

Reasons for and extent of economic and social changes.

Alexander II

- “Backwards”: Need to “catch up with the West” after Crimean War.
- Serfdom seen as brake on industrialisation: “Serfdom was widely seen as the principal handicap to Russia’s industrialisation.”
- Nobles mortgaged 66% of serfs by 1859.
- State debt reached 54 million roubles by 1855.

Alexander III

- Change driven from above to strengthen state power and finances—grain exports, tariffs, railways—at heavy human cost (famines, repression)



Nicholas II

- Continued industrialisation and partial agrarian modernisation, but war, inflation and political crisis meant most workers and peasants saw limited improvement and often worsening conditions, feeding revolutionary sentiment.

Provisional Government

- War drained resources and manpower.
- Collapse of Tsarist structures left no functioning economic management.
- Inflation spiralled due to shortages.
- Peasant land hunger drove rural unrest.
- Industrial breakdown due to fuel shortages and war disruption.

Theme - The impact of dictatorial regimes on the economy and society of the Russian Empire and the USSR

Reasons for and extent of economic and social changes.

Lenin

- Civil War demands.
- Ideological commitment to central planning.
- Collapse of transport and industry.
- Peasant resistance to requisitioning.
- NEP introduced as pragmatic retreat to prevent regime collapse.

Stalin

- Ideological commitment to socialism.
- Need to industrialise rapidly to defend USSR.
- Desire to eliminate private ownership and class enemies.
- Complete transformation of agriculture.
- Massive industrial growth.
- Destruction of traditional rural life.
- Millions killed or displaced.

Khrushchev

- Failure of Stalin's agricultural system
- Desire to modernise agriculture
- Need to improve living standards
- Ideological shift away from Stalinism
- Cold War competition
- Agriculture: Major expansion but uneven results
- Industry: Moderate change, not revolutionary
- Urban living conditions: Significant improvement
- Rural living conditions: Mixed and often poor

Theme - Impact of war and revolution on the development of the Russian Empire and the USSR

The effects of the following wars on government, society, nationalities and the economy.

Alexander II

Crimean War (1853–56) - Russia vs Britain, France, Ottoman Empire, Sardinia.

Exposed military and economic backwardness: “Russian infantry’s small-arms were no match... could open fire at four times the distance.” Over 300,000 soldiers killed. Led directly to reforms (emancipation, military, local government).

Russo-Turkish War (1877–78)

Russia struggled; victory took longer than expected. Contributed to political crisis and increased repression.

Nicholas II

Russo-Japanese War (1904–05) – Nicholas II

Caused by Russian expansion into Manchuria and Port Arthur, and Japan’s fear of encroachment. Port Arthur fell in January 1905 after poor Russian logistics and shortages. The Treaty of Portsmouth gave Japan Port Arthur and the Liaodong Peninsula. Defeat by an Asian power worsened unrest and helped spark the 1905 Revolution.

1905 Revolution – Nicholas II

Triggered by Bloody Sunday (9 January 1905), economic hardship, war defeats, and peasant unrest. Strikes spread rapidly; over 400,000 workers struck in St Petersburg, and there were mutinies and national minority uprisings. The October Manifesto promised a Duma and civil rights, but the regime later crushed opposition.

First World War (1914–17) – Nicholas II

Russia mobilised 15 million men but suffered severe shortages and heavy defeats, including Tannenberg (1914). By late 1916, millions were dead, wounded, or captured, and desertions increased. Nicholas took personal command in 1915, leaving government to Alexandra and Rasputin, weakening authority. War costs soared, trade collapsed, inflation rose 300%, and strikes grew in major cities.

February Revolution (1917) – Nicholas II

Strikes and food protests in Petrograd escalated in early 1917. Troops mutinied, the Duma formed a Provisional Committee, and the Petrograd Soviet emerged. Nicholas abdicated on 2 March; his brother refused the throne, ending the monarchy.

Theme - Impact of war and revolution on the development of the Russian Empire and the USSR

The effects of the following wars on government, society, nationalities and the economy.

Provisional Government

Effects of WWI

Continuing the war hurt the Provisional Government. The June (Kerensky) Offensive failed, causing mass desertions, officer deaths, and the July Days uprising.

Food shortages, inflation, and unemployment grew. Soldiers refused orders, and peasants seized land.

Transport collapsed, factories closed, and grain shortages worsened.



Lenin

Effects of the 1917 Revolutions

Tsarism and the Provisional Government collapsed, leading to a one-party state, land redistribution, and industry nationalisation.

Effects of WWI

The 1918 Brest-Litovsk Treaty cost Russia 1/6 of its population, 1/3 of agricultural land and railways, 2/3 of coal mines, and half of heavy industry, weakening the economy and fueling opposition.

Effects of the Civil War

Society became militarised, power was centralised, the economy was devastated, and Bolshevik control was strengthened.

Theme - Impact of war and revolution on the development of the Russian Empire and the USSR

The effects of the following wars on government, society, nationalities and the economy.

Stalin

Effects of WWII

During WWII, ~1,500 factories were moved east, civilian production stopped, and the USSR produced **100,000+ tanks, 130,000 aircraft, 800,000 artillery**. Labour included millions of women, prisoners, and deported groups. Centralised planning enabled rapid wartime output.

The USSR lost **~27 million people**, devastating families and housing. Losses justified harsh discipline, repression, and a strong centralised state.

War success made Stalin a national hero, sidelined rivals, expanded NKVD power, and strengthened Party control, cementing his domestic and international legitimacy.

The **Fourth Five Year Plan (1946–50)** rebuilt industry and cities; output rose **40% above 1940**, but agriculture lagged. Returning POWs and national minorities faced repression, and Eastern Europe became Soviet-controlled, deepening command economy and militarisation.

Khrushchev

Effects of the Cold War

Peaceful Coexistence: Khrushchev argued war with capitalism was not inevitable; sought détente but within a competitive framework—socialism would “prove superior” economically.

Warsaw Pact (1955): Military alliance of USSR and Eastern European states, including East Germany; designed as a counter to NATO and West German rearmament.

Geneva Summit (1955): First “Big Four” summit since Potsdam; important more for the improved atmosphere than concrete agreements.



Theme - Russia: Empire, nationalities and satellite states

The Polish Revolt 1863; Finland; the Baltic provinces; impact of the First World War and the Treaty of Brest Litovsk; Russo-Polish War.

Alexander II

Polish Revolt (1863–64): Triggered by conscription order. Up to 200 killed in early demonstrations (1861). Milyutin Plan exiled hundreds of nobles to Siberia; estates transferred to Russian officials. Polish peasants emancipated on more favourable terms than Russian peasants.

Finland: Granted Diet (1863) and constitution (1865). Later Russified under Nicholas II (not covered in detail).

Ukraine: Ukrainian publications banned (1863, 1876). Part of Russification policy.

Jewish population: Confined to Pale of Settlement; allowed limited migration.

Alexander III

Russification: From 1885 “Russian was made the official language for the whole of the Russian Empire. All official documents had to be in Russian, and all other languages were forbidden in schools – even where other races were in the majority.”

Regions affected: Poland and Baltic provinces (Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania) particularly hit; Central Asia resented policy strongly due to non-Russian, Muslim populations.

Jews: May Laws (1882) restricted residence and jobs; “organised attacks on Jews... known as pogroms... Under Alexander III, many of these attacks were organised or approved by the government.” Thousands fled to North America and Western Europe in early 1890s

Expansion in Asia

Motives: settlement space for peasants, cotton for Russian textiles, strategic border with Afghanistan, India, China.

Steppe Statute (1891) granted 40 acres to peasant settlers in Kazakh region, making land state property and disadvantaging nomads.

Russification largely avoided there due to complexity and communication difficulties; control relied more on settlement and state ownership.

Theme - Russia: Empire, nationalities and satellite states

The Polish Revolt 1863; Finland; the Baltic provinces; impact of the First World War and the Treaty of Brest Litovsk; Russo-Polish War. Expansion in Asia

Nicholas II**1905 Revolution:**

National groups (Poles, Finns, Latvians, Caucasus peoples) used unrest to press for independence or rights; in Poland over 400,000 workers struck; Armenian-Tatar clashes in the Caucasus disrupted Baku oilfields.

WWI:

Loss of Poland and western territories to Germany reduced imperial reach; war strain deepened national grievances.

Provisional Government

The First World War weakened Russian control over its borderlands. Under the Provisional Government, nationalist movements grew, economies and societies collapsed, autonomous governments emerged, and Poland, the Baltics, and Ukraine gained de facto independence. The government lacked the authority, military power, and unity to stop this.

Lenin**Poland**

Independence recognised at Brest-Litovsk; under German occupation until Nov 1918. Pilsudski introduced reforms (8-hour day, free education, women's suffrage). After the Russo-Polish War, independence was confirmed in 1920.

Ukraine

Became a German puppet state after Brest-Litovsk; schools and Ukrainian language promoted. Political instability followed; USSR annulled the treaty in 1918 and invaded, forming the Ukrainian SSR in 1922.

Creation of the USSR (1922)

A federation of republics controlled by the Politburo. National cultures were superficially encouraged to prevent revolt.

Theme - Russia: Empire, nationalities and satellite states

Communist advance into Eastern and Central Europe after the Second World War.

Stalin**Red Army Occupation**

By 1945, 11 million Soviet troops occupied Eastern Europe, using military presence to shape post-war governments and create a buffer zone against future invasions.

Salami Tactics

Stalin used step-by-step methods: form coalition governments, take key ministries, use secret police to remove opponents, merge or eliminate parties, and establish one-party Communist states.

Country Expansion

Poland: Lublin Committee installed; opposition arrested; 1947 rigged elections gave Communists power.

Romania: King Michael forced to appoint Communist government; monarchy abolished 1947.

Bulgaria: Communist-led Fatherland Front took power; opposition executed.

Hungary: Communists initially weak;

Ideological Control: Education, media, and culture Sovietised; Stalinist constitutions imposed.

secret police eliminated rivals; by 1949, one-party state.

Czechoslovakia: Coup in 1948 forced ministers out; became Communist state.

East Germany: SPD and KPD merged into SED; GDR created in 1949.

Methods of Control

Secret Police: Stasi (East Germany), ÁVH (Hungary), Securitate (Romania) enforced loyalty.

Economic Dependency: \$10 billion in reparations; COMECON tied economies to the USSR.

Political Purges: Non-Communists arrested/executed; suspected "Titoists" purged.



Theme - Russia: Empire, nationalities and satellite states

Communist advance into Eastern and Central Europe after the Second World War.

Khrushchev**Encouraging Unrest**

The **1956 Secret Speech** condemned Stalin, which satellite states saw as a chance for greater independence, sparking movements in **Poland and Hungary**.

Soviet Force to Maintain Control

Despite reform rhetoric, Khrushchev used military power to keep the bloc in line: **tanks suppressed Hungary (1956)**, while unrest in **Poland** led to limited reforms under Soviet oversight.

Yugoslavia's Independence

Yugoslavia resisted Soviet domination; Khrushchev's visits to Tito (1955-56) failed to bring it fully under Moscow's control.

Warsaw Pact (1955)

Formed after West Germany joined NATO, this military alliance formalised Soviet dominance over Eastern Europe, including East Germany.

Determined Control

Khrushchev remained committed to enforcing Soviet authority, showing that **de-Stalinisation strengthened, not weakened, the USSR's hold on its satellites**.



Depth - Alexander II's domestic reforms**The effects of the Crimean War and the aims of Alexander II's domestic policies.**

Revealed military, economic and administrative backwardness.

Motivated Alexander II to modernise:

"The catastrophe of the war underlined the pressing need for fundamental reforms."

The nature of his government and the changes in central administration.

Autocratic but reforming.

Influenced by "enlightened bureaucrats" (e.g., Milyutin brothers).

Sought to strengthen, not weaken, autocracy.

Changes in urban and rural living and working conditions.

Peasants gained legal freedom but faced redemption payments and land shortages.

Education expanded; literacy improved.

Military service reduced; universal conscription introduced.

Limitations on personal, political and religious freedom.

Censorship relaxed then tightened.

Political trials moved to military courts.

Secret police strengthened.

The extent and impact of domestic reform.

Significant modernisation but incomplete.

Created expectations for further reform, fuelling opposition.

Economic reforms improved banking but 66% of revenue still from indirect taxes.

Extent of economic and social change.

Moderate industrial growth.

Agriculture remained backward.

Social tensions increased due to partial reforms.

Depth - The Provisional Government**The nature of the government.**

- Unelected, formed by Duma committee.
- Liberal ministers (Lvov, Milyukov) + socialist Kerensky.
- Dependent on Soviet approval (dual power).

Main domestic policies of the Provisional Government.

- Civil liberties
- Judicial reform.
- Amnesty.
- No land redistribution.
- Continued the war.

The extent and impact of reform.

- Early reforms increased freedom.
- But weakened state authority.
- Failure to address land and food issues undermined support.

Changes in urban and rural living and working conditions.

- Urban:** inflation, unemployment, strikes, factory closures.
- Rural:** land seizures, grain shortages, violence.

Extent of economic and social changes

- Severe economic collapse.
- Radicalisation of workers and soldiers.
- Breakdown of law and order.

Limitations on personal, political and religious freedom.

- Increasing repression after July Days.
- Arrests of Bolsheviks.
- Closure of newspapers.

Depth - The Provisional Government

Methods of repression and enforcement.

- Grain requisitioning.
- Army used against peasants.
- Arrest warrants for Bolsheviks.

The impact of the continuing war.

- June Offensive disaster.
- Desertions.
- Triggered July Days.
- Undermined PG legitimacy.

The extent and effectiveness of opposition.

- Bolsheviks grew rapidly after April Theses.
- Soviet held real power.
- Workers and peasants increasingly hostile.
- Kornilov Affair boosted Bolshevik support

Reasons for the overthrow of the Provisional Government.

- Dual power.
- War continuation.
- Economic collapse.
- Land crisis.
- Loss of authority after Kornilov Affair.
- Bolshevik organisation and propaganda.



Depth - Khrushchev in power 1956-1964

The aims of Khrushchev.

Reform the USSR: Reduce repression and personality cult, improve international image, and introduce progressive economic policies.

Improve Living Standards: More consumer goods, better housing, shorter working hours, and expanded education.

Modernise Agriculture: Fix Stalin's failures, raise food production, and increase rural incomes.

Reduce Cold War Tensions: Promote peaceful coexistence, avoid nuclear war, and compete technologically and economically (e.g., Space Race).

The nature of his government.

Collective Leadership (1953): Malenkov (Gov.), Molotov (Foreign), Bulganin (Deputy), Beria (MVD), Khrushchev (Party Secretary).

Khrushchev Dominates: Beria executed (1953), Malenkov resigns (1955), Anti-Party Group defeated (1957), Bulganin removed (1958); Khrushchev becomes Premier.

Authoritarian Rule: One-party state maintained; MVD enforced order; rivals dismissed at will.

The extent and impact of reform.

De-Stalinisation: 1956 Secret Speech, release of prisoners, relaxed censorship, end of Stalin cult (Stalingrad → Volgograd; body removed).

Impact: Party shocked, unrest in Poland and Hungary, Khrushchev consolidated power.

Changes in urban and rural living and working conditions.**Urban Living & Working Conditions**

Working day **7 hours**, housing doubled (1955-64), communal living declined, consumer goods more available, wages by 1954 matched early 1920s.

Education expanded with free secondary schools, polytechnics, and academies.

Cultural liberalisation: books published doubled, **135,000 libraries**, **60 million newspaper readership**.

Rural Living & Working Conditions

Farm incomes **doubled (1952-58)**; higher grain prices and lower taxes

encouraged production. Wheat rose **96 → 165m acres**, Virgin Lands saw **250,000 volunteers**, **120,000 tractors**, **6m acres ploughed**.

Problems: poor housing, low-quality labour, weak mechanisation (**1 tractor/200 ha, 1959**), poor planning, maize failures. **1963 harvest collapse (140 → 107m tonnes)** sparked Novocherkassk riots; 23 killed.

Depth - Khrushchev in power 1956-1964

Extent of economic and social changes including economic planning and the Virgin Lands Scheme.

Agriculture: Biggest changes—land expansion, machinery, and manpower—but long-term failure from poor planning and environmental issues.

Industry: Five Year Plans continued with focus on light industry, chemicals, and consumer goods. 5th Plan (1951–55) grew rapidly; 6th Plan (1956–60) failed; 7th Plan (1961–65) increased production but growth slowed.

Space Race: Major investment led to **Sputnik (1957)**, **Laika (1957)**, **Gagarin (1961)**, boosting prestige and Cold War competition.

Opposition, methods and enforcement of repression in Russia and its satellites.

Domestic Opposition: Anti-Party Group (1957) defeated; Zhukov removed; Bulganin resigned.

Repression: MVD enforced order; rivals dismissed; force used when needed (Hungary 1956, Novocherkassk 1962, 23 killed).

Satellites: Poland and Hungary challenged control after the Secret Speech; Khrushchev reasserted dominance, strengthening Soviet hold.

The impact of the Cold War.

Peaceful Coexistence: Khrushchev promoted détente with capitalism while remaining competitive.

Warsaw Pact (1955): Formalised Soviet military control, including East Germany.

Geneva Summit (1955): First Big Four meeting since 1945, symbolising a thaw.

Space Race: Showcased socialism's technological superiority.

Limitations on personal, political and religious freedom.

Limitations on Freedom: One-party state; opposition suppressed (Anti-Party Group, Zhukov, Bulganin); MVD enforced control. Censorship eased but writers and artists still monitored. Party remained officially atheist.

Khrushchev's fall.

Khrushchev's Fall (1964): Caused by Virgin Lands failure, slowing industry, Cold War tensions, erratic leadership, and alienating Party elites. Removed by colleagues and replaced by Brezhnev.

American Revolution 1740-1796



The development of British hegemony in America

Causes of the American Revolution

The American Revolution 1774-1783

The early Republic 1783-1796

The development of British hegemony in America

British, French and Spanish colonies in North America in 1740

Territorial presence

British: 13 colonies along the Atlantic seaboard, plus Hudson's Bay Company territory in Canada and Caribbean islands like Jamaica.

French: Canada, the Mississippi Valley and Louisiana, controlling the interior and key river systems.

Spanish: Florida, California, New Mexico and the south-west (parts of modern Texas, Colorado, Nevada, Utah, Oklahoma, Kansas, Wyoming).

Population and settlement

British: Rapid growth—about 250–300,000 c.1700 to 1 million by mid-C18 and over 2 million by 1775; five sizeable seaports (Philadelphia, New York, Boston, Newport, Charleston).

French: Around 60,000 settlers by mid-C18; settlements often “little more than forts or outposts.”

Spanish: “Very few Spanish settlers in New Spain or Florida,” with “many isolated outposts” and “little population growth and limited economic prosperity.”

Economic structures

British colonies: Highly diverse economies—arable farming in the North; tobacco, rice, indigo, cotton in middle and southern colonies; new industries in iron, textiles, shipbuilding.

French colonies: Primarily fur and fish exports; economy geared to supplying France with raw materials; close trading relationships with Native Americans.

Spanish colonies: Weak economic development due to low settler numbers and scattered settlements; empire focused more on spreading Catholicism than diversified colonial growth.

Political and religious frameworks

British: Representative assemblies with royal governors; more liberal political culture and tradition of free speech, press and assembly.

Religious pluralism—Anglicans, Presbyterians, Congregationalists, Quakers, Baptists, Lutherans, Catholics, Jews; no single dominant church.

French and Spanish:

Catholic, absolutist monarchies; tight metropolitan control; little tolerance of other religions; colonies instruments of Catholic expansion.

The development of British hegemony in America

Demography, immigration and slavery

Population growth

British colonies: 250,000 (1700) → 2 million (1763); 1.25 million (1750) → 2.3 million (1770)—almost 100% increase vs 15% in England and Wales.

European immigration: c. 400,000 migrants 1700–1763; largest group 150,000 Irish Protestants from Ulster; about 65,000 Germans; smaller Dutch and Swedish groups.

Between $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$ of white immigrants were indentured servants.

African slavery: First slaves in Virginia 1619; by 1763 over 350,000 slaves ($\approx \frac{1}{6}$ of population); 90% in the South; 40% of population in Virginia, Maryland, Georgia; 67% in South Carolina.

Regional economies

New England: Small subsistence farms; economic strength from the sea—fish, whaling, timber, shipbuilding; strong cod trade; more than half of exports to West Indies (sugar, molasses → rum).

Middle colonies: “Major source of wheat and flour products” for other colonies, West Indies and Europe; mixed farming and trade.

Southern colonies: Tobacco mainstay; exports rose from £14 million (1670s) to £100 million (1770s); also rice, indigo, grain; heavy reliance on slave labour.

Social structure and culture

Class structure: “Colonial America was ‘a middle-class world,’” but still hierarchical—elite planters/merchants, professionals, property-owning farmers ($\approx 80\%$ of free males), tenants and labourers, then slaves at the bottom.

Education and ideas: By 1763: 75% of white male adults literate (vs 60% in England); nine colleges, 30 newspapers; Enlightenment ideas and Franklin’s American Philosophical Society (1743) fostered critical thinking.

Relations with Native Americans

French–Native relations: Close economic and military cooperation; French adopted Native fighting methods (scalping, guerrilla tactics); joint attacks such as destruction of Pickawillany (1752).

British–Native relations: British settlers generally did not assimilate; more distrustful and initially less willing to make agreements; westward expansion brought frequent conflict. By late 1750s, growing awareness that Britain needed closer alliances; during the Seven Years War, British naval and military success made it easier to win Native support.

The development of British hegemony in America

Territorial expansion to 1765

**Internal colonial expansion**

Westward pressure: Rapid population growth in the 13 colonies created “pressure to move west,” bringing colonists into conflict with Native Americans beyond the Appalachians.

Ohio Valley: Speculators in Virginia granted 200,000 acres in the Ohio Valley; formation of companies like the Ohio Company; British building of Fort Prince George; French response with a chain of forts and seizure of the site as Fort Duquesne.

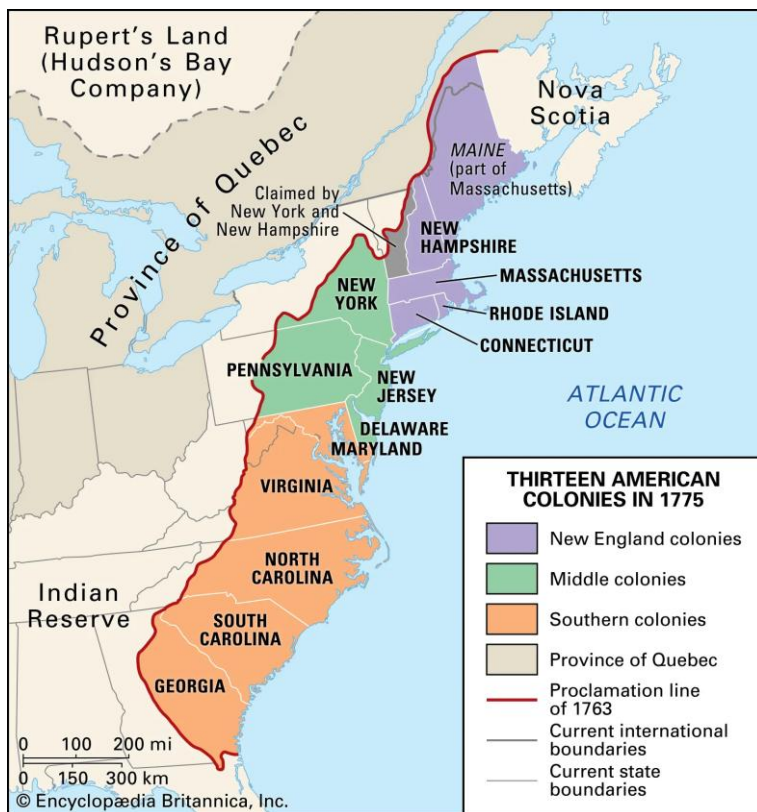
Imperial territorial gains by 1763

From France: Capture of Louisbourg (1745, then again 1758), Quebec (1759) and Montreal (1760); by Peace of Paris Britain gained Canada and all French possessions east of the Mississippi.

From Spain: Acquisition of Florida in 1763.

Proclamation Line 1763:

Map shows a “Proclamation line of 1763” marking an Indian Reserve west of the colonies—an attempt to manage expansion and Native relations after Britain’s victory.



The development of British hegemony in America

Wars with France and reasons for British success

Earlier conflicts and the War of Austrian Succession (King George's War), 1740-48

Context of repeated wars: Series of Anglo-French wars: League of Augsburg (1689-97), War of Spanish Succession (1702-13), War of Austrian Succession (1740-48), Seven Years War (1756-63).

War of Austrian Succession in America:

Colonists outnumbered French nearly 15:1; French supply hampered by British naval superiority; Native alliances offset British numerical advantage.

Major colonial success: capture of Louisbourg (1745), controlling access to Quebec and the St Lawrence; but returned to France in Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), angering colonists.

**Albany Congress (1754) and early failures**

Albany Congress: First significant inter-colonial meeting to discuss Native policy; Franklin's plan for union of 11 colonies with a Crown-appointed president approved by delegates but rejected by all colonial legislatures.

Early British setbacks (pre-1757):

Braddock's defeat and death at Monongahela (1755); failure at Fort Niagara; fall of Fort Oswego; only real success in Nova Scotia (Forts Beauséjour and Gaspereau).

British forces struggled with guerrilla warfare, lacked Native support, and colonial troops often deserted after enlistment periods.

The development of British hegemony in America

Wars with France and reasons for British success

Seven Years War (French and Indian War), 1756–63

William Pitt's leadership

Strategic shift: As Secretary of State (from 1757), Pitt prioritised victory in America and the Caribbean; sent 25,000 troops under Amherst and Wolfe; devised three-pronged attacks on Louisbourg, Ticonderoga, Quebec and retaking Fort Duquesne.

Mobilising colonial support: Reversed officer-precedence policy; Crown paid for equipping militias and reimbursed colonial assemblies; by 1758, 45,000 troops in theatre—about half colonial volunteers, versus 6,800 French.

Finance and parliamentary system

Financial capacity: Britain's parliamentary system allowed easier borrowing and taxation; a growing economy underpinned war finance.

Pitt subsidised Frederick the Great of Prussia to tie down French forces in Europe, preventing reinforcements to North America.

Naval power

Naval reforms and superiority: Lord Anson's reforms expanded the navy; by 1758 over 100 ships with 18,000 sailors supported amphibious operations.

Seizure of Louisbourg (1758) and naval support for Quebec (1759) starved French colonies of supplies; Admiral Hawke's victory at Quiberon Bay (1759) made French resupply virtually impossible.

Native American and colonial roles

Native Americans: Early in the war, Native support favoured France; later, British naval dominance and supply capacity shifted Native allegiance. Amherst recognised their psychological impact: "numbers will increase their terror and may have a good effect."

Colonial militias: After Pitt's reforms, colonial enthusiasm revived; militias built roads and forts, freeing regulars for combat and reinforcing the sense of a shared Anglo-American war effort.

French weaknesses

Structural disadvantages: Small settler population; reliance on imported supplies; less fertile regions; poor harvests in 1756–57; naval inferiority meant colonies could not be adequately reinforced or provisioned.

The development of British hegemony in America

Overall development of British hegemony to 1763

By 1763 Britain had:

A rapidly growing settler population (≈ 2 million), diversified regional economies and a mercantilist trade system increasingly central to Britain's own prosperity.

A political structure combining royal governors with powerful colonial assemblies, underpinned by charters, the Privy Council and the Board of Trade, but tempered by **“salutary neglect.”**

Eliminated France from mainland North America east of the Mississippi and taken Florida from Spain, making Britain “the world's greatest imperial power, controlling North America, the Caribbean and much of India.”



Causes of the American Revolution

Relationship between Britain and the colonies in 1763

Effects of the Seven Years' War & Treaty of Paris (1763)

Britain emerged as the dominant imperial power with major territorial gains. "The Treaty of Paris gave Britain a vastly increased Empire... it was now the largest colonial and maritime power in the world."

The war had been extremely expensive:

- National debt doubled.
- Interest payments reached £4.4 million, while government income was only £8 million.
- Colonial defence costs rose from £70,000 (1748) to £350,000 (1763).

British Concerns After 1763

Britain believed a permanent army of 10,000 troops was needed to prevent further conflict with Native Americans and to police the frontier.

Britain expected the colonies to contribute financially to their own defence.

Colonial Expectations and Tensions

Colonists expected to expand westward now that France was defeated.

The Proclamation Line (1763) forbade settlement west of the Appalachians.

"This set the boundary for colonial settlement as a line running along the top of the Appalachians."

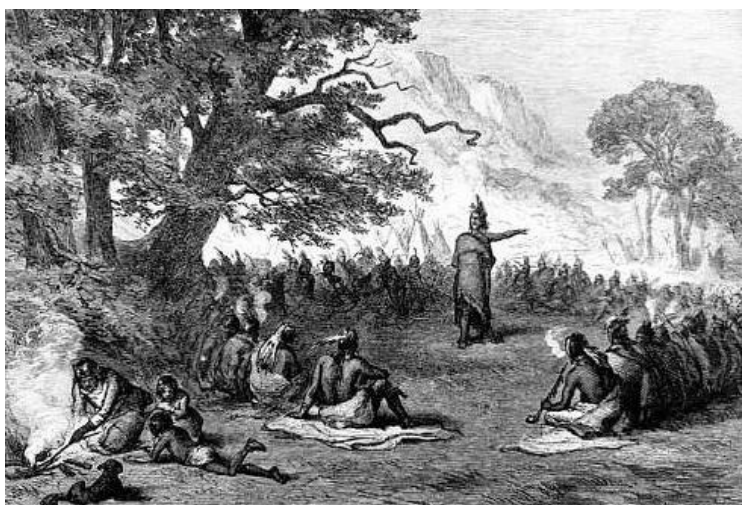
At least 30,000 American settlers ignored the restriction and moved west in the 5 years after 1763.

Pontiac's Rebellion (1763)

Native resistance to colonial expansion led to a major uprising.

"Pontiac... had risen in a bloody revolt which led to the deaths and capture of some 2000 colonists."

Reinforced British belief that westward expansion must be controlled.



Causes of the American Revolution

British Policy & American Reaction (1763-1770)

Proclamation Act (1763)**British Purpose**

Prevent conflict with Native Americans and control expansion and regulate the fur trade.

Colonial Reaction

Seen as an attack on liberty and economic opportunity. "The presence of a standing army was seen as an alien and oppressive force which threatened their liberty."

Sugar Act (1764)**British Purpose**

Reduce smuggling and raise revenue. Duty on foreign molasses reduced from 6d to 3d, but strictly enforced. "The revised duty... would yield £78,000 per year."

Colonial Reaction

Objections from assemblies and pamphleteers (e.g., James Otis).

"There should be no taxation in America without the peoples' consent."

Currency Act (1764)**British Purpose**

Ban colonial paper money to protect British merchants.

Colonial Reaction

Seen as harmful to local economies and another example of Parliamentary overreach.

Stamp Act (1765)**British Purpose**

Direct internal tax to raise £60,000 per year, still only ¼ of the cost of colonial defence. "The bill required stamps to be affixed to almost anything formally written or printed... 50 items ranging from newspapers... to playing cards."

Colonial Reaction

Universal opposition: lawyers, printers, merchants, tavern keepers.

First direct tax → seen as tyranny.

Virginia Resolves (Patrick Henry): only colonial assemblies could tax colonists.

Stamp Act Congress (1765): 27 delegates from 9 colonies; declared the Act unconstitutional.

"They denounced the Stamp Act as having 'a manifest tendency to subvert the rights and liberties of the colonies'."

Mob action (Boston): On the 14th of August effigies of Oliver and Bute were hung from the liberty tree in Boston. Men stood by the tree collecting a mock stamp duty from every passer-by. Destruction of Andrew Oliver's office and Hutchinson's mansion followed.

Causes of the American Revolution

British Policy & American Reaction (1763-1770)

Declaratory Act (1766)

British Purpose

Passed alongside repeal of Stamp Act.

Asserted Parliament's right to legislate for the colonies "in all cases whatsoever."

Colonial Reaction

Colonists celebrated repeal but feared implications of Parliamentary supremacy.

Townshend Duties (1767)

British Purpose

External duties on glass, lead, paint, paper, tea.

Revenue used to pay royal officials → reduced colonial control.

The Mutiny (or Quartering) Act of 1765: Designed to remedy the shortage of military accommodation, the act required colonial assemblies to make provision for quartering and supplying British troops. Under its terms, the New York assembly was prohibited from taking any legislative action until it complies with the Quartering Act.

Colonial Reaction

Non-importation agreements.

John Dickinson's Letters from a Pennsylvania Farmer argued duties were unconstitutional.

British troops stationed in Boston → rising tensions.

By suspending the assembly, Parliament raised doubts about the constitutional status of colonial legislatures. Most colonists opposed Parliament's power to suspend or alter them, but without support from other colonies, New York's assembly agreed to supply the troops.

Boston Massacre (1770):

On 5th March, troops opened fire, killing 5 Bostonians. Sam Adams' political machine gave the impression that there had been a deliberate massacre... The Americans cause now had martyrs.

Repeal of Townshend Duties (except tea):

The Townshend duties made little financial sense. Lord North decided to repeal the act. Most duties repealed; tea duty retained symbolically, keeping the constitutional issue alive.

Causes of the American Revolution

Tea Act (1773), Boston Tea Party, and the 'Intolerable Acts' (1774-1775)

Tea Act (1773)

Purpose and mechanics: The act was designed to save the near-bankrupt East India Company by permitting it to export tea to the colonies directly. The Tea Act abolished British duties on the company's tea, making it cheaper but obligating Americans to continue paying the duty levied under Townshend's legislation.

Economic stakes: For a few pounds - the tea imported into America had netted only £400 in 1772 - North was risking the export of £2 million of tea and antagonising the Americans into the bargain.

American reaction:

Most Americans were convinced that the Tea Act was another attempt at parliamentary taxation. Violence was threatened against those merchants importing East India Company tea. In all the major ports tea agents were intimidated and forced to resign.

Boston Tea Party (1773)

Event: On 16th December 60 Sons of Liberty men boarded the three ships and threw their cargoes - 342 tea chests worth about £10,000 - into the harbour.

British reaction: North's government determined to take a hard line. Parliament was either the supreme authority in the empire or it was not. Even staunch friends of the colonists refused to defend the Tea Party. The Tea Party was framed as a direct challenge to imperial authority.

Coercive Acts (Intolerable Acts): The Boston Port Act closed Boston to all trade until the destroyed tea had been paid for. The Massachusetts Government Act allowed the royal governor to appoint and remove most civil officials. The Impartial Administration of Justice Act provided for the transfer to Britain of murder trials. A new Quartering Act gave broader authority to military commanders.

Colonial response: The Boston Town Meeting asked all the colonies to boycott British goods. Colonial Assemblies denounced the actions of the British government as 'an attack, made on one of our sister colonies... is an attack on all British America'. Moving toward inter-colonial solidarity and coordinated boycott.

Quebec Act: The act placed authority in the hands of a governor without an elected assembly and limited trial by jury. The extension of the Quebec boundary south and west to the Ohio and the Mississippi looked like an attempt to check westward expansion.

Causes of the American Revolution

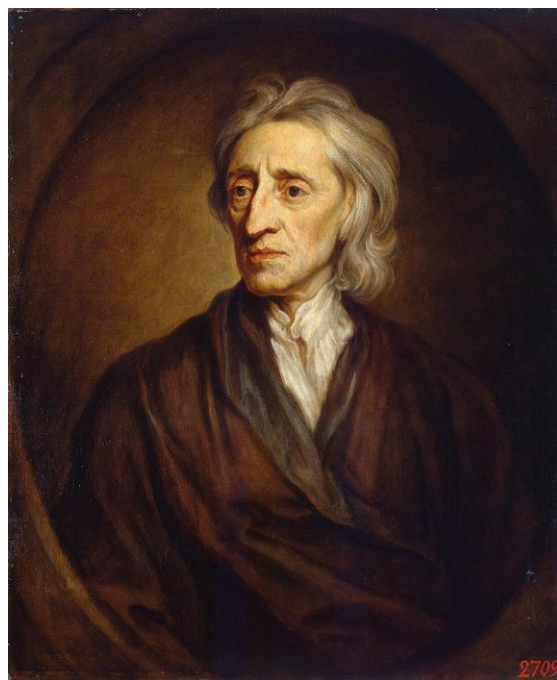
Developments in political thought

John Locke and Enlightenment ideas

Lockean foundations: John Locke had argued that ownership of property was the key characteristic of freeman. Government was a contract which lasted only as long as basic rights were protected and not abused.

Despotism and standing armies:

Taxation without representation was now portrayed as despotism. Why did Britain need a standing army, a symbol of repression, in America unless it was to enforce unconstitutional demands, such as taxes?

**American Whiggism and constitutional thought**

Whig tradition: Americans were concerned with the old Whig issues of resistant arbitrary power, upholding popular rights and defending the integrity of representative institutions. Colonists saw themselves as defending traditional English liberties, not inventing new ones.

Virginia Resolves (Patrick Henry):

Colonists possessed the rights of Englishmen. Colonists could be taxed only if they had proper representation. The House of Burgesses had the sole right to tax Virginians. Direct denial of Parliament's right to tax without colonial consent.

Causes of the American Revolution

Emerging Leaders

Samuel Adams

Adams was the man who sculpted the protest movement in Massachusetts. More agitator than statesman, nevertheless, he was a preeminent early rebel leader. He organised crowd action (Loyal Nine, Sons of Liberty), committees of correspondence, and propaganda. Colonial leaders could not challenge British policy successfully without popular support. Popular resistance to the stamp act originated in Boston. Adams turned to the North and South End gang for support.

John Dickinson

Dickinson argued that while Parliament could regulate the colonies trade, it did not have the right to tax them. He also condemned the suspension of the New York assembly as a blow to colonial liberty. He clarified that any revenue-raising tax without consent was unconstitutional.

Thomas Jefferson

Jefferson published *A Summary of the Rights of British America*, claiming the British Parliament had no right to exercise authority over Americans... 'every individual of whom is equal to every individual of them'. He moves beyond taxation to denying parliamentary authority altogether—a step toward independence.

John Adams

John Adams was a moderate who defended the 8 of the soldiers following the Boston Massacre. 6 were acquitted after a skilful defence by their counsel. However John Adams became more radical, publishing twelve essays claiming 'America is not any part of the British realm or dominions'. He both defended rule of law and advanced a radical constitutional position.

Wider print culture and Thomas Paine

By 1775 there were 42 colonial newspapers. All but two or three were radical in emphasis. In 1775-76, Thomas Paine published *Common Sense* arguing that the problem wasn't just taxes or Parliament. The problem was monarchy itself. Therefore, the only logical solution was full independence. Its impact was considerable, as can be seen in the sales, which were the largest of any book in American history.

Causes of the American Revolution

Colonial political ideas on trade and taxation

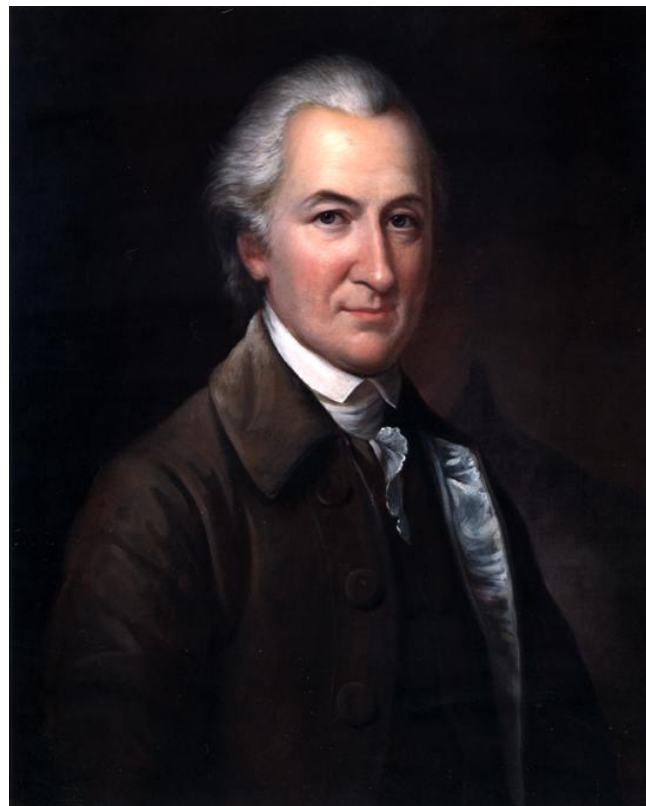
Core principles**No taxation without representation**

The concern among the colonists was largely centred on the issue of 'no taxation without representation', there were fears that if they could be taxed without being consulted then traditional freedoms could be undermined.

Trade vs revenue

While conceding Parliament's right to regulate trade they did not accept its right to tax in order to raise revenue in America.

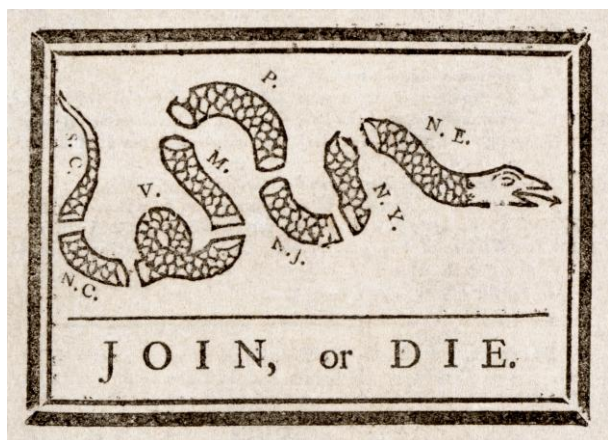
Property and liberty: "We cannot be happy without being free, without being secure in our property - that we cannot be secure in our property if, without consent, others may, as of right, take it away." (John Dickinson)

**Economic boycotts and moral politics****Non-importation and non-consumption**

Non-importation provided considerable scope for popular activity. As the crisis deepens the Sons of Liberty appealed to the public not to buy British goods. The ban on British imports boosted the radical cause by encouraging local production and pride in frugality.

Committees of Safety and politicisation

By the spring of 1775 Around 7,000 colonists directly engaged in revolutionary local governance, either on Committees of Safety or in the extra-legal conventions.



The American Revolution 1774-1783

The Move Towards Independence, 1774-1776

Flight of the Governors

Royal governors fled (Dunmore, Martin, Campbell, Wright), creating power vacuums that Congress filled.

The First Continental Congress (1774)

Met in Philadelphia, Sept–Nov 1774; 12/13 colonies represented (Georgia absent)

Coordinated colonial response to the Coercive/Intolerable Acts.

Not revolutionary: aimed to petition George III, not seek independence.

Marked the first major step towards inter-colonial cooperation.

The Second Continental Congress (May 1775)

Convened after Lexington and Concord (April 1775); rebellion already underway.

65 delegates, all 13 colonies represented; newcomers included Franklin and Jefferson.

Faced the need to direct a war, despite divisions over independence.

Creation of the Continental Army (June 1775)

Congress imposed quotas to raise a 20,000-man army and issued \$2 million in paper money.

George Washington appointed commander — a Virginian, symbolising unity. Washington was wealthy planter with previous military experience as a lieutenant colonel during the 7 Year War.

Congress began acting like a national government: raising armies, issuing money, coordinating war.

But still not united behind independence.

Attempts at Reconciliation (1775)**Congress still sought peace:**

Declaration of the Causes and Necessities of Taking Up Arms (July 1775): disclaimed intention of separation.

Olive Branch Petition (July 1775): professed loyalty to the King.

George III rejected both and called on loyal subjects to suppress rebellion.

This hardened colonial attitudes.

The American Revolution 1774-1783

The Move Towards Independence, 1774-1776

The Declaration of Independence (1776)

- Why independence gained momentum
- George III determined to subjugate colonies.
- Fighting in 1775-76 weakened ties.
- Dunmore's proclamation offering freedom to slaves pushed southern elites towards independence.
- Enlightenment ideas (Locke, Montesquieu) provided ideological justification.
- Thomas Paine's *Common Sense* (Jan 1776): 120,000 copies sold, calling monarchy "tyranny" and George III "the Royal Brute."

Drafting the Declaration

- Committee: Jefferson, Adams, Franklin, Sherman, Livingston.
- Jefferson wrote most of it in two weeks.
- Congress removed a passage blaming Britain for slavery to avoid offending southern delegates.
- Adopted 4 July 1776.

Key principles

- "All men are created equal... endowed with unalienable rights... life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness."
- Government derives power from consent of the governed; people may alter or abolish unjust government.

Significance

- Provided a moral and legal justification for rebellion.
- Essential for securing foreign aid (especially France).
- Marked the formal birth of the United States.



The American Revolution 1774-1783

Outbreak of Hostilities & Key Military Developments

Lexington and Concord (April 1775)

Gage sent 700 troops to seize arms at Concord.

Minutemen: elite militia, 4,000 assembled.

8 colonists killed at Lexington; British retreat harassed by militias.

British casualties: 65 dead, 180 wounded.

Transformed political dispute into armed conflict.

Sparked wider mobilisation: Pennsylvania raised 4,300 men.

Forced British out of New England.

Bunker Hill (June 1775)

British frontal assault under Howe.

American casualties: 138 killed, 276 wounded.

British casualties: 226 killed, 800+ wounded — 1/8 of all British officers killed in the entire war died here.

Proved Americans could fight effectively.

Washington Takes Command (July 1775)

Found only 15,000 poorly trained troops, fewer than 50 cannon, little powder.

Imposed discipline: flogging, removal of incompetent officers.

The Invasion of Canada (1775-76)

American assault on Quebec failed: Montgomery killed, Arnold wounded.

Smallpox, desertion, and lack of supplies forced retreat.

British reinforcements ended siege.

Evacuation of Boston (March 1776)

Henry Knox transported artillery 300 miles from Ticonderoga.

Washington seized Dorchester Heights with 17,000 troops.

Howe evacuated with 1,000 loyalists.

Congress awarded Washington the first Congressional Medal of Honour.

The American Revolution 1774-1783

Outbreak of Hostilities & Key Military Developments

New York Campaign (1776)

Howe commanded 32,000 men — largest trans-oceanic force Britain had ever sent.

Washington had 20,000; defeated at Long Island (2,000 American casualties).

Howe failed to pursue decisively; Washington escaped under fog.

British captured Fort Washington: 3,000 prisoners.

Washington's army shrank to 3,000 men by December.

Trenton & Princeton (Dec 1776 – Jan 1777)

Washington crossed Delaware with 1,600 men.

Trenton: 1,000 Hessians captured, only 4 American wounded.

Princeton: further victory; revived morale.

Saratoga (1777)

Burgoyne advanced from Canada with 9,000 troops.

Poor planning, hostile terrain, lack of supplies, and alienation of locals (e.g., murder of Jane McCrea).

Gates commanded 7,000 Americans by September.

Burgoyne defeated at Freeman's Farm and Bemis Heights; surrendered 5,900 troops.

First major American victory. Directly triggered French entry into the war.

The Southern Strategy (1778-1781)

After early failures in the Carolinas (e.g., Moore's Creek, Charleston attempt), the British increasingly looked south for Loyalist support.

"British Commander Lord Dunmore launched raids...promising freedom to slaves who aided the British war effort. This backfired, strengthening southern support for the rebels.

British misjudgement of Loyalist strength in the South contributed to later defeats.

Southern campaigns became brutal civil wars, draining British manpower.

Yorktown (October 1781)

French naval intervention trapped Cornwallis. Washington coordinated with French forces to besiege Yorktown.

Britain could not relieve the army due to French control of the sea. Cornwallis' surrender effectively ended major fighting.

Led directly to peace negotiations.

The American Revolution 1774-1783

American Unity, Washington, French Entry & British Leadership

American Unity — Strengths & Weaknesses**Weaknesses**

Colonies remained 13 separate states with differing interests.

Loyalists numerous (up to 500,000).

Enthusiasm inconsistent; desertion common.

Localised civil wars, especially in the South.

Strengths

Patriot cause revived whenever British armies withdrew.

200,000 men served at some point in the Continental Army.

**Washington's Leadership****Key qualities**

Persistence, logistical skill, ability to maintain army cohesion.

Imposed discipline despite resentment.

Faced mutiny in 1783; executed two ringleaders.

Endured severe shortages: "keeping an army without pay, clothing and frequently without provision."

Strategic evolution

Early boldness: Trenton & Princeton.

Later adopted containment strategy, avoiding pitched battles.

Used French forces effectively at Yorktown.

Historian Stephen Brumwell: Washington was more aggressive and imaginative than often portrayed.

The American Revolution 1774-1783

American Unity, Washington, French Entry & British Leadership

French Entry into the War (1778)**Why France joined**

Desire to avenge defeat in the Seven Years' War.

Saratoga convinced France America could survive.

Franklin's diplomacy crucial.

French contributions

Arms, gunpowder, officers (e.g., Lafayette).

Over 1 billion livres in financial support.

Naval intervention decisive at Yorktown.

Impact

War became global; Britain had to defend empire.

British troops in America fell from 65% (1778) to 29% (1780).

Quality of British Military Leadership**Problems**

No unified command; Howe, Clinton, Burgoyne disagreed constantly.

Howe overly cautious; Burgoyne overconfident; Clinton timid.

Poor planning from Lord George Germain.

Underestimated Americans; expected conventional warfare.

Failures at Trenton, Princeton, Saratoga, and Yorktown.



The American Revolution 1774-1783

The Peace of Paris (1783)

The Peace of Paris (1783)**Terms of the Treaty**

Britain recognised American independence.

Loyalist property to be returned.

USA gained fishing rights off Canada.

Florida returned to Spain.

Boundaries:

- West: Mississippi River
- North: St Lawrence River
- South: 31st parallel / Florida boundary

**Significance****For Britain**

Limited territorial losses (Menorca, Tobago, Senegal).

Government collapsed; replaced by Pitt the Younger.

For France

France gained prestige but suffered severe financial strain — contributing to French Revolution (1789).

For Spain

Spain regained Florida but border disputes remained.

For the USA

Independence secured; vast western lands gained.

Huge debts (e.g., 11 million livres owed to France).

Weak central government under Articles of Confederation.

Loyalists, Native Americans, and enslaved people suffered greatly.

The Early Republic 1783-1796

The Early Republic, 1783-1796

Move Towards the Creation of a Constitution & Challenges Faced**Post-war context**

Population in 1783: 3 million, including one-sixth enslaved.

Gained vast western lands after the Treaty of Paris (1783).

No national taxation, no uniform law, no executive, no war cabinet.

Key structural weaknesses

Congress often lacked quorum; moved repeatedly (Philadelphia → Princeton → Annapolis → Trenton → New York).

States could block any major measure: each state had one vote, and unanimity was required for amendments.

Social and political divisions

Loyalists vs. Patriots; elites vs. “middling sort”.

Internal state divisions (e.g., wealthy merchants vs. isolated frontier farmers).

Indigenous nations resisting expansion.

Articles of Confederation (1781-1789)**Nature of the Articles**

A “firm league of friendship” among sovereign states.

Unicameral Congress; each state = 1 vote.

No executive, no judiciary, no power to tax, no power to regulate trade.

Strengths

Passed the Northwest Ordinance (1787): Territorial government appointed until 5,000 adult males → could elect a legislature. At 60,000 population, territory could apply for statehood. Established future states: Ohio (1803), Indiana (1816), Illinois (1818), Michigan (1837), Wisconsin (1848).

Banned slavery in the Northwest Territory.

Land Ordinance (1785): Land divided into 6-mile-square townships. Each township contained 36 sections, each 1 square mile (640 acres). 4 sections reserved as bounty land for ex-soldiers; 1 section for public schools. Land sold in 64-acre lots at not less than \$1 per acre.

Weaknesses

Amendments required unanimous consent.

Congress had no power to tax.

No national army → unable to respond effectively to crises.

The Early Republic 1783-1796

The Early Republic, 1783-1796

Relations with Britain, Spain, France & Domestic Problems**Britain**

Britain refused to evacuate frontier posts (e.g., Detroit, Fort Niagara, Michilimackinac). Justified occupation by claiming Americans failed to repay pre-war debts or restore Loyalist property. John Adams sent to London in 1785 but rejected because Congress lacked enforcement power.

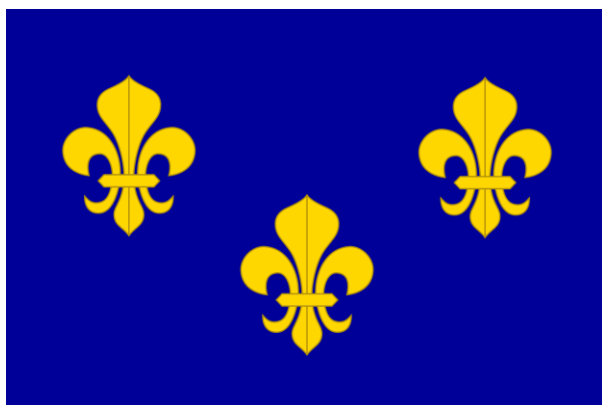
**Spain**

Spain closed the Mississippi River in 1784, seizing Natchez. Spain attempted to create a Native American buffer state. Jay-Gardoqui Treaty (1786) proposed giving up Mississippi navigation for 25 years, but 5 southern states blocked ratification.

**France**

Expected repayment of loans; frustrated by U.S. financial weakness.

Declining influence as the French Revolution began (1789).



The Early Republic 1783-1796

The Early Republic, 1783-1796

Relations with Britain, Spain, France & Domestic Problems**Economic Problems**

Between 1784-1786, the U.S. imported £7.5 million of British goods but exported less than one-third of that value.

Specie (gold/silver) drained out of the country, worsening deflation.

Population growth: 2.75 million (1780) → 4 million (1790).

States imposed conflicting tariffs; some issued paper money, others refused.

Financial Crisis: National debt in 1783: \$41 million.

\$8 million foreign debt (France, Netherlands, Spain).

\$33 million domestic debt.

Annual interest payments required \$2.4 million.

Congress levied \$15 million in requisitions by 1786 but received only \$2.5 million.

Robert Morris' Efforts:

- Superintendent of Finance (1781-1784).
- Personally loaned money to keep government solvent.
- Proposed a 5% import duty, but unanimity failed.

Civil Disobedience & Shays' Rebellion (1786-1787)

States imposed heavy taxes to pay war debts.

Scarcity of specie meant farmers could not pay taxes or debts.

By 1787, seven states were issuing paper money.

Shays' Rebellion:

- In New Hampshire, 2,000 militiamen dispersed farmers in 1786.
- In Massachusetts, courts shut down by mobs preventing debt hearings.
- Daniel Shays led several hundred men toward the Springfield arsenal in January 1787.
- Rebellion suppressed by 1,000 militiamen under Benjamin Lincoln.
- The rebellion convinced many that the Articles were failing.

The Early Republic 1783-1796

The Early Republic, 1783-1796

The Philadelphia Convention (1787)**Purpose**

Initially to revise the Articles of Confederation; quickly shifted to creating a new constitution. 55 delegates from 12 states attended; Rhode Island did not participate.

Key Debates

Representation: The Virginia Plan (favoured by large states) proposed population-based representation, while the New Jersey Plan (favoured by small states) sought equal representation.

Great Compromise (bicameral legislature).

Slavery: Three-Fifths Compromise; 20-year protection of slave trade.

Executive power: single president with veto power.

Federal vs. state power: creation of a stronger central government.

Outcome

Draft Constitution completed September 1787.

Required ratification by 9 of 13 states.

Nature of the 1787 Constitution**Structure**

Separation of powers: legislative, executive, judicial.

Checks and balances: veto, impeachment, judicial review (implied).

Federalism: division of power between national and state governments.

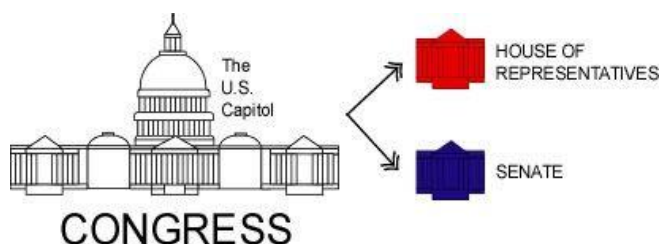
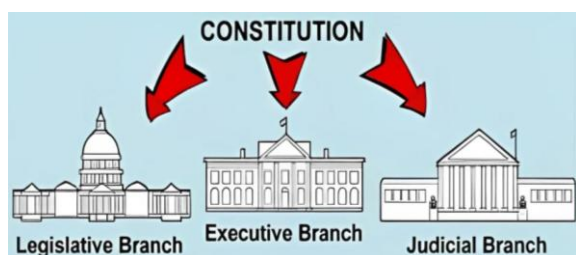
Key Features

Bicameral Congress (House by population; Senate equal representation).

President as commander-in-chief, with power to appoint officials and conduct foreign policy.

Supreme Court established; Congress empowered to create lower courts.

Power to tax, regulate commerce, raise armies, coin money.



The Early Republic 1783-1796

The Early Republic, 1783-1796

Struggle for Ratification: Federalists vs. Anti-Federalists**Federalists**

Supported strong central government.

Key figures: Hamilton, Madison, Jay.

Published Federalist Papers to defend the Constitution.

Anti-Federalists

Feared tyranny; wanted stronger state governments.

Criticised lack of a bill of rights.

Concerned about standing armies and executive power.

Ratification

Delaware first (Dec 1787); New Hampshire ninth (June 1788).

New York and Virginia ratified after promises of a Bill of Rights.

Formation of the First Government (1789)**Washington and the Executive**

Washington unanimously elected president.

Created the first Cabinet:

- Jefferson (State)
- Hamilton (Treasury)
- Knox (War)
- Randolph (Attorney General)

Hamilton's Financial Programme

Federal assumption of state debts.

Creation of a national bank.

Excise taxes (including the whiskey tax).

Tariffs to encourage manufacturing.

**Judiciary Act of 1789**

Established federal court system and Supreme Court structure.

The Early Republic 1783-1796

The Early Republic, 1783-1796

The Bill of Rights (1791)**Purpose**

To satisfy Anti-Federalist concerns.

Protect individual liberties from federal overreach.

Amendments

1st: freedoms of speech, press, religion, assembly.

2nd: right to bear arms.

3rd: No Soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the Owner...

4th-8th: protections for the accused.

9th: there are additional fundamental rights that exist outside the Constitution.

10th: powers not delegated to the federal government reserved to the states.

The Problem of Finding a Successor to Washington (1796)**Washington's Retirement**

Declined a third term; set precedent for two-term limit.

Farewell Address warned against:

Political parties.

Foreign entanglements.

Sectionalism (urging citizens to prioritise their identity as Americans over local or regional interests).

Election of 1796**First contested presidential election.**

John Adams (Federalist) vs. Thomas Jefferson (Democratic-Republican).

Adams won; Jefferson became vice president under original constitutional rules.

