

KS4 History

Head of Department: Mr Hewett



Curriculum Intent

We **serve** our students with an adaptive curriculum that meets the needs of all. Our different subjects have carefully identified plans outlining, what they teach and why. This is shared with all students, staff and parents to empower our community in their learning journey and includes careful consideration of sequencing of knowledge and skills. Cardinal Pole is committed to providing **opportunities** for staff and students to become life-long lovers of learning through personalised feedback, opportunities for reflection and progression. We are a community of **aspirant** learners where teachers are experts and students are critical scholars. This is achieved through absolute clarity of expectations and constant re-evaluation of needs through a shared language. We **reward** our community of learners by celebrating the successes, progress and achievements of all.

How do all KS4 History lessons start? (Ready to Learn)

All lessons at Cardinal Pole start with a 'Ready to Learn' activity. The purpose of this is to support retrieval and prepare students for the lesson with recalling relevant knowledge. This activity is printed for students and handed out at the door. Students are expected to sit at their desk immediately and complete the task before sticking it in their books while the teacher welcomes the class and takes the register.

Ready to learn activities in **History** look like this:

Living in and policing Whitechapel (6)

Police nationally; living and working in Whitechapel (Q1, Q2, Q3); social groups in Whitechapel (Q1, Q2, Q3); Policing Whitechapel; investigating & responses to Jtr case – press and police (Q1, Q2, Q3)

How did law enforcement change in industrial England? (3)

Bow Street Runners; Metropolitan Police; CID (Q1)

How did the crime and punishment and law enforcement change in early modern England? (9)

Who were the Tudors & Stuarts; Heresy, treason inc. Gunpowder Plot vagrancy & witchcraft inc. Matthew Hopkins (Q3); burning at stake, start of transportation, early prisons (Q1)

What was the importance of the Church? (2)

Church; end of trial by ordeal; sanctuary; church courts (Q2)

How did the crime, punishment and law enforcement change in later Medieval England? (1)

Heresy, treason and Lollards; hanged, drawn and quartered; Henry II Assize of Clarendon inc sheriffs and coroners

How did law enforcement change in early modern England? (1)

Town constables, night watchmen & thief takers (Q2)

How did the Normans change crime, punishment and law enforcement? (3)

Norman Conquest; moral crimes, poaching & killing a Norman (Q1); corporal and capital punishment; Murdrum; trial by combat (Q3)

How did the Cold War come to an end? (3)

Collapse of eastern Europe (Q2); Fall of Berlin Wall; Fall of Gorbachev

What was détente? (3)

Causes, Key features and end of détente (Afghanistan) (Q3)

Why did the Cold War develop? (6)

Truman Doctrine & Marshall Plan (Q3); Cominform & Comecon; Berlin Blockade; Berlin Airlift (Q2); NATO, Warsaw Pact and arms race (Q1)

AP2

How much change in crime and punishment was there in the 20th century? (5)

New versions of old crimes (Q2); new crimes including new social crimes; abolition of death penalty; changes to prisons inc. youth; alternative punishments (Q3)

How did law enforcement change in industrial England? (3)

Bow Street Runners; Metropolitan Police; CID (Q3)

How did the crime and punishment and law enforcement change in industrial England? (9)

Industrial Revolution & Enlightenment; Smuggling, poaching, highway robbery and end of witchcraft (Q1); Tolpuddle Martyrs; end of public execution; Fry, Howard & Peel inc. Pentonville (Q2)

What crime and punishment and law enforcement like in Medieval England? (3)

Kingdoms and kings; crimes against person, property & king; corporal and capital punishment; Wergild and Botgeld; tithings; courts; trial by ordeal

What is the Big Picture of Crime, Punishment and Law enforcement over time? (2)

AP1

How did new leaders change the course of the war? (3)

Reagan and the Second World War including SDI (Q1); Gorbachev's new thinking inc perestroika & glasnost (Q1); summits

Cold War Crises (12)

Causes, Key features & consequences of Hungarian Uprising (Q2); Berlin Wall (Q2); Bay of Pigs (Q3); Cuban Missiles Crisis (Q1); Czechoslovakia (Q3)

Why did the Cold War start? (6)

Long term tensions, conferences (Q1); atomic bomb (Q3); telegrams and satellite states (Q2)

Y10 History

How is your attainment measured in Year 10 in Autumn term?

Autumn: HT1

Why did the Cold War start?	Long-term tensions, the Tehran, Yalta and Potsdam conferences, the atomic bomb, telegrams and satellite states.
Consequence questions (Q1a and Q1b)	Two 4-mark questions asking for consequences of a named event, each worth 4 of the 32 marks in Booklet P.
Importance question (Q3)	8 marks. Students explain the importance of an event for the development of the Cold War.

Autumn: HT2

Why did the Cold War develop?	Truman Doctrine and Marshall Plan, Cominform and Comecon, Berlin Blockade and Airlift, NATO, Warsaw Pact and the arms race.
Analytical narrative (Q2)	8 marks. Students write an account analysing how events led to one another, not simply describing them.
Assessment Point 1	A full Booklet P paper under timed conditions covering the whole of the autumn term.

Assessment Point 1

What is assessed?	% of course	Why?
Superpower Relations and the Cold War, 1941–91 — Paper 2, Booklet P (period study).	20% of the GCSE	Booklet P is 32 of the 64 marks on Paper 2. Questions cover consequence (Q1a/b), an analytical narrative (Q2) and the importance of an event or development (Q3). AP1 uses the same question types so students meet the real paper structure from the start.

Superpower Relations and the Cold War

Autumn Term 1 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
1	What and where was the Cold War? Emerging (catching up): The Cold War was a period of tension between 1945 and 1991 in which the world was divided between the USA and its allies and the Soviet Union (USSR) and its allies. The USA supported capitalism and democracy, while the USSR supported communism. Although the two superpowers had worked together to defeat Nazi Germany during the Second World War, they never fought each other directly, which is why the conflict became known as the Cold War. Achieving (keeping up): Instead of fighting directly, the superpowers competed for power and influence around the world. This rivalry took many forms, including propaganda, the Arms Race, the Space Race and support for opposing sides in international conflicts. As a result, Cold War crises developed in places such as Germany, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Cuba, Korea and Vietnam, showing that the conflict spread far beyond Europe. Excelling (going beyond): Although the Cold War never became a direct war between the USA and USSR, it affected millions of people across the world. Crises in Berlin and Cuba brought the superpowers close to nuclear war, while conflicts in Korea and Vietnam caused millions of deaths. The Cold War therefore became a global struggle between capitalism and communism that shaped international relations for nearly fifty years.	Image mystery starter; picture-card matching activity; caption-card matching task; chronological ordering challenge; Cold War definition task; geographical sorting activity; Cold War hotspots map work; annotation of Germany, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Cuba, Korea and Vietnam; true-or-false review activity.
2	Why couldn't the USA and USSR be friends? Emerging (catching up): The USA and the USSR were divided by three kinds of difference. Historically, the 1917 Russian Revolution created the world's first Communist government, and Britain sent aid to the White Russians fighting against it, with Churchill declaring that "we must strangle the infant Bolshevism in the cradle". Politically, the USSR was a dictatorship with no elections, banned political parties and a secret police, while Britain and the USA held free elections and allowed freedom of speech. Economically, the Soviet state owned all industry and assigned people their jobs, while capitalist countries allowed private business, profit and competition. Achieving (keeping up): These differences created mistrust between the two countries. Americans criticised the lack of free elections, opposition parties and civil liberties in the Soviet Union. Meanwhile, Soviet leaders argued that capitalism produced unemployment, inequality and economic crises such as the Great Depression. Both sides believed their system was superior and feared the other would try to spread its ideas to other countries. Excelling (going beyond): Although the USA and USSR became allies during the Second World War, the alliance was always fragile. The historical hostility created by the Russian Revolution, combined with deep political and economic disagreements, meant that suspicion never disappeared. The two countries cooperated while fighting Hitler, but once Nazi Germany had been defeated there was little to keep them together. This meant that rivalry was far more likely than lasting friendship.	
3	What were the consequences of Tehran and Yalta? Emerging (catching up): Between 1943 and 1945, Churchill, Roosevelt and Stalin met at Tehran and Yalta to discuss the war and the future of Europe. At Tehran, the Allies agreed to open a Second Front in France and Stalin promised to join the war against Japan after Germany was defeated. At Yalta, they agreed that Germany and Berlin would be divided into occupation zones and that the United Nations would be created. However, disagreements emerged over Poland and Eastern Europe. Achieving (keeping up): The conferences helped keep the Grand Alliance together, but they also exposed growing tensions. Stalin wanted a buffer zone of friendly countries in Eastern Europe because Russia had been invaded through the region several times in the twentieth century. However, Churchill and Roosevelt wanted countries such as Poland to have free elections and choose their own governments. As Germany moved closer to defeat, these disagreements became harder to resolve. Excelling (going beyond): Although Tehran strengthened cooperation between the Allies, Yalta revealed very different ideas about post-war Europe. Stalin wanted security through Soviet influence in Eastern Europe, while Britain and the USA wanted democracy and self-determination. The Allies remained united against Hitler, but disagreements over Poland and Eastern Europe helped create the mistrust that would later develop into the Cold War.	Odd-one-out Cold War starter; Tehran fact file; analyse agreements and disagreements at Tehran; Yalta fact file; buffer zone discussion; comparison of successes and failures at Yalta; judgement on whether the conferences improved or worsened relations.

Superpower Relations and the Cold War

Autumn Term 1 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
4	What were the consequences of Potsdam? Emerging (catching up): The Potsdam Conference took place between July and August 1945 after Germany had surrendered. Since Yalta, several things had changed. Roosevelt had died and been replaced by Harry Truman, while Churchill was replaced by Clement Attlee during the conference. The Allies agreed to divide Germany into occupation zones and govern it jointly, but they disagreed about reparations and Stalin's growing control of Eastern Europe. Achieving (keeping up): Relations at Potsdam were more difficult than at earlier conferences. Truman wanted to "get tough" with Stalin and was suspicious of Soviet actions in Eastern Europe, especially after Stalin imposed a Communist government in Poland. Stalin argued that he needed a buffer zone of friendly states to protect the USSR from future invasions. The two leaders also disagreed about reparations and the future of Germany, making cooperation increasingly difficult. Excelling (going beyond): Although some agreements were reached at Potsdam, the conference marked a turning point in relations between the USA and USSR. Germany had surrendered, removing the common enemy that had united the Grand Alliance. Truman was determined to take a tougher approach to Stalin, while Stalin continued to strengthen Soviet influence in Eastern Europe. The successful testing of the atomic bomb further increased mistrust between the two leaders. As a result, the ideological divide between capitalism and communism became increasingly important, helping to lay the foundations for the Cold War.	Tehran and Yalta retrieval starter; classify developments since Yalta as positive or negative for relations; Potsdam fact file; explain agreements and disagreements about Germany and Eastern Europe; narrative account on Tehran, Yalta and Potsdam; conference comparison review tasks.
5	How did atomic bombs 'explode' relations between 1945-47? Emerging (catching up): In August 1945, the USA used atomic weapons against Japan for the first time. On 6 August, the bomb 'Little Boy' was dropped on Hiroshima and a second bomb was dropped on Nagasaki three days later. More than 120,000 people died and Japan surrendered within days. The USA was now the only country in the world to possess atomic weapons. Achieving (keeping up): The atomic bomb increased tensions because it transformed the balance of power between the superpowers. Stalin was alarmed that the USA now possessed a weapon far more powerful than the Soviet army. Historian Ronald Grigor Suny argues that the bomb made the USSR appear much weaker. By 1946, mistrust had grown so much that George Kennan's Long Telegram claimed communism should be contained, while Novikov's Telegram argued that America wanted world domination and was using the atomic bomb to threaten the USSR. Excelling (going beyond): Although tensions had already increased at Potsdam, the atomic bomb helped turn suspicion into open rivalry. The Long Telegram convinced Truman that the USSR wanted to spread communism and destroy capitalism, leading to the policy of containment. Meanwhile, the Novikov Telegram convinced Stalin that America wanted world domination and was using its military power to intimidate the Soviet Union. As a result, both sides became more determined to expand their influence, increase military spending and develop new weapons. This helped transform wartime mistrust into the Cold War and the later arms race.	Potsdam retrieval starter; discussion on how US-USSR relations changed after the conferences; analysis of Soviet gains from Tehran, Yalta and Potsdam; Hiroshima and Nagasaki case study; interpretation analysis using Ronald Grigor Suny's view of Stalin's reaction to the atomic bomb; atomic bomb comprehension questions; Long Telegram source analysis; Novikov Telegram source analysis; Stalin decision-making task on how to respond to American power; write your own telegram advising Truman on containment; explain one consequence of the Long Telegram (4).
6	How did Stalin create an 'Iron Curtain' around Eastern Europe? Emerging (catching up): At the end of the Second World War, the Soviet Red Army occupied much of Eastern Europe after pushing Nazi Germany back towards Berlin. Stalin kept Soviet troops in countries such as Poland, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria and East Germany and helped Communist governments take power. These countries became satellite states, meaning they were independent in name but controlled by the USSR. In 1946, Churchill described this division between Eastern and Western Europe as an "Iron Curtain". Achieving (keeping up): Stalin created satellite states to act as a buffer zone between the USSR and Western Europe. He believed this was necessary because Russia had been invaded through Eastern Europe several times, including by Germany in both the First and Second World Wars. However, Truman and Churchill saw Soviet control of Eastern Europe as evidence that Stalin was spreading communism and breaking promises about free elections made at Yalta. Excelling (going beyond): Although Stalin viewed satellite states as a defensive buffer zone, the USA and Britain saw them as evidence that communism was spreading across Europe. The Iron Curtain therefore widened the divide between East and West, increased support for containment and made cooperation between the superpowers much more difficult.	Chronological sorting of Cold War events; map work identifying satellite states; Soviet Expansion video notes; investigation into how communists took control of Eastern Europe; Iron Curtain speech analysis; explain the importance of Soviet Expansion for the development of the Cold War (8).

Superpower Relations and the Cold War

Autumn Term 1 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
7	Why did the Truman Doctrine and Marshall Plan intensify relations? Emerging (catching up): In 1947, President Truman announced the Truman Doctrine, promising support for countries threatened by communism, including Greece and Turkey. Later that year, the USA introduced the Marshall Plan, offering over \$13 billion to help European countries rebuild after the Second World War. Both policies were part of a wider strategy called Containment, designed to stop the spread of communism. Achieving (keeping up): The Truman Doctrine and Marshall Plan increased tensions because they showed the USA was now actively involved in stopping communism. Truman promised economic and military support to countries resisting Communist influence, while the Marshall Plan encouraged European nations to rebuild with American aid rather than turn towards communism. Stalin viewed these policies as attempts to increase American influence in Europe and weaken Soviet control in Eastern Europe. Excelling (going beyond): Although America presented the Truman Doctrine and Marshall Plan as defensive policies, the Soviet Union saw them as aggressive challenges to Soviet influence in Europe. These policies widened the divide between East and West, encouraged Stalin to tighten control over Eastern Europe and contributed directly to Soviet responses such as Cominform (1947) and Comecon (1949). As a result, they helped transform growing mistrust into an active Cold War.	Correct-the-false-statement starter; analysis of Soviet control in Eastern Europe; Greek Civil War case study; Truman decision-making discussion; Truman Doctrine fact file; isolationism versus interventionism discussion; Marshall Plan investigation; source analysis on containment; narrative account on the development of the Cold War 1945-47; explain one consequence of the Truman Doctrine (4).
8	How effective a response was Cominform and Comecon? Emerging (catching up): In response to the Truman Doctrine and Marshall Plan, Stalin created Cominform in 1947 and Comecon in 1949. Cominform was used to coordinate Communist governments and ensure they followed Soviet policies. Comecon helped Soviet satellite states trade with and support each other economically. Together, they strengthened Soviet influence across Eastern Europe and reduced Western influence. Achieving (keeping up): Cominform and Comecon were designed to prevent Eastern European countries from being influenced by the West. Through Cominform, Stalin could spread Communist ideas and keep tight control over countries such as Poland, Hungary and Romania. Through Comecon, satellite states received economic support without accepting Marshall Aid. These organisations helped Stalin maintain control over his growing Soviet bloc. Excelling (going beyond): Although Cominform and Comecon strengthened Soviet control in Eastern Europe, they also increased the division between East and West. Instead of cooperating, the superpowers now developed separate political and economic systems. As a result, Europe became divided into two rival blocs, making compromise more difficult and intensifying the Cold War.	Cold War chronology recap; Cominform information study; Comecon information study; consequences analysis using key terminology; judgement on the impact of Cominform and Comecon; explain the importance of the Marshall Plan for increased tensions by 1948 (8); explain one consequence of the Marshall Plan (4).
9	What happened during the Berlin Blockade and Airlift? Emerging (catching up): After the Second World War, Germany and Berlin were divided into four occupation zones controlled by Britain, France, the USA and the USSR. On 24 June 1948, Stalin ordered the Berlin Blockade, cutting off all road, rail and canal routes into West Berlin, which lay deep inside the Soviet zone. He hoped the Western Allies would abandon the city. Instead, Britain and the USA organised the Berlin Airlift, flying food, fuel and supplies into West Berlin. The operation continued for almost a year until Stalin ended the blockade in May 1949. Achieving (keeping up): Stalin launched the blockade because he wanted to force the Western powers out of Berlin and strengthen Soviet control over the city. He was angered by the creation of Trizonia and the introduction of the Deutschmark, which he believed threatened Soviet influence in Germany. The Western Allies responded with the Airlift because they were unwilling to abandon West Berlin. Aircraft delivered thousands of tonnes of essential supplies every day, allowing the city to survive without military conflict. Excelling (going beyond): Although Stalin believed the blockade would force the West to leave Berlin, the Airlift demonstrated the determination of the USA and Britain to resist Soviet expansion. The crisis became one of the first major confrontations of the Cold War and showed that neither side was willing to back down over the future of Germany. The success of the Airlift also strengthened support for the American policy of containment and convinced many Western countries that Soviet actions posed a genuine threat.	Cold War retrieval quiz; map work on divided Germany and Berlin; investigation into Stalin's decision to blockade Berlin; analysis of the Berlin Blockade timeline; Berlin Airlift video notes; explanation of why Stalin did not shoot down Allied aircraft; judgement on who was winning during the crisis; timeline of key events from June 1948 to May 1949.

Superpower Relations and the Cold War

Autumn Term 1 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
10	What were the consequences of the Berlin Crisis? Emerging (catching up): On 12 May 1949, Stalin ended the Berlin Blockade after nearly a year. The Berlin Airlift had kept West Berlin supplied with food, fuel and other essentials, meaning the USSR had failed to force the Western Allies out of the city. In the months that followed, the Western zones of Germany became the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany), while the Soviet zone became the German Democratic Republic (East Germany). In April 1949, the USA, Britain and other Western countries also formed NATO. Achieving (keeping up): The Berlin Crisis had several important consequences. The success of the Airlift was seen as a victory for Truman's policy of containment, proving that the USA would resist Soviet pressure. The division of Germany created a clear frontier between capitalism and communism in Europe. Meanwhile, NATO united Western countries in a military alliance, meaning an attack on one member would be treated as an attack on all. Excelling (going beyond): Although the crisis ended without war, it transformed the Cold War. The failure of the blockade damaged Stalin's reputation, while the success of the Airlift increased confidence in American leadership. Most importantly, the creation of NATO and the permanent division of Germany created a flashpoint for future conflict. Only four years after the end of WWII Europe was now two groups of rival states, armies and alliances.	Consequences analysis on increased tension; study of the division of Germany into East and West; investigation into why NATO was formed; propaganda victory evaluation; ranking the most important consequences of the Berlin Crisis; explain one consequence of the Berlin Blockade (4); explain the importance of the Berlin Crisis for the development of the Cold War
11	Why did the Arms Race and Space Race intensify relations? Emerging (catching up): After 1945, the USA and USSR competed to develop more powerful weapons. The USSR successfully tested its first atomic bomb in 1949, ending America's monopoly on nuclear weapons. The USA developed the hydrogen bomb in 1952, which was around 1,000 times more powerful than the Hiroshima bomb, and the USSR followed in 1953. The rivalry spread into space when the USSR launched Sputnik, the world's first satellite, in 1957, and later sent Yuri Gagarin into space in 1961. Achieving (keeping up): The Arms Race increased tensions because both superpowers feared falling behind their rival. The development of atomic bombs, hydrogen bombs and ICBMs (Intercontinental Ballistic Missiles) meant that nuclear weapons could be launched across the world within minutes. The launch of Sputnik shocked many Americans because it suggested the USSR might be ahead in science and missile technology. As a result, both sides spent huge amounts of money developing weapons and space technology. Excelling (going beyond): Although the Arms Race increased fear and mistrust, it also changed how the superpowers behaved. By the 1960s, both countries possessed enough nuclear weapons to destroy each other many times over. This became known as Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD). Because neither side could win a nuclear war, the USA and USSR became more cautious about fighting each other directly. However, competition over missiles, nuclear weapons and space technology continued to increase Cold War tensions and brought the world closer to destruction than ever before.	Cold War knowledge gap-fill; source discussion on the Arms Race; Arms Race timeline; Sputnik significance task; MAD definition activity; Khrushchev and Eisenhower comparison; de-Stalinisation judgement activity; key words review on MAD, ICBMs and Yuri Gagarin.

Superpower Relations and the Cold War

Autumn Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
12	Why did the Hungarian Uprising break out in 1956? Emerging (catching up): After the Second World War, Hungary became a Communist satellite state controlled by the USSR. Under Matyas Rakosi, opponents were arrested by the AVH secret police, elections were manipulated and living standards remained low. In February 1956, Khrushchev criticised Stalin in his Secret Speech, encouraging demands for reform across Eastern Europe. On 23 October 1956, protests broke out in Budapest and Imre Nagy became leader, promising reforms including free elections, freedom of speech and an end to one-party rule. Achieving (keeping up): The uprising happened because many Hungarians were unhappy with Communist rule. Rakosi's government relied on censorship, fear and the AVH secret police to stay in power, while economic problems led to shortages and poor living standards. Khrushchev's policy of de-Stalinisation convinced many Hungarians that change was possible. As protests grew, Nagy introduced reforms and announced that Hungary would leave the Warsaw Pact on 1 November 1956, making the USSR fear it could lose control of Eastern Europe. Excelling (going beyond): Although the uprising was caused by problems inside Hungary, Khrushchev's reforms played an important role. His criticism of Stalin encouraged demands for greater freedom across Eastern Europe. However, Nagy's decision to leave the Warsaw Pact transformed a protest movement into an international crisis because it threatened Soviet control of the Eastern Bloc.	Photo interpretation starter; Hungary map and location activity; Rakosi fact file; causes of dissatisfaction gap-fill; analysis of Khrushchev's Secret Speech and de-Stalinisation; investigation into Imre Nagy's reforms; timeline of events from 23 October to 1 November 1956; explanation of why the Hungarian Uprising broke out.
13	What were the consequences of the Hungarian Uprising? Emerging (catching up): On 4 November 1956, Khrushchev sent around 200,000 Soviet troops and thousands of tanks into Hungary to crush the uprising. Approximately 2,500 Hungarians and 700 Soviet soldiers were killed during the fighting. Around 200,000 Hungarians fled the country. Imre Nagy was arrested, taken to Romania and later executed in 1958. A new Communist government led by János Kádár was installed and Hungary remained under Soviet control. Achieving (keeping up): Khrushchev ordered the invasion because Nagy's reforms threatened Soviet control of Eastern Europe. If Hungary had successfully left the Warsaw Pact, other satellite states such as Poland or Czechoslovakia might have tried to do the same. The USA and Britain criticised Soviet actions but did not intervene, partly because they were unwilling to risk a nuclear war and were distracted by the Suez Crisis taking place at the same time. Excelling (going beyond): Although the Hungarian Uprising failed to remove Soviet control, it exposed important weaknesses within the Communist bloc. The uprising showed that many people in Eastern Europe wanted greater freedom, while the Soviet invasion demonstrated that Khrushchev was willing to use force to keep control. As a result, the USSR maintained its influence over Hungary, but its reputation was damaged and the promise of de-Stalinisation appeared far less convincing.	Hungarian Uprising timeline; Soviet invasion case study; analysis of Khrushchev's decision-making; consequences sorting activity; investigation into the Western response; comparison with the Suez Crisis; source analysis; explain one consequence of Nagy's reforms (4); narrative account on the consequences of the Hungarian Uprising (8).
14	How did the 'Brain Drain' create a crisis in Berlin? Emerging (catching up): After the Second World War, millions of people left Eastern Europe for the West through Berlin. Between 1949 and 1961, around 3 million East Germans escaped to West Germany, many of them skilled workers such as doctors, engineers and teachers. This became known as the Brain Drain. In 1958, Khrushchev blamed West Berlin for encouraging people to leave and issued the Berlin Ultimatum, demanding that the Western powers withdraw from the city. Achieving (keeping up): The Brain Drain created a crisis because it damaged the economy of East Germany and embarrassed the Soviet Union. The loss of skilled workers made it harder for Communist countries to develop, while the fact that millions of people were choosing to live in the West made capitalism appear more attractive than communism. Khrushchev believed control of Berlin was the key to stopping the problem, leading to increased tensions between the superpowers and a series of summit meetings to try to resolve the crisis. Excelling (going beyond): Although Khrushchev presented the Berlin Crisis as a dispute about security and control, the Brain Drain revealed a deeper problem for the USSR. Millions of people were effectively rejecting Communist rule by leaving Eastern Europe for the West. The failure of the Geneva (1955), Paris (1960) and Vienna (1961) summits to solve the Berlin problem showed how difficult cooperation between the superpowers had become. By 1961, Berlin had become one of the most dangerous Cold War flashpoints.	Knowledge retrieval starter; analysis of East German refugee statistics; investigation into the causes of the Brain Drain; Berlin Ultimatum fact file; Geneva, Paris and Vienna Summits comparison table; judgement on which summit represented the lowest point in relations; interpretation analysis on whether the summits were a success or failure; explain why Berlin became a Cold War flashpoint.

Superpower Relations and the Cold War

Autumn Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
15	What was the impact of the Berlin Wall's construction? Emerging (catching up): On 13 August 1961, Khrushchev ordered the construction of the Berlin Wall. The Wall cut through streets and even buildings, separating families, friends and workplaces. Many East Germans tried to escape in the early years, but more than 50 people died in the first year. One of the most famous incidents involved 18-year-old Peter Fechter, who was shot while trying to cross the Wall and left to bleed to death in full view of crowds on both sides. [Handout -...erlin Wall PowerPoint] Achieving (keeping up): The Berlin Wall had important consequences for both the USSR and the USA. For the USSR, the Wall successfully stopped refugees leaving East Germany and ended the Brain Drain. However, it also created a serious propaganda problem because it appeared that Communism could only survive by preventing people from leaving. For the USA, the Wall made it seem weak because it had done nothing to stop its construction. However, Kennedy was able to present West Berlin as a symbol of freedom and gained support for defending the city's liberty. [Handout -...erlin Wall PowerPoint] Excelling (going beyond): Although the Berlin Wall became one of the most powerful symbols of Cold War division, it had both positive and negative consequences. It demonstrated the failure of East and West to resolve the Berlin Crisis through negotiation and became a lasting symbol of separation for the next 30 years. However, by stopping the refugee crisis and reducing the chance of clashes between East and West Berlin, it also made a direct military confrontation less likely. As Kennedy later argued, "A horrible wall is better than a horrible war."	Chronological Berlin Crisis starter; causes of the Berlin Wall completion task; analysis of Brain Drain, Vienna and the Berlin Ultimatum; Berlin Wall construction video quiz; evaluation of consequences for the USA, USSR and Berliners; Kennedy's 'Ich bin ein Berliner' speech summary; explain one consequence question (4).
16	How much of a 'fiasco' was the Bay of Pigs? Emerging (catching up): In 1959, Fidel Castro overthrew Fulgencio Batista and took control of Cuba. Castro nationalised American-owned businesses and developed closer links with the Soviet Union. In April 1961, President John F. Kennedy approved the Bay of Pigs invasion, where around 1,500 Cuban exiles, trained by the CIA, landed in Cuba and attempted to overthrow Castro. The invasion failed within three days and many of the invaders were captured. Achieving (keeping up): The Bay of Pigs failed because the plan depended on ordinary Cubans rising up against Castro, but this never happened. The invasion force was too small, Castro's government was prepared and Kennedy refused to provide full American military support. Instead of removing Castro, the invasion strengthened his position in Cuba and increased anti-American feeling on the island. Excelling (going beyond): Although the Bay of Pigs was intended to remove a Communist government close to the USA, it had the opposite effect. The failure damaged Kennedy's reputation and convinced Castro that America would try to remove him from power. As a result, Castro moved closer to Khrushchev and the Soviet Union, making Cuba a key Cold War flashpoint. This helped create the conditions that led directly to the Cuban Missile Crisis in 1962.	Cold War knowledge quiz; Cuba location and background study; Castro revolution case study; guided reading on worsening US-Cuban relations; Bay of Pigs planning and failure analysis; consequences mind map for Cuba, USA and USSR; explain the importance of the Cuban Revolution for international relations (8); source analysis on 'Coming Home to Roost'. PPT - Detente Copilot said:
17	Could events in Cuba have triggered World War 3? Emerging (catching up): In October 1962, American U-2 spy planes discovered Soviet nuclear missile sites being built in Cuba. President Kennedy responded by placing a naval blockade (quarantine) around the island to stop further missiles arriving. For thirteen days, the USA and USSR stood on the brink of nuclear war. The crisis ended when Khrushchev agreed to remove the missiles from Cuba, while Kennedy secretly agreed to remove American missiles from Turkey and promised not to invade Cuba. Achieving (keeping up): The Cuban Missile Crisis developed because both superpowers believed Cuba was vital to their security. Khrushchev wanted to protect Castro, strengthen Soviet influence in the Caribbean and respond to American Jupiter missiles in Turkey. Kennedy believed Soviet nuclear missiles only 90 miles from Florida posed a direct threat to the USA. As both leaders refused to back down, the world came closer to nuclear war than at any other point during the Cold War. Excelling (going beyond): Although the Cuban Missile Crisis was the most dangerous confrontation of the Cold War, its most important consequences came afterwards. In 1963, the USA and USSR established the Hotline, allowing direct communication between Washington and Moscow during future crises. The same year, they signed the Nuclear Test Ban Treaty, banning nuclear tests in the atmosphere, underwater and in space. These agreements encouraged greater cooperation between the superpowers and helped lay the foundations for Détente, the period of improved relations that developed during the 1970s.	Chronology starter on Cuba; analysis of Khrushchev's motives; Kennedy decision-making discussion; guided reading on the events of the crisis; consequences table; source analysis of the crisis; judgement on whether the USA or USSR emerged victorious.

Superpower Relations and the Cold War

Autumn Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
18	Was the Prague Spring a failure for the USSR? Emerging (catching up): In January 1968, Alexander Dubček became leader of Czechoslovakia and introduced reforms known as the Prague Spring. He promised "socialism with a human face" by reducing censorship, allowing greater freedom of speech and giving people more political freedom while keeping communism. Soviet leader Leonid Brezhnev feared these reforms would weaken Communist control in Eastern Europe. On 20 August 1968, around 500,000 Warsaw Pact troops entered Czechoslovakia and removed Dubček from power. Achieving (keeping up): The USSR invaded because Brezhnev feared that reforms in Czechoslovakia would encourage other Communist countries to demand similar freedoms. Although Dubček promised to remain a Communist and stay in the Warsaw Pact, the Soviet leadership worried that his reforms threatened Soviet control of Eastern Europe. In response, Brezhnev introduced the Brezhnev Doctrine, which stated that the USSR could intervene whenever communism was threatened in a satellite state. Excelling (going beyond): Although the invasion successfully restored Soviet control over Czechoslovakia, it also exposed weaknesses in the Soviet system. The need to send Warsaw Pact troops to crush reforms suggested that many people in Eastern Europe no longer fully supported Soviet-style communism. The Brezhnev Doctrine kept the Eastern Bloc together in the short term, but the damage to the USSR's reputation made it harder to claim that Communist governments ruled with popular support.	Knowledge retrieval starter; analysis of problems in Czechoslovakia; study of Dubcek and Brezhnev; reforms investigation; chronology of the Prague Spring; interpretation of the Brezhnev Doctrine; consequences sorting task; narrative account on the Prague Spring; explain one consequence of the Prague Spring (4).
19	Was Détente a 'false dawn' for relations? Emerging (catching up): By the late 1960s, both the USA and USSR wanted to improve relations after years of Cold War tensions. This period became known as Détente, meaning an easing of tensions. During the 1970s, Richard Nixon and Leonid Brezhnev met several times and signed SALT I (1972), which limited the number of nuclear missiles each side could possess. In 1975, the Helsinki Accords recognised European borders and encouraged cooperation between East and West. The same year, American and Soviet astronauts took part in the Apollo-Soyuz mission, the first joint space mission between the two superpowers. Achieving (keeping up): Détente developed because both superpowers faced serious problems. The USA wanted to reduce the cost of the Vietnam War, while the USSR was struggling with economic difficulties and poor living standards. Both sides also feared the consequences of nuclear war after crises such as Cuba. Agreements such as SALT I reduced tensions by limiting parts of the Arms Race, while the Helsinki Accords improved communication and encouraged greater cooperation between the superpowers. Excelling (going beyond): Although Détente improved relations during the 1970s, it did not remove the underlying causes of the Cold War. The USSR continued to control Eastern Europe through the Brezhnev Doctrine, while the USA criticised Soviet restrictions on human rights despite signing the Helsinki Accords. Both sides also continued to develop nuclear weapons and compete for influence around the world. This suggests Détente was successful in reducing tensions and encouraging cooperation, but it was not strong enough to prevent a return to Cold War rivalry by the end of the decade.	Détente definition task; analysis of why the USA wanted détente; analysis of why the USSR wanted détente; SALT I notes; Helsinki Accords and SALT II research; judgement on who gained most from détente; explain one consequence of détente (4). Sources You said: PPT - Afghanistan and End of DétentePPT - Reagan and Second Cold WarPPT - Gorbachev_s New Thinking Copilot said:
20	To what extent did the USSR invasion of Afghanistan spell the end of Détente? Emerging (catching up): In 1978, a Communist government took power in Afghanistan with Soviet support. In 1979, Hafizullah Amin replaced Nur Taraki and began building links with the USA. Fearing the loss of a neighbouring Communist state, the USSR invaded Afghanistan on 25 December 1979, removed Amin and installed Babrak Karmal as the new leader. Soviet troops became involved in a long and costly war against Afghan resistance fighters known as the Mujahideen, which lasted for almost ten years. Achieving (keeping up): The USSR invaded Afghanistan because it wanted to protect a Communist government on its southern border and prevent Afghanistan moving closer to the USA. However, President Jimmy Carter viewed the invasion as Soviet aggression and evidence that the USSR was expanding its influence. In response, the USA introduced the Carter Doctrine, boycotted the 1980 Moscow Olympics, and refused to ratify SALT II. These actions caused relations between the superpowers to deteriorate rapidly. Excelling (going beyond): Although Détente had already been weakened by disagreements over human rights, nuclear weapons and Soviet control of Eastern Europe, the invasion of Afghanistan marked a major turning point. The collapse of SALT II, the American boycott of the 1980 Moscow Olympics and increased support for the Mujahideen signalled the return of Cold War confrontation. This suggests Afghanistan did not single-handedly end Détente, but it was the event that finally convinced many Americans that cooperation with the USSR had failed.	Détente retrieval starter; Afghanistan map analysis; investigation into Soviet motives for intervention; chronology of events in Afghanistan; analysis of Carter's response; comparison of the Carter and Truman Doctrines; evaluation of whether détente was dead by 1980.

Superpower Relations and the Cold War

Autumn Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
21	Did Reagan re-ignite the Cold War? Emerging (catching up): In 1981, Ronald Reagan became President of the USA. He believed that Détente had allowed the USSR to become stronger and described the Soviet Union as an "Evil Empire". Reagan increased defence spending, deployed Cruise and Pershing II missiles in Europe, and announced the Strategic Defence Initiative (SDI) in 1983, a proposed space-based system designed to destroy Soviet nuclear missiles before they reached America. Achieving (keeping up): Reagan adopted a tougher approach because he believed the USSR was economically weaker than the USA and could not keep up with increased military spending. His policy of peace through strength aimed to pressure the Soviet Union into changing its behaviour by expanding American military power. The USSR viewed SDI as a major threat because it could undermine Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD) by making American nuclear weapons more effective while reducing the threat from Soviet missiles. As a result, tensions increased during the early 1980s and many historians describe this period as the Second Cold War. Excelling (going beyond): Although Reagan's policies increased tensions and contributed to a Second Cold War, they also placed enormous pressure on the Soviet economy. The USSR was already struggling with low productivity, rising military costs and the war in Afghanistan. Some historians argue that Reagan's military build-up and SDI convinced Soviet leaders that they could not compete indefinitely with the USA. This suggests Reagan did not simply re-ignite the Cold War; his policies may also have helped create the conditions that encouraged Gorbachev's reforms and improved relations later in the decade.	Afghanistan retrieval starter; Reagan biography study; analysis of Reagan's views on communism; investigation into rearmament and NUTS; SDI research task; evaluation of Soviet reactions to SDI; narrative account on declining relations, 1979-83.
22	How did Gorbachev's 'New Thinking' improve relations? Emerging (catching up): In 1985, Mikhail Gorbachev became leader of the USSR. He inherited a struggling economy, low living standards and the expensive war in Afghanistan. Gorbachev introduced reforms known as Glasnost (openness) and Perestroika (economic restructuring), which became part of his policy of 'New Thinking'. He argued that a nuclear war could never be won and met several times with Ronald Reagan, including the Geneva Summit (1985), Reykjavik Summit (1986) and Washington Summit (1987). These meetings helped improve relations between the superpowers. Achieving (keeping up): Gorbachev wanted to improve relations because he believed the Arms Race was damaging the Soviet economy and preventing improvements in living standards. Maintaining nuclear weapons, supporting Communist governments in Eastern Europe and fighting the war in Afghanistan placed huge pressure on the USSR. By reducing tensions with the USA, Gorbachev hoped to cut military spending and focus on reforming the Soviet Union. This made agreements such as the INF Treaty (1987), which removed many nuclear missiles from Europe, possible. Excelling (going beyond): Although economic problems encouraged Gorbachev to seek better relations with the West, his willingness to abandon confrontation transformed the Cold War. Unlike previous Soviet leaders, Gorbachev accepted arms reduction, withdrew Soviet troops from Afghanistan and signalled that the USSR would no longer use force to maintain control of Eastern Europe. These changes improved trust between the superpowers and helped bring the Cold War towards its conclusion. Gorbachev therefore played one of the most important roles in ending Cold War tensions during the 1980s.	Chernobyl discussion starter; investigation into Soviet economic and social problems; study of Gorbachev's background; analysis of New Thinking reforms; Reagan-Gorbachev summit comparison; evaluation of Gorbachev's impact on relations; 3-2-1 Cold War review challenge. Sources You said: PPT - Collapse of the Iron CurtainPPT - Fall of the Wall, Warsaw Pact, USSR Copilot said:
23	How did the USSR lose its grip on Eastern Europe? Emerging (catching up): By the late 1980s, many people in Eastern Europe were unhappy with Communist governments, poor living standards and a lack of political freedom. Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev introduced Glasnost and Perestroika and abandoned the Brezhnev Doctrine, meaning the USSR would no longer use force to keep Communist governments in power. In 1989, Communist governments began to collapse across Eastern Europe. Poland held partly free elections, Hungary opened its border with Austria and protests spread across countries such as East Germany and Czechoslovakia. Achieving (keeping up): The collapse of Soviet control happened because Eastern Europeans no longer feared Soviet military intervention. Unlike Hungary in 1956 and Czechoslovakia in 1968, Gorbachev refused to send in Soviet troops when protests broke out. This allowed opposition groups such as Solidarity in Poland to challenge Communist governments successfully. Once reforms began in one country, demands for democracy quickly spread across Eastern Europe. Excelling (going beyond): Although economic problems, food shortages and poor living standards weakened Communist governments, Gorbachev's decision not to intervene was the key turning point. Previous Soviet leaders had used military force to maintain control, but Gorbachev allowed Eastern European countries to choose their own futures. As a result, Communist governments collapsed with surprising speed during 1989, ending decades of Soviet dominance in Eastern Europe and paving the way for the fall of the Berlin Wall.	Cold War leader matching activity; analysis of living standards in Eastern Europe; evaluation of Communist leadership; recap of Glasnost, Perestroika and the end of the Brezhnev Doctrine; chronology of the 1988-90 revolutions; narrative timeline activity; judgement on the best and worst revolutionary outcomes; narrative account on the collapse of communism in Eastern Europe.

Superpower Relations and the Cold War

Autumn Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
24	How did the 'dominos fall' and bring an end to the Cold War? Emerging (catching up): In 1989, Communist governments collapsed across Eastern Europe. On 9 November 1989, the Berlin Wall was opened and crowds gathered to celebrate. In 1990, Germany was reunified, and in 1991 the Warsaw Pact was dissolved. At the same time, republics within the Soviet Union, including Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia, demanded independence. On 25 December 1991, Mikhail Gorbachev resigned and the USSR formally dissolved, bringing the Cold War to an end. Achieving (keeping up): The fall of the Berlin Wall became a symbol of the collapse of Soviet control in Eastern Europe. As Communist governments fell, the Warsaw Pact lost its purpose and was dissolved. Nationalist movements within the USSR then challenged Soviet authority, while economic problems made it increasingly difficult for the Soviet government to survive. These pressures combined to bring an end to Soviet power. Excelling (going beyond): Although several factors contributed to the end of the Cold War, Gorbachev's reforms were the most important. By introducing Glasnost and Perestroika, reducing tensions with the USA and refusing to use force in Eastern Europe, he weakened the Soviet system that previous leaders had maintained through control and military intervention. However, these reforms also encouraged demands for greater freedom and independence, accelerating the collapse of both Soviet control in Eastern Europe and the USSR itself. As a result, the Cold War ended not through military defeat, but through the collapse of the Soviet system from within.	Gorbachev and Reagan retrieval starter; Berlin Wall case study; video analysis of the Wall's fall; completion of Cold War collapse worksheet; investigation into the collapse of the Warsaw Pact and USSR; ranking the causes of the Cold War's end; source analysis of 1991 political cartoons; judgement on why the Cold War ended.

How is your attainment measured in Year 10 in Spring term?

Spring: HT1

Crime, punishment and law enforcement c1000–1500	Anglo-Saxon and Norman England, the later medieval period and the role of the Church.
Similarity and difference (Q3)	4 marks. Students explain one similarity or difference across at least a century.

Spring: HT12

Crime, punishment and law enforcement c1500–1700	Early modern England: heresy, treason, vagrancy, witchcraft, early prisons and town constables.
The process of change (Q4)	12 marks. Students explain why change was rapid or slow across a long period.

Crime and Punishment, c1000–present

Spring Term 1 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
1	Introduction — crime, punishment and law enforcement Emerging (catching up): This course covers crime and punishment from 1000 AD to the present day. A crime is an activity or action that is against the law. A punishment is a penalty given to someone for breaking a rule or law. Law enforcement means the people and organisations who make sure laws are followed and criminals are punished. The course studies all three across different time periods, comparing how they change and how they stay the same. Achieving (keeping up): The three are connected, because what counts as a crime shapes which punishments are used and who is needed to enforce them. Some crimes today did not exist in the past at all, such as cybercrime, while others such as racial discrimination were not treated as crimes until recently. Punishments have changed just as much, from mutilation and public hanging to prison, fines, community service and electronic tagging. Excelling (going beyond): Although crime, punishment and law enforcement all change over time, they do not change at the same speed or for the same reasons. Murder and theft have been crimes across the whole period, while witchcraft appeared as a crime and then disappeared again. This means the important skill is not describing what changed, but explaining why — through attitudes in society, the power of government, religion, and science and technology.	Do Now on two historical punishments and why they changed; definitions of crime, punishment and law enforcement with modern examples; colour-coded sorting grid; discussion of crimes that did not exist a generation ago; introduction to the three Paper 1 question types (4, 12 and 16 marks).
2	How did the Anglo-Saxons define crime? Emerging (catching up): Anglo-Saxon crime was categorised by who or what was harmed, in three types. Crimes against the person included assault (causing injury without killing) and murder. Crimes against property included theft of goods or livestock, crop damage, and land disputes. Crimes against authority included betrayal of your lord or king, and treason. Society was ruled by a king responsible for protecting the land and enforcing laws, below him earls and thegns who controlled large areas of land, and below them the peasants who farmed and lived in small villages. The Anglo-Saxons were originally pagans who believed in gods such as Woden and Thor, but Christianity spread and the Church became an important part of law and justice. Towns were rare, with London, York and Winchester among the few larger settlements. Achieving (keeping up): The severity of a crime often depended on the status of the victim, with higher-ranking individuals receiving greater protection under the law. Crimes against authority were considered the most serious because they threatened the stability of society and the king's power. England itself had also changed: the separate kingdoms of 600 AD had become a far more unified country by 1000, which meant there was now a single royal authority that could be offended against. Excelling (going beyond): Although those three categories of crime still exist today, what filled them was very different. Anglo-Saxon law protected social order and royal authority above individual rights, which is why the same act could be punished very differently depending on the rank of the victim. This shows that definitions of crime reflect the values and structure of the society that creates them, rather than fixed ideas about right and wrong.	Do Now sorting picture crimes as against the person, property or authority; note-taking on the three categories; map work comparing England in 600, 1000 and 1016; study of Anglo-Saxon hierarchy, religion and daily life; gap-fill with word bank; Verbal Football revision game.
3	What was the purpose of Medieval punishments? Emerging (catching up): Medieval punishments were designed to provide retribution and deterrence. In Anglo-Saxon England (c1000-1066), punishment focused on restoring harmony through Wergild, or "blood money". Compensation depended on social status: killing a thegn required a payment of 1,200 shillings, while a peasant's life was worth around 200 shillings. Corporal punishments, such as cutting off a hand for theft, were also used, while execution was usually reserved for serious or repeat offences. After the Norman Conquest (1066), punishment became harsher and more public. Wergild was replaced by fines paid to the king, mutilation punishments such as blinding and castration became more common, and those who broke the Forest Laws could face severe maiming. The Harrying of the North (1069-70) demonstrated the Norman emphasis on deterrence and authority, as William I devastated large areas of northern England to punish rebellion and discourage further resistance. Achieving (keeping up): The purpose of punishment changed as England became more centralised under Norman rule. In Anglo-Saxon England, punishments such as Wergild focused mainly on retribution by compensating victims and their families for the harm caused. After 1066, Norman kings placed greater emphasis on deterrence and demonstrating royal authority. Punishments became more severe and visible so that people would fear the consequences of breaking the law. Measures such as the Murdrum Fine, harsh Forest Law punishments and the Harrying of the North all showed that punishment was increasingly used not just to punish offenders, but to strengthen the king's control over the kingdom. Excelling (going beyond): Although medieval punishments became much harsher after 1066, the overall purpose remained maintaining order in society. Anglo-Saxon rulers believed this was best achieved through compensation and restoring harmony, whereas Norman rulers relied more on fear and public displays of power. This suggests that punishment changed	Do Now on punishment images and their purpose; key terms including Wergild, retribution, deterrence and the pillory; class reading on Anglo-Saxon, Norman and later medieval punishment; six-station carousel recording the crime, the punishment and whether it was retribution or deterrent; exam practice comparing the purpose of punishment in Anglo-Saxon and Norman England (4).

Crime and Punishment, c1000–present

Spring Term 1 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
4	How did Anglo-Saxon, Norman and Later Medieval law enforcement work? Emerging (catching up): In Anglo-Saxon England, law enforcement relied on local communities rather than professional officials. Men belonged to a tithing, where each person was responsible for the behaviour of the others, and crimes were pursued through the Hue and Cry. After 1066, the Normans kept these community methods but added new ways to enforce royal authority. Sheriffs, foresters and castles gave the king a greater presence across the country, while laws such as the Murdrum Fine reinforced Norman control over the population. Achieving (keeping up): The Anglo-Saxon system was entirely community-based with no professional officials at all. It worked because villages were small and everyone knew everyone, making collective responsibility possible. The Normans kept these local systems but added royal control on top. Castles, foresters and sheriffs gave the Crown a physical presence across England, while measures such as the Murdrum Fine increased pressure on local communities to enforce the law. As a result, authority shifted from local communities towards the king and his officials. Excelling (going beyond): Although the Norman Conquest introduced castles, sheriffs and new laws, law enforcement remained heavily dependent on local communities. The biggest change after 1066 was therefore not the methods used to catch criminals, but the growth of royal control over them. This suggests that Norman law enforcement was designed to strengthen the king's authority while still relying on ordinary people to do most of the policing.	Do Now matching tithing, hue and cry, trial by ordeal and wergild to their descriptions; table completion across five key features; five information cards sorted as community, Church or government enforcement; trial by ordeal video; Anglo-Saxon versus Norman comparison table; timed exam practice comparing law enforcement in the two periods (4).
5	How did the Norman Conquest change definitions of crime? Emerging (catching up): After 1066, William I introduced new laws to strengthen Norman control over England. The Forest Laws made activities such as hunting in royal forests illegal for ordinary people. The Murdrum Law meant that if a Norman was murdered, the local Saxon community had to pay a heavy fine unless the killer was caught. Crimes against authority were expanded to include rebellion against Norman rule. William also used harsh measures such as the Harrying of the North (1069-70), which destroyed farms and villages and caused widespread famine. Achieving (keeping up): These changes were about control rather than justice. Before 1066 the Anglo-Saxons had used forests freely for food and firewood, so making that poaching turned an old right into a new crime. Anglo-Saxon justice had focused on compensating the victim through Wergild, paid to the dead person's family; Norman justice replaced this with the Murdrum fine paid to the king, and punished whole communities rather than individuals. Because the Normans were vastly outnumbered — roughly 300 Anglo-Saxons to every Norman — the law had to deter rebellion rather than simply punish the guilty. Excelling (going beyond): Although the Normans introduced few entirely new categories of crime, they changed who the law protected and who it punished. The Forest Laws and the Murdrum Law both protected Norman rulers at the expense of the Saxon population, and both were widely resented — many villagers carried on hunting in secret because they saw the law as unfair and made only for the rich. This shows that a change of ruler can redefine crime without society itself changing, and that laws imposed by conquerors are obeyed out of fear rather than accepted as just.	Do Now defining the three categories of crime; 'Why was William I seen as a brutal king?' source analysis; the problems William faced in 1066; class reading with vocabulary work; Anglo-Saxon versus Norman law comparison table; judgement on which new law helped control the population most; perspectives task on William, a Saxon peasant and a Norman lord.
6	How did crimes change in later medieval England (1200–1500)? Emerging (catching up): After the Black Death (1347-51) killed nearly half of England's population, workers demanded higher wages, so Edward III passed the Statute of Labourers (1351) to restrict wages and movement. During the Hundred Years' War (1337-1453), concerns about loyalty led to the Treason Act (1352), which expanded definitions of treason. From 1382, the Lollards, led by John Wycliffe, criticised the Church and argued that the Bible should be read in English. In 1401, a new law made heresy a criminal offence. Achieving (keeping up): All three laws were created to protect those already in power. The Statute of Labourers protected landowners by keeping peasants cheap and tied to their village. The Treason Act protected Edward III from nobles who might betray him during the war. The heresy law protected both Church and monarchy, who feared that Lollard ideas spreading among the lower classes would weaken their authority and encourage rebellion. In each case a social, economic or religious change threatened the existing hierarchy, and the response was to make that threat a crime. Excelling (going beyond): Although these laws were presented as protecting order, they show authority defining crime to defend its own position. Asking for higher wages, criticising royal policy and reading the Bible in English were not violent acts, but each one challenged the power of landowners, king or Church. This shows that in the later medieval period the definition of crime widened from actions that harmed people to ideas and demands that threatened control.	Do Now quiz on Anglo-Saxon and Norman crime; identifying the three new areas of crime and the theme linking them; class reading with vocabulary work; table describing each new law and why it was introduced; 'Are they in danger?' verdict activity on a peasant, a noble and a Lollard; modelled answer on changing definitions of crime, 1200–1500 (12).

Crime and Punishment, c1000–present

Spring Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
7	How did law enforcement change in later medieval England? Emerging (catching up): As England's population grew and towns became larger, law enforcement became more organised. New officials were introduced to help maintain order and support the king's justice. Coroners (1194-present) investigated suspicious deaths and recorded evidence. Parish constables (1250-1829) organised the Hue and Cry, arrested suspects and brought them before local courts. Justices of the Peace (1361-1900) were local landowners appointed by the monarch to keep order and hold Quarter Sessions. By the end of the medieval period, night watchmen were patrolling towns after dark, looking for suspicious activity, vagabonds and drunkards. Achieving (keeping up): These developments were driven by several changes. England's population increased, towns became larger and crimes became more difficult to investigate. Kings also wanted greater control over justice, leading to the appointment of royal officials such as coroners and Justices of the Peace. However, these changes did not replace community law enforcement. Ordinary people were still expected to report crimes, raise the Hue and Cry and act as witnesses because there was still no professional police force. Excelling (going beyond): Although later medieval law enforcement became more organised, it remained heavily dependent on local communities. The most important change was not the creation of new methods, but the growth of royal control through officials such as coroners and Justices of the Peace. This suggests that law enforcement became more structured between 1200 and 1500, while still relying on ordinary people to do most of the policing.	Do Now true or false on medieval law enforcement; mind map linking four causes of social change 1100–1500 to their consequences; role comparison table on coroners, parish constables, Justices of the Peace and night watchmen with effectiveness ratings; change or continuity sorting task; PEEAL exam practice on why law enforcement changed (12); 'Who Am I?' plenary.
8	What was the importance of the Church in law enforcement? Emerging (catching up): In medieval England, religion was part of everyday life and the Church was one of the most powerful institutions in the country. Most people believed that God judged all human actions and that the Church was responsible for guiding people to heaven. As a result, the Church played an important role in law enforcement. It ran its own Church courts, which dealt with moral crimes such as adultery, drunkenness, gambling and failing to attend church. People could seek protection through sanctuary, while those able to recite Psalm 51 could claim benefit of clergy and be tried by the Church instead of the king's courts. The Church's importance was demonstrated in 1170, when the murder of Thomas Becket led to Henry II performing public penance rather than challenging Church authority. Achieving (keeping up): The Church had a powerful influence over law enforcement because medieval people believed religion was central to everyday life. Church courts dealt with moral offences, while sanctuary and benefit of clergy allowed some people to avoid royal justice altogether. Church punishments focused on penance and saving the soul rather than harsh physical punishment. The Becket case also showed that even kings struggled to challenge Church authority, highlighting its importance in medieval society. And the Excelling: Excelling (going beyond): Although the king was responsible for enforcing the law, the Church often had greater influence over how justice was carried out. Through Church courts, sanctuary and benefit of clergy, people could avoid the normal legal system altogether. The Church was also powerful enough to force changes in law enforcement, such as ending trial by ordeal in 1215 when the Pope banned clergy from taking part. This suggests that the Church did not simply support medieval law enforcement; it helped shape and control it.	Do Now sorting offences into moral crimes and others, identifying which court would judge them; recall on the benefit of clergy; aims of Church punishment; Thomas Becket case study (1170) with video; study of benefit of clergy and sanctuary; group task advertising trial by ordeal, sanctuary or benefit of clergy; exam practice on the role of the Church in law enforcement (12).

Crime and Punishment, c1000–present

Spring Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
9	How did public punishments reinforce community control? Emerging (catching up): In medieval England, punishment was rarely private and was usually carried out in village squares, marketplaces and town centres. The stocks were wooden frames that locked an offender's ankles, while the pillory secured the head and hands so they could be publicly mocked. Bystanders often threw rotten food, mud or excrement at those being punished. The ducking stool repeatedly submerged offenders in water and was mainly used for scolds (women accused of gossiping or arguing publicly), as well as dishonest brewers and bakers. Shame parades forced offenders to walk through the town carrying stolen goods or signs describing their crimes. Other punishments included the scold's bridle, a metal cage placed over a woman's head to silence her, the drunkard's cloak, a barrel worn by drunk offenders, and metal masks of shame. Achieving (keeping up): Public punishments reinforced community control because medieval society relied heavily on reputation and conformity. In small villages, most people knew one another, so being publicly identified as a criminal could damage a person's standing, business and relationships. Public humiliation therefore acted as a powerful deterrent, encouraging people to follow accepted standards of behaviour. These punishments also involved the wider community, turning punishment into a shared experience that reinforced what was considered acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. As a result, public punishment helped communities police themselves while maintaining order. Excelling (going beyond): Although public punishments were intended to deter crime, their greatest strength was that they encouraged ordinary people to help enforce social norms. Punishments such as the stocks, pillory and shame parades relied on crowds gathering, mocking offenders and publicly condemning their behaviour. This meant that punishment was not imposed solely by officials but reinforced by the community itself. As a result, people were discouraged not only by the fear of punishment but also by the fear of losing their reputation and place within society. This suggests that public punishment was one of the most effective forms of social control in medieval England because it turned the entire community into an active part of the justice system.	Do Now identifying each punishment and why it took place in the town square; key terms covering the pillory, stocks, ducking stool and public humiliation; the five reasons for public punishment; study of shame parades and shaming devices; four medieval court scenarios deciding the likely punishment; PEEL exam practice on why public humiliation remained important, 1000–1500 (4).
10	Why did changes in Tudor society increase crime? Emerging (catching up): During the Tudor period, population growth, religious change and economic change created new pressures on society. England's population grew from around 2.5 million in 1500 to between 5 and 6 million by 1650, while London's population rose rapidly. As more people struggled to find work, increasing numbers became vagabonds (unemployed and homeless people). At the same time, the dissolution of the monasteries removed an important source of support for the poor, sick and elderly. Landowners also began enclosure, fencing off common land that ordinary people had previously used, which left many families without access to land and increased crimes such as theft and trespassing. Achieving (keeping up): These changes increased crime because they made life more difficult for many ordinary people. Population growth created competition for jobs and pushed more people into towns and cities, where it was easier to avoid detection than in small villages. The dissolution of the monasteries removed an important source of help for the poor, while enclosure took away land that many families had relied on for food and survival. As a result, poverty, vagabondage, theft and trespassing became increasingly common. Excelling (going beyond): Although these are often presented as causes of rising crime, many of them were decisions made by the powerful that pushed ordinary people into hardship. Enclosure and the dissolution of the monasteries removed both land and support at the same time that the population was growing rapidly. Vagabonds were then treated as criminals for being unemployed and homeless. This suggests that rising crime in Tudor England was caused as much by social and economic change as by criminal behaviour itself.	Do Now on how moving to the city increased crime; key term vagabond and why vagrancy was treated as a crime; 'Who were vagabonds?' study; Source A analysis of the monasteries; enclosure and common land key terms; Reformation questions on 1534; modelled PEE paragraphs on why crime increased in Tudor England (12); exam practice comparing Tudor and Norman crime (4).

Crime and Punishment, c1000–present

Spring Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
11	How did witchcraft become a crime? Emerging (catching up): People believed witches had supernatural powers, made pacts with the Devil and caused harm through magic. Henry VIII introduced England's first Witchcraft Act in 1542, making witchcraft a felony punishable by death. Elizabeth I passed new laws in 1563 focused specifically on using witchcraft to harm others. James I, who had written <i>Daemonologie</i> before taking the English throne, strengthened the law in 1604, making even minor acts of witchcraft capital offences. Matthew Hopkins appointed himself "Witchfinder General" during the Civil War and conducted a campaign across East Anglia, executing hundreds between 1644 and 1647. Parliament effectively decriminalised witchcraft in 1736, replacing it with penalties for fraudulent fortune-telling. Achieving (keeping up): Witchcraft became a crime because fear of witchcraft increased during a period of religious change, uncertainty and superstition. Many people believed witches caused failed crops, disease, bad weather and sudden deaths. At the same time, monarchs such as Henry VIII, Elizabeth I and James I passed laws encouraging prosecutions, while accusations often targeted unpopular neighbours, widows and social outcasts. Together, these factors created an atmosphere in which ordinary suspicions could become criminal accusations. Excelling (going beyond): Although religious change, fear and social tensions all played a role, witchcraft only became a crime when the government chose to treat it as one. The beliefs behind witchcraft accusations existed long before the Witchcraft Acts of 1542, 1563 and 1604, and continued after them. However, prosecutions increased when monarchs supported anti-witchcraft laws and declined when attitudes became more sceptical. This suggests that witchcraft became a crime not because people's behaviour changed, but because governments and society changed the way they viewed it.	
12	Why were challenges to authority punished so harshly? Emerging (catching up): In medieval and early modern England, crimes that challenged the authority of the monarch or Church were seen as especially dangerous because they threatened the stability of the country. People accused of heresy faced burning at the stake, a punishment first used against the Lollards from 1382 and later used by Mary I, who burned around 300 Protestants between 1553 and 1558. Those guilty of treason, faced the even harsher punishment of hanging, drawing and quartering, introduced under the Treason Act (1352). Under Elizabeth I, even recusancy (refusing to attend Church of England services) became a crime, showing how seriously challenges to authority were treated. Achieving (keeping up): Challenges to authority were punished harshly because rulers believed they threatened the stability of the entire country. Treason, heresy and recusancy were not seen as ordinary crimes because they challenged the authority of the monarch, government or Church. Harsh public punishments acted as a deterrent, demonstrating the consequences of disobedience and discouraging others from following the same path. The punishment of the Gunpowder Plotters after 1605 shows this clearly, as their executions were designed to warn the public about the consequences of challenging royal authority. In a period when religion and government were closely connected, maintaining obedience was seen as essential to maintaining order. Excelling (going beyond): Although these punishments were presented as protecting England from dangerous traitors and heretics, many of those punished had challenged authority through their beliefs rather than acts of violence. This suggests that the greatest threat to medieval and early modern rulers was not violence itself, but any challenge to their authority. Harsh punishments were therefore designed as much to enforce loyalty and conformity as to punish crime, discouraging people from questioning the political and religious order on which their power depended.	Do Now on the crimes and punishments shown in images; key terms including treason, heresy, recusancy and the rack; study of hanging, drawing and quartering and burning at the stake; Gunpowder Plot video with five questions; Courtroom Carousel in groups of four across four rounds from 1410 to 1606; exam practice on religious change and harsh punishment, 1400–1700 (12).

Crime and Punishment, c1000–present

Spring Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
13	What were early prisons like between the 16th and 19th century? Emerging (catching up): Early prisons were not intended to be punishments in themselves. Most prisoners were held while waiting for trial or for another punishment to be carried out. However, rising poverty and vagrancy after the dissolution of the monasteries led to the creation of Houses of Correction, which aimed to reform offenders through hard work. The first, Bridewell Prison, opened in 1556 in London and held mainly vagrants and petty criminals. Prisoners carried out repetitive tasks such as picking oakum and conditions were deliberately harsh. Prisoners had to buy their own food, water and candles, jailers often demanded garnish for better treatment, and diseases such as jail fever spread easily. Achieving (keeping up): Early prisons reflected changing attitudes towards poverty, crime and punishment. Houses of Correction were designed to control the "idle poor" and encourage reform through forced labour. However, prisons remained overcrowded, unhealthy and poorly managed. Reformers such as John Howard, whose <i>State of the Prisons in England and Wales</i> (1777) exposed shocking conditions, and Elizabeth Fry, who campaigned for improvements after visiting Newgate Prison in 1813, argued that prisons were making offenders worse rather than better. Excelling (going beyond): Although Howard and Fry are often remembered for exposing cruelty, their most important contribution was changing attitudes towards the purpose of prison. Howard argued that mixing petty offenders with hardened criminals encouraged further crime, while Fry believed offenders could be reformed if given discipline, education and support. This suggests that prisons only began to improve when people started asking what prison was for, moving the focus from simply holding offenders to reforming them and reducing future crime.	Do Now quiz on medieval punishment plus true or false on transportation; analysis of Fleet Prison and Hogarth's 'The Prison Scene'; key words including Bridewell, House of Correction and the idle poor; mind map on prisons 1500–1800; Source A on John Howard (1777) and Source B on Elizabeth Fry (1813); PEEL exam practice on why reformers campaigned (4).

How is your attainment measured in Year 10 in Summer term?

Summer: HT1

Crime, punishment and law enforcement c1700–1900

Industrial England: smuggling, poaching, the Bloody Code, transportation, prison reform and the Metropolitan Police.

Judgement question (Q5 or Q6)

16 marks plus 4 for SPaG. Students reach a judgement on change, causation, significance or consequence.

Summer: HT2

Crime, punishment and law enforcement c1900–present

Twentieth-century crime, the abolition of the death penalty, changes to prisons and alternative punishments.

Assessment Point 2

A full Paper 1 Section B under timed conditions covering the whole thematic study.

Assessment Point 2

What is assessed?	% of course	Why?
Crime and punishment in Britain, c1000–present — Paper 1, Section B (thematic study).	20% of the GCSE	Section B is 36 of the 52 marks on Paper 1. Questions cover similarity or difference across time (Q3), the process of change (Q4) and a judgement spanning at least a century (Q5/6, which also carries 4 SPaG marks).

Crime and Punishment, c1000–present

Summer Term 1 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
14	Why did thief-takers develop between 1500 and 1800? Emerging (catching up): As towns and cities grew between 1500 and 1800, traditional methods of law enforcement became less effective. In large places such as London, people were less likely to know their neighbours, making it harder to identify criminals. As a result, thief-takers emerged from around 1700. They were private individuals paid to catch criminals or recover stolen goods, with rewards often offered for solving crimes such as highway robbery. The most famous was Jonathan Wild, who called himself the "Thief-Taker General" before being convicted and hanged in 1725. Achieving (keeping up): Thief-takers developed because there was no professional police force and existing methods such as the Hue and Cry and parish constables were struggling to cope with growing towns. Rewards encouraged people to track down criminals and recover stolen property, making thief-takers useful in some cases. However, because they were paid by results, corruption was common. Some thief-takers worked with criminals, accepted bribes or even organised crimes themselves in order to claim rewards. Excelling (going beyond): Although thief-takers helped catch some criminals, their greatest significance was exposing the weaknesses of law enforcement. Their success depended on rewards rather than public service, making corruption difficult to prevent. The career of Jonathan Wild showed that a system run by private individuals could be abused for personal profit. This suggests that thief-takers were only a temporary solution and highlighted the need for a more professional and reliable system of law enforcement.	Do Now true or false on parish constables, JPs, night watchmen and Quarter Sessions; keyword definition of the thief-taker; why wealthy Londoners hired them; study of why thief-takers emerged with sentence stems; Jonathan Wild video and trial questions; comprehension with quick-fire recall; change or continuity sorting; PEEAL exam practice on law enforcement 1500–1800 (4).
15	How did law enforcement change in the period 1500–1800? Bow Street Runners Emerging (catching up): By the mid-eighteenth century, growing towns and rising crime were putting pressure on traditional methods of law enforcement. In 1748, magistrate Henry Fielding created the Bow Street Runners, based in London with the motto "quick notice and sudden pursuit". They investigated crimes, arrested suspects and gathered evidence, making them England's first professional detectives. After Henry's death, John Fielding took over in 1754 and expanded their work. The Runners also established Horse Patrols in 1763 to tackle highway robbery and published The Hue and Cry, a newsheet containing descriptions of wanted criminals. In 1785, they began receiving government funding rather than relying on rewards and fees. Achieving (keeping up): The Bow Street Runners were created because older methods of law enforcement were becoming less effective. London's growing population made criminals harder to identify, while thief-takers had developed a reputation for corruption. The Runners provided a more organised approach, investigating crimes, sharing information and increasing the likelihood that offenders would be caught. Their Horse Patrols helped reduce highway robbery, while The Hue and Cry created one of the first national systems for sharing information about criminals. Excelling (going beyond): Although the Bow Street Runners were small and operated mainly in London, they represented an important step towards modern policing. Unlike thief-takers, they increasingly relied on government funding rather than rewards, making law enforcement less dependent on private profit. This suggests that their greatest achievement was not the number of criminals they caught, but proving that a more organised, professional and state-funded system of law enforcement could work.	Do Now true or false on thief-takers and Jonathan Wild; keyword definition of the Bow Street Runners; study of why they emerged and how they improved law enforcement; comprehension task with multiple choice and quick-fire recall; change or continuity sorting task on five statements; exam practice on why law enforcement changed, 1500–1800, using PEEAL (4).
16	How did social crimes develop between 1600 and 1900? Emerging (catching up): A social crime is a crime which many ordinary people see as acceptable to commit. Three developed during this period. Smuggling involved importing goods such as tea, wine, brandy, silk and tobacco without paying customs duties. Poaching involved hunting animals illegally, particularly after the 1671 Game Act restricted hunting rights to wealthy landowners. Highway robbery involved stealing from travellers on open roads and became particularly common during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, when large amounts of cash and valuables were carried by stagecoach. Achieving (keeping up): These crimes were tolerated because many people benefited from them or believed the laws behind them were unfair. Smuggling provided cheaper goods, while poaching allowed ordinary people to continue activities they had carried out for generations. Highwaymen were often romanticised as "gentlemen criminals" who targeted the wealthy rather than the poor. As a result, attitudes towards these crimes often depended on social class, with landowners, merchants and tax collectors demanding punishment while many ordinary people offered support or sympathy. Excelling (going beyond): Although all three were criminal offences, many people did not view them as morally wrong. What made them social crimes was the gap between the law and public opinion. Their decline therefore came not because attitudes suddenly changed, but because the conditions that supported them disappeared. This suggests that crime is influenced not only by laws, but also by whether society believes those laws are fair and worth obeying.	Do Now identifying three crimes from images; defining a social crime; card sort of nine scenarios as poaching, smuggling or highway robbery; Ravensbrook village meeting role play set in 1750; discussion of whether these crimes were justified and their modern equivalents; study of why each declined; Verbal Football revision game.

Crime and Punishment, c1000–present

Summer Term 1 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
17	What was the impact of the Industrial Revolution on crime (1750–1900)? Emerging (catching up): The Industrial Revolution ran from 1750 to 1900 and transformed the economy, society and crime. Millions moved from the countryside into growing cities such as Manchester, London and Birmingham in a process known as urbanisation. These areas were often overcrowded and poorly planned, with low wages, disease and poor housing. As a result, crimes such as theft, pickpocketing and burglary became more common. Urban crimes including fraud and organised crime increased. In 1834, the Tolpuddle Martyrs were transported to Australia after forming a friendly society to campaign for better wages. Achieving (keeping up): The Industrial Revolution changed both the amount and type of crime. Urbanisation concentrated large numbers of people into crowded towns and cities, creating new opportunities for theft and fraud. At the same time, improved roads, banks and railways contributed to the decline of older crimes such as highway robbery. Growing crime and larger populations also encouraged governments to improve law enforcement, leading to the creation of professional police forces and more organised methods of policing. Excelling (going beyond): Although many people believed the Industrial Revolution caused crime to increase, its greatest impact was changing the nature of crime. New industrial towns created opportunities for urban crimes such as pickpocketing, burglary and fraud, while older rural crimes became less common. The case of the Tolpuddle Martyrs also showed that governments were willing to criminalise activities that challenged social and economic order. This suggests that the Industrial Revolution changed definitions of crime and methods of law enforcement as much as it changed levels of crime.	Do Now with gap-fill on the Industrial Revolution; worksheet on urbanisation and crime, policing after 1829 and whether the nature of crime changed; perspectives task on a factory worker, a factory owner, a new police officer and a teenage pickpocket; Tolpuddle Martyrs courtroom script read in role; true or false review.
18	Why did the Bloody Code lead to more executions, 1700–1820? Emerging (catching up): During the eighteenth century, Parliament introduced a series of laws that became known as the Bloody Code. By the early 1800s, more than 200 crimes were punishable by death, including stealing goods worth more than five shillings. As trade, farming and industry made Britain wealthier, landowners and merchants wanted stronger protection for their property. Laws such as the Waltham Black Act (1723) increased the number of capital offences, while public executions at places such as Tyburn were used to warn others about the consequences of crime. Achieving (keeping up): The Bloody Code led to more executions because many people believed harsh punishments were necessary to protect property and maintain order. Britain had no professional police force and prisons were not widely used as a punishment, so deterrence was seen as the most effective way to prevent crime. However, many people thought the death penalty was too severe for relatively minor offences. As a result, juries sometimes practised "pious perjury" by lowering the value of stolen goods to avoid a death sentence, and many offenders were transported instead of executed. Excelling (going beyond): Although the Bloody Code dramatically increased the number of crimes punishable by death, its severity often made it difficult to enforce. Many victims, witnesses and juries were unwilling to see people executed for property crimes, while around 75% of death sentences were commuted to transportation or imprisonment. This suggests that the Bloody Code was more successful at intimidating people than actually carrying out executions, and that punishments become less effective when society sees them as too harsh or unfair.	Do Now true or false plus analysis of a public execution at Tyburn; key terms covering the Bloody Code, deterrence and the royal pardon; the five factors behind the Bloody Code; video with five questions; class reading with comprehension; perspectives task on a merchant, a judge and a labourer; exam practice on why capital crimes increased, 1500–1800 (4).
19	Why was transportation used as a punishment between 1770 and 1860? Emerging (catching up): During the eighteenth century, the Bloody Code created growing problems for the justice system. More and more crimes were punishable by death, but juries were often unwilling to convict and prisons became overcrowded. Britain had previously transported criminals to the American colonies, but this ended after the American Revolution (1776). In response, the government turned to prison hulks before beginning transportation to Australia. In 1787, the First Fleet sailed to Botany Bay carrying 736 convicts, and over the next eighty years around 160,000 men, women and children were transported to Australia. Achieving (keeping up): Transportation became popular because it appeared to solve several problems at once. It provided an alternative to execution, helped reduce overcrowding in prisons and supplied labour to Britain's expanding empire. Convicts worked as servants, labourers and skilled workers, while good behaviour could earn a Ticket of Leave, allowing early release. Many politicians believed transportation would both punish and reform offenders. Excelling (going beyond): Although transportation was intended to be a punishment, a deterrent and a way of reforming offenders, it gradually became harder to justify. Some convicts experienced harsh conditions and years of forced labour, but others went on to build successful new lives in Australia. The discovery of gold during the Australian gold rushes of the 1850s attracted large numbers of free settlers, reducing Australia's need for convict labour. At the same time, many settlers objected to the arrival of more prisoners and argued that transportation damaged the colony's reputation. This suggests that transportation ended because Australia no longer wanted convicts and the punishment increasingly appeared outdated, expensive and less effective than the new prison system.	Do Now true or false on the Bloody Code plus image analysis; Starter for Five on the Tolpuddle Martyrs; key words including prison hulks, penal colony and Ticket of Leave; mind map on why transportation began; class reading on America and Australia; ranking task on three reasons; study of the three factors behind its decline; exam practice on why transportation was used and why it declined (12).

Crime and Punishment, c1000–present

Summer Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
20	Why were the silent and separate systems introduced in the 19th century? Emerging (catching up): As prisons became the main form of punishment during the nineteenth century, new systems were introduced to reform offenders and prevent them from influencing one another. The separate system kept prisoners completely isolated, based on the belief that criminals learned bad habits from each other. Pentonville Prison, opened in 1842, was built on a radial design so that a small number of guards could supervise many prisoners. Inmates exercised wearing masks, attended chapel in separate booths and worked alone in their cells, often using a weaving loom. Later, the silent system allowed prisoners to work together but banned all communication. Prisoners spent hours turning the crank, working the treadwheel or picking oakum, often carrying out repetitive labour for no practical purpose. Achieving (keeping up): The two systems were introduced because reformers believed prisons should change behaviour rather than simply punish offenders. The separate system aimed to encourage reflection, discipline and religious reform by isolating prisoners from negative influences. However, many prisoners suffered loneliness, mental illness and breakdowns. As public attitudes hardened after 1862, support for reform declined and prisons became more focused on punishment and deterrence. The silent system reflected this shift by replacing useful prison work with hard, repetitive labour designed to make prison unpleasant. Excelling (going beyond): Although both systems were intended to improve prisons, they reflected very different ideas about the purpose of punishment. The separate system was based on the belief that offenders could be reformed, while the silent system focused more on discipline, deterrence and hard punishment. The move from one system to the other shows that nineteenth-century governments never fully agreed on whether prisons should reform criminals or simply make crime seem undesirable. This debate shaped prison policy throughout the century and continues to influence attitudes towards punishment today.	Do Now true or false on early prisons and the reformers; Starter for Five on Bridewell and jail fever; source analysis of five Pentonville images including the radial plan, the boxed chapel and the crank; worksheet on the aims and problems of the separate system; key words including treadwheel and oakum; exam practice comparing prisons in 1600 and 1868 (4).
21	How did law enforcement change in industrial England? Emerging (catching up): Rapid population growth and urbanisation put increasing pressure on traditional methods of law enforcement. In 1829, Sir Robert Peel passed the Metropolitan Police Act, creating Britain's first professional police force. The new Peelers were full-time, paid officers who patrolled London in uniform but remained unarmed. Further reforms followed, including the Municipal Corporations Act (1835), the County Police Act (1839), the creation of the Detective Branch (1842) and the CID (1878). By 1884, there were around 39,000 police officers serving in over 200 police forces across Britain. Achieving (keeping up): These changes happened because older methods of law enforcement could no longer cope with an industrial society. Systems such as the Hue and Cry, parish constables and the Watch had been designed for small communities where most people knew one another. By the nineteenth century, Britain had a rapidly growing population and large industrial cities such as London and Liverpool. At the same time, thief-takers were often corrupt, the Bow Street Runners were limited to London, and the army was unpopular after events such as the Peterloo Massacre (1819). A professional police force offered a more reliable and organised way to prevent and detect crime. Excelling (going beyond): Although the police faced strong opposition when they were first introduced, their success gradually convinced people that professional law enforcement was necessary. The Peelers were criticised as an attack on liberty and were nicknamed "raw lobsters" and "blue devils", yet crime prevention through regular patrols proved more effective than relying on unpaid volunteers or private thief-takers. This suggests that the most important change during the nineteenth century was not the creation of new policing methods, but the acceptance that maintaining law and order had become the responsibility of the state rather than local communities.	Do Now true or false on the Bow Street Runners and thief-takers; keyword definition of the Peelers; recap of the four pre-1829 methods; Source A analysis of a Punch image of the Charlies; population data task on collective responsibility; Bow Street Runners recap with video; matching reasons for change in 1829; reading on the Metropolitan Police; timeline task.

Crime and Punishment, c1000–present

Summer Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
22	Why was refusing to fight a crime in WWI and WWII? Emerging (catching up): At the start of both the First and Second World Wars, the British government needed large numbers of soldiers. During the First World War, falling recruitment and high casualties led to conscription through the Military Service Acts of 1916, requiring most men aged 18-41 to serve. By 1918, conscription had been extended to men up to 51. During the Second World War, conscription returned through the National Service Act (1939). Some people refused to fight because of their religious, moral or political beliefs. These people became known as conscientious objectors (COs). Achieving (keeping up): Refusing to fight became a crime because the government believed national survival depended on military service. During the First World War, many people saw conscientious objectors as unpatriotic and unwilling to do their duty while others risked their lives. Some COs, including Quakers, refused to kill on religious grounds, while others opposed war completely. During the Second World War, objectors still faced criticism, but the government was more willing to recognise genuine objections and allow alternative forms of service. Excelling (going beyond): Although conscientious objectors held similar beliefs in both World Wars, their treatment changed significantly. During the First World War, many COs faced military tribunals, imprisonment with hard labour and intense public hostility. During the Second World War, tribunals were retained, but many objectors were allowed to undertake alternative work in farming, medicine and other essential industries. This suggests that refusing to fight was treated less harshly in WWII because the government accepted that people could support the war effort without serving as soldiers, while also wanting to present Britain as a democracy fighting against dictatorship.	
23	Why did new crimes develop in the 20th century? Emerging (catching up): The twentieth century saw major technological and social change, leading to new types of crime. Mass car ownership increased from around 1 million vehicles in 1930 to 25 million by 2000, leading to new driving offences such as speeding, drink-driving and failing to wear a seatbelt. Changing attitudes also led to new laws, including the Race Relations Act (1968), which made racial discrimination a crime, and the Misuse of Drugs Act (1971), which created Classes A, B and C drugs. Meanwhile, the growth of computers and the internet led to cybercrime, while concerns about the IRA (1968-98) and later terrorist attacks resulted in new anti-terrorism laws such as the Prevention of Terrorism Act (1974). Achieving (keeping up): New crimes developed because society was changing rapidly. New technology created offences that had not previously been possible, such as dangerous driving and cybercrime. Changing attitudes encouraged governments to outlaw behaviour that had once been tolerated, particularly discrimination. New laws also responded to emerging threats such as drug trafficking and terrorism. However, many of these offences were adaptations of older crimes, with cybercrime resembling traditional theft and fraud, and terrorism sharing similarities with earlier crimes against authority. Excelling (going beyond): Although the twentieth century produced many new offences, most were developments of older crimes rather than completely new ideas. Theft, fraud, crimes against authority and violence continued to exist, but technology and changing social attitudes altered how they were committed and prosecuted. This suggests that changes in crime are often driven by developments in society, technology and government, rather than by entirely new forms of criminal behaviour.	Do Now identifying modern crimes and the themes linking them; class reading with vocabulary work; study of driving offences, drugs, race relations, cybercrime and terrorism; card sort of traditional against modern crimes; judgement on whether technology, attitudes or new laws caused most change; exam practice on similarity and difference (4).

Crime and Punishment, c1000–present

Summer Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

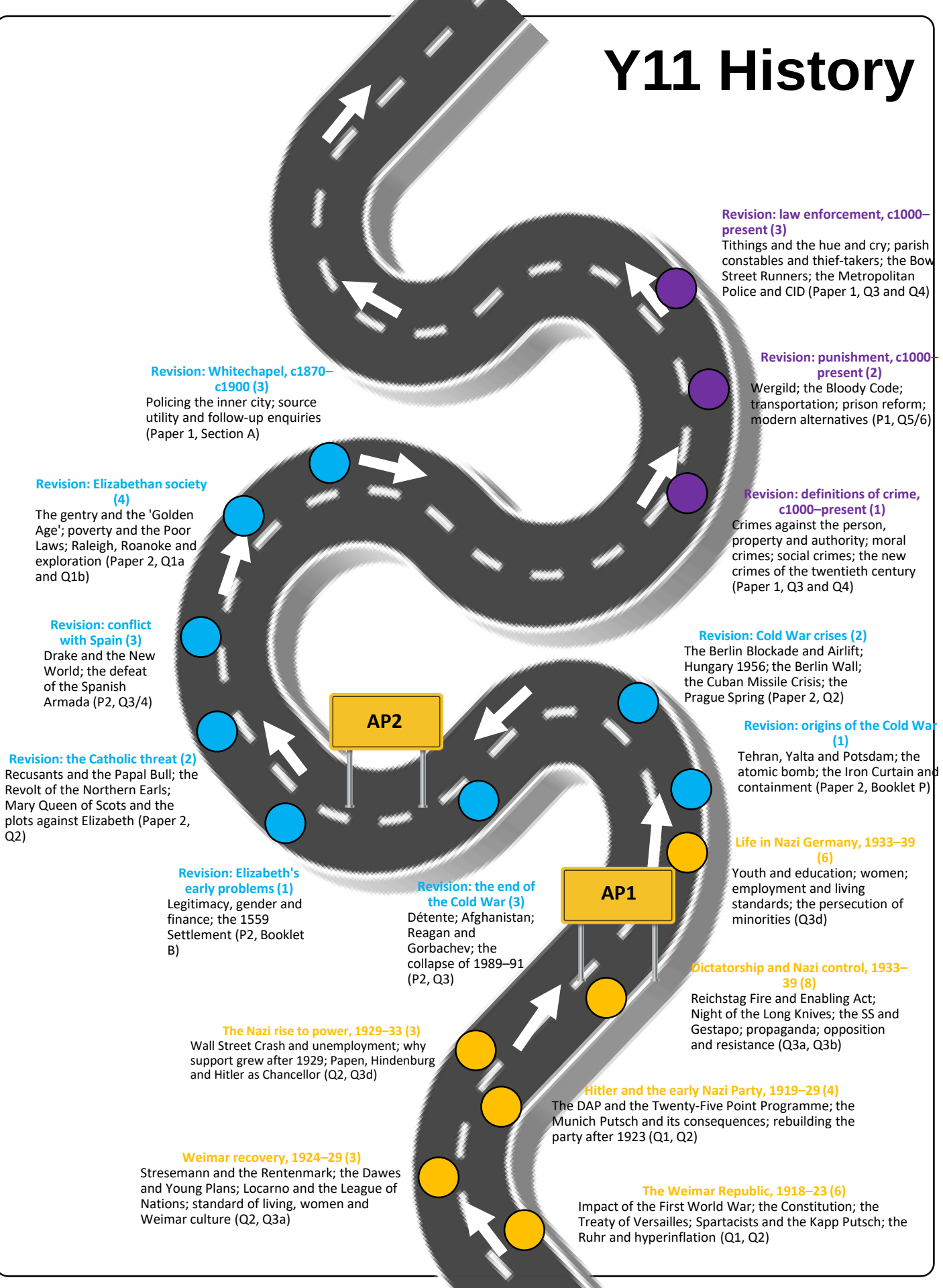
#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
24	How did punishments change in the 20th century? Emerging (catching up): During the twentieth century, attitudes towards punishment changed significantly. New forms of punishment focused increasingly on rehabilitation rather than simply deterrence. Borstals (1902-1982) were created for young offenders and combined education, training and discipline. Open prisons, introduced in 1933, allowed carefully selected prisoners to work in the community while preparing for release. Non-custodial punishments also became more common, including community service (1972), electronic tagging in the 1990s and ASBOs (1998). At the same time, support for the death penalty declined, leading to its suspension in 1965 and permanent abolition in 1969. Achieving (keeping up): These changes reflected growing concerns about the effectiveness of traditional punishments. The prison population increased steadily, prisons became expensive to run and many offenders continued to reoffend after release. As a result, governments looked for alternatives that could punish offenders while helping them rebuild their lives. Community punishments allowed offenders to keep family and work connections, while borstals and open prisons aimed to reduce reoffending through education, training and responsibility. This marked a shift from retributive justice towards rehabilitation and restorative justice. Excelling (going beyond): Although the twentieth century saw a clear move towards rehabilitation, punishment remained an important part of the justice system. Many people supported alternatives to prison because they were cheaper and often reduced reoffending, while others argued that community-based punishments were too lenient. The abolition of the death penalty and the growth of non-custodial sentences suggest that governments increasingly judged punishments by whether they worked rather than how harsh they appeared. This shows that the biggest change in the twentieth century was not the type of punishment used, but the growing belief that punishment should help prevent future crime as well as respond to it.	Do Now true or false on the separate and silent systems; study of the crisis in traditional punishment; four-station carousel on borstals, open prisons, community service and tagging, and abolition; key words including restorative justice, rehabilitation and recidivism; exam practice comparing 19th and 20th century prisons (4) and on why punishment changed from 1700 (12).
25	Why was the death penalty abolished? Emerging (catching up): By the 1830s, only murder and treason were punishable by death. During the twentieth century, the number of people who could be executed was gradually reduced. The Children's Act (1908) ended the hanging of under-16s, while the Young Person's Act (1933) ended the execution of under-18s. Concern about capital punishment continued to grow, leading to a Royal Commission on Capital Punishment in 1949. In the early 1950s, around 15 people a year were executed, but the Homicide Act (1957) restricted the death penalty to certain types of murder. Finally, the Murder (Abolition of Death Penalty) Act (1965) suspended execution for murder before making abolition permanent. By 1999, the death penalty had been removed completely from British law. Achieving (keeping up): The death penalty was gradually restricted because attitudes towards punishment were changing. Laws in 1908 and 1933 ended the execution of children and young people, while the Homicide Act (1957) limited hanging to certain types of murder. At the same time, controversial cases such as Timothy Evans, Derek Bentley and Ruth Ellis raised doubts about whether the death penalty was always fair. These changes convinced many politicians that execution was no longer an acceptable punishment in every case. Excelling (going beyond): Although individual cases helped persuade people that the death penalty was unfair, the most important argument was that it appeared ineffective. Supporters claimed that hanging deterred murder, yet after the Murder (Abolition of Death Penalty) Act (1965) murder rates did not rise significantly. This weakened one of the strongest arguments for keeping it. Combined with fears about wrongful convictions and changing attitudes towards punishment, many politicians concluded that the death penalty was no longer a just or effective response to crime.	Do Now analysing protesters outside a prison in the 1960s; key terms including the Homicide Act 1957 and the 1965 Abolition Act; study of capital punishment in the 1950s; sorting arguments for and against; timeline from the 1830s to 1999; case studies of Derek Bentley, Timothy Evans and Ruth Ellis; three scaffolded paragraphs on why capital punishment was abolished (12).

How do all KS4 History lessons start? (Ready to Learn)

All lessons at Cardinal Pole start with a 'Ready to Learn' activity. The purpose of this is to support retrieval and prepare students for the lesson with recalling relevant knowledge. This activity is printed for students and handed out at the door. Students are expected to sit at their desk immediately and complete the task before sticking it in their books while the teacher welcomes the class and takes the register.

Ready to learn activities in **History** look like this:

Y11 History



How is your attainment measured at GCSE in Autumn term?

Autumn: HT1

Weimar Germany, 1918–29	The impact of the First World War, the Weimar Constitution, Versailles, the 1923 crises and the Stresemann recovery.
Inference from a source (Q1)	4 marks. Students give two things they can infer from a single contemporary source.
Causation (Q2a or Q2b)	12 marks. Students explain why something happened, using two given points and one of their own.

Autumn: HT2

Hitler's rise and the dictatorship, 1919–34	The early Nazi Party, the Munich Putsch, the Wall Street Crash, Hitler as Chancellor and the Night of the Long Knives.
Source utility (Q3a)	8 marks. Students judge how useful two sources are for a stated enquiry, using contextual knowledge.
Assessment Point 1	A full Paper 3 under timed conditions covering the whole autumn term.

Assessment Point 1

What is assessed?	% of course	Why?
Weimar and Nazi Germany, 1918–39 — Paper 3 (modern depth study).	30% of the GCSE	Paper 3 is 52 marks in 1 hour 20. Section A tests inference from a source (Q1) and causation (Q2). Section B tests source utility (Q3a) and then how, why and how far two interpretations differ (Q3b–d, with 4 SPaG marks on Q3d).

Weimar and Nazi Germany, 1918–39

Autumn Term 1 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
1	What was the impact of the First World War on Germany? Emerging (catching up): At the end of the First World War Germany faced defeat, starvation caused by the British naval blockade, mutiny among sailors and the threat of revolution. Kaiser Wilhelm II abdicated on 9 November 1918 and fled to Holland, power passed to Friedrich Ebert of the SDP, Germany was declared a Republic, and the new government signed the armistice. Achieving (keeping up): The Kaiser abdicated because he had lost the support of the army, the politicians and the people at the same time, as Hindenburg demanded an immediate peace offer while food shortages and naval mutiny made continued rule impossible. Ebert's Council of People's Representatives and his agreement with the army kept extremists out of power, but tied the new republic to the institutions of the old regime and made its first act the deeply unpopular armistice. Excelling (going beyond): The end of the war demonstrates how the survival of a new government is shaped by complex relationships between military defeat, social hardship and political legitimacy. Although the November revolution was achieved with limited violence and moderates secured control, factors such as the association of the Republic with surrender, dependence on the army to maintain order, continuing food shortages and the strength of extremists on both left and right continue to explain why the Weimar Republic was vulnerable from its first days.	Supported inference practice (Q1) from the 1918 Kaiser cartoon and three contemporary sources; November 1918 events timeline (p.10)
2	Did the Weimar Constitution help or hinder the new government? Emerging (catching up): The Weimar Constitution created a democratic republic. All men and women over 21 could vote, Germans had freedom of speech and the right to political meetings, the President was elected by the people and chose the Chancellor, the Reichstag agreed new laws, and seats were allocated by proportional representation – one deputy for every 60,000 votes. Achieving (keeping up): Proportional representation meant a single party rarely won a majority, so Germany was governed by coalitions – nine in the four years between 1919 and 1923 – which argued, collapsed and achieved very little. Article 48 allowed the President to pass laws without the Reichstag when coalitions could not act, and the more it was used the more Germans came to believe that dictatorship was stronger than democracy. Excelling (going beyond): The Weimar Constitution demonstrates how the strength of a democratic system is shaped by complex relationships between electoral rules, executive power and public support. Although it was more democratic than Britain's system at the time and deliberately dispersed power through checks and balances, factors such as coalition instability, the emergency powers of Article 48, freedom of speech being used by extremists to attack the government, reliance on the army to keep order and the label 'November Criminals' continue to explain why its weaknesses outweighed its strengths.	Proportional representation coalition-building activity; strengths and weaknesses table; 'The Weimar Constitution had more strengths than weaknesses.' Do you agree?
3	What was the impact of the Treaty of Versailles on the Weimar Republic? Emerging (catching up): The Treaty of Versailles (June 1919) took land from Germany – the Polish Corridor, 10% of its industry, 15% of its agricultural land and its entire empire; limited the army to 100,000 men with no aeroplanes or submarines and a demilitarised Rhineland; demanded £6,600 million in reparations; and imposed the War Guilt Clause. Germans called it a Diktat, a dictated peace. Achieving (keeping up): The terms damaged Germany's economy and its national pride at the same time, since the loss of industrial and agricultural land reduced the very capacity needed to pay the reparations demanded, while the War Guilt Clause made the settlement humiliating rather than merely expensive. Because the new Republic had signed it, opposition to the Treaty became opposition to the government, reinforcing the 'stab in the back' myth and the 'November Criminals' label. Excelling (going beyond): The Treaty demonstrates how the authority of a new government is shaped by complex relationships between national humiliation, economic capacity and political blame. Although the government had no realistic alternative to signing and did not negotiate the terms, factors such as the scale of reparations, the loss of the resources needed to pay them, the shame of the War Guilt Clause and the willingness of nationalists to blame the Republic rather than the war itself continue to explain why Versailles remained a source of opposition throughout the 1920s.	Inference practice from the 1919 British cartoon; terms of the Treaty categorising task (p.18–19); paired interpretations on German reactions (Evans and Bessel)

Weimar and Nazi Germany, 1918–39

Autumn Term 1 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
4	What political opposition did the Weimar Government face? Emerging (catching up): The Spartacist Uprising (1919) was a left-wing communist revolt led by Rosa Luxemburg and Karl Liebknecht which seized the newspaper and telegraph offices in Berlin and was crushed by 4,000 Freikorps, with both leaders shot. The Kapp Putsch (1920) was a right-wing revolt led by Wolfgang Kapp and 5,000 Freikorps which took Berlin and forced the government to flee to Dresden, collapsing when a general strike cut off gas, electricity, food and coal. Achieving (keeping up): The two revolts exposed the same weakness from opposite directions, since the government could defeat the left only by relying on right-wing Freikorps, and then found the army refused to fight Kapp when the threat came from the right. Defeating the Putsch required the workers' general strike rather than the state's own forces, and the price of survival was a promise to the army that it would not be reformed. Excelling (going beyond): Early opposition demonstrates how the stability of a government is shaped by complex relationships between armed force, political loyalty and popular support. Although both uprisings were defeated within days and neither replaced the Republic, factors such as dependence on the Freikorps, the unreliability of the army against right-wing revolt, the willingness of extremists on both wings to use violence and the weakness of coalition government continue to explain why these events revealed the Republic's fragility rather than its strength.	Cornell notes on the Spartacist Uprising and Kapp Putsch (p.20–22); key features sorting task; source utility question (8) using Sources A and B
5	How did things get even worse for the government in 1923? Emerging (catching up): In 1922 Germany could not make its reparations payment. In January 1923 France and Belgium occupied the Ruhr, which held 80% of German coal, iron and steel, sending 750,000 troops. German workers responded with passive resistance and strikes, and the government printed money to pay them, causing hyperinflation: by November 1923 one US dollar was worth 4.2 trillion marks. Achieving (keeping up): The crisis was a chain reaction, as reparations led to non-payment, non-payment to occupation, occupation to passive resistance, and paying the strikers to the printing of money that destroyed the currency. It created clear winners and losers, since those with loans, mortgages and debts, and foreigners buying cheaply, gained, while pensioners, savers, workers on fixed wages and the middle classes lost everything. Excelling (going beyond): Hyperinflation demonstrates how economic crisis is shaped by complex relationships between international obligations, government decisions and social class. Although hyperinflation itself was ended within months and the government's response protected Ruhr workers in the short term, factors such as the destruction of middle-class savings, the perception that the government had ruined its own currency, the very uneven distribution of winners and losers, and the lasting bitterness towards Versailles continue to explain why 1923 damaged support for the Republic far beyond that year.	Occupation of the Ruhr hypothesis and check (p.23); character-card 'tour around Berlin' on the effects of hyperinflation; winners and losers sorting task with political effects extension
6	What was the biggest problem faced by the Weimar Government, 1919–23? Emerging (catching up): Between 1919 and 1923 the Weimar Government faced the legacy of defeat and the 'November Criminals' label, the weaknesses of its own constitution, the Treaty of Versailles, armed uprisings from both left and right, the French occupation of the Ruhr and hyperinflation. Achieving (keeping up): Historians disagree about which problem mattered most, as Richard J. Evans emphasises Versailles as a dictated peace greeted with almost universal outrage, while M. Rathbone emphasises groups on both Left and Right who refused to accept the Republic's existence and attacked it by force. Interpretations differ because historians work from different sources and place emphasis differently, not because one of them is simply wrong. Excelling (going beyond): The early problems demonstrate how historical judgement is shaped by complex relationships between evidence, emphasis and the criteria chosen. Although the same events are available to every historian, factors such as the sources each interpretation rests on, whether economic, political or psychological damage is weighted most heavily, the timescale considered and the difficulty of separating causes that reinforced one another continue to produce very different conclusions about which problem was the greatest.	'Ten for Ten' recall quiz; source utility question with SIK grid and mark scheme (8); interpretations questions – main difference (4), reason for difference (4), how far do you agree (16)

Weimar and Nazi Germany, 1918–39

Autumn Term 1 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
7	How far did the Weimar Government recover economically, 1924–29? Emerging (catching up): Gustav Stresemann, Chancellor in 1923 and then Foreign Secretary until 1929, ended hyperinflation by scrapping the old currency and introducing the Rentenmark, later the Reichsmark. He called off passive resistance in the Ruhr, agreed the Dawes Plan (1924), which reduced annual reparations and brought American loans, and the Young Plan (1929), which cut the total owed and extended the time to pay. Achieving (keeping up): The measures worked together, since ending passive resistance persuaded France to leave the Ruhr, a stable currency restored confidence in the economy, and American loans financed industry, homes, roads and hospitals. But recovery was built on borrowed money, so German prosperity depended entirely on the willingness of US banks to keep lending – a dependence Stresemann himself recognised when he said Germany was 'dancing on a volcano'. Excelling (going beyond): Economic recovery demonstrates how prosperity is shaped by complex relationships between currency stability, foreign investment and international agreement. Although output, employment and living standards all improved after 1924, factors such as reliance on short-term American loans, the continuation of reparations payments, nationalist anger that the plans accepted Versailles, the failure of farmers and small businesses ruined in 1923 to recover, and Stresemann's death in 1929 continue to explain why the recovery is so often described as superficial.	'What would you do?' decision task on five problems facing Germany; Stresemann evidence-matching and evaluation card sort; written conclusion judging how far Germany recovered
8	How far did the Weimar Government recover politically, 1924–29? Emerging (catching up): Stresemann restored Germany's international standing through the Locarno Pact (1925), which guaranteed Germany's western borders; entry to the League of Nations (1926) with a permanent seat on the Council; and the Kellogg–Briand Pact (1928). At home there were no political assassinations between 1924 and 1929, support for extremist parties fell, and there were only six coalition governments in five years. Achieving (keeping up): Diplomatic success and domestic stability reinforced one another, as acceptance abroad restored national pride and made the Republic more acceptable at home, while the improving economy reduced the appeal of extremist parties. Yet stability was conditional rather than secure, since Germany was accepted as an equal only by promising to keep the terms of Versailles, and not one of the constitutional weaknesses had been reformed. Excelling (going beyond): Political recovery demonstrates how stability is shaped by complex relationships between diplomacy, economic conditions and constitutional design. Although Germany regained international respect and extremist support declined sharply, factors such as nationalist fury that Locarno accepted the permanent loss of German land, the refusal to guarantee the eastern borders, the survival of proportional representation and Article 48, dependence on one exceptional politician and Stresemann's death in 1929 continue to explain why acceptance of the Republic was never fully secured.	Foreign relations treaties task – explain, predict nationalist objections, judge success; three facts on political stability from the textbook extract; 'dancing on a volcano' evaluation
9	How far did German society and culture recover, 1924–29? Emerging (catching up): Living standards rose as unemployment fell from 2 million (1926) to 1.3 million (1928), real wages rose 25% while hours fell from 50 to 46, over 100,000 homes were built and higher education grew from 70,000 to 110,000 students. Women could vote, held 112 Reichstag seats by 1932 and doubled their numbers in medicine, while Bauhaus architecture, Otto Dix's art and films such as Metropolis made Weimar culture internationally famous. Achieving (keeping up): Social and cultural change followed directly from economic recovery, since rising real wages and shorter hours funded the independence of the 'new woman', the cinema, the nightlife and the arts. But the same changes divided opinion, as what modernisers saw as freedom conservatives and nationalists saw as moral decline, and artists such as Otto Dix used the new culture to attack German society rather than to celebrate it. Excelling (going beyond): Social and cultural change demonstrates how recovery is shaped by complex relationships between prosperity, freedom and traditional values. Although these years brought measurable gains in wages, housing, education and women's rights alongside internationally admired art and cinema, factors such as rural areas and small businesses missing out, most women remaining in traditional roles, conservative hostility to Berlin's nightlife and the 'new woman', and the dependence of all of it on American loans continue to explain why this 'golden age' proved fragile.	Changes to society categorising task – standard of living, women, art and culture; source utility question (8) on cultural change using the Der Kreis article and an Otto Dix painting

Weimar and Nazi Germany, 1918–39

Autumn Term 1 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
10	How did Hitler take control of the Nazi Party, 1919–23? Emerging (catching up): Hitler was sent by the army to spy on the German Workers' Party (DAP) in 1919 and joined it. The party was renamed the NSDAP, adopted the Twenty-Five Point Programme (1920) and the swastika flag, and formed the SA. Membership grew from 6,000 in 1919 to 50,000 by 1923. Achieving (keeping up): Growth came from three sources working together: Hitler's own oratory – he was star speaker at 31 of 46 party meetings in 1919–20 – and his control of propaganda; the Twenty-Five Point Programme, which deliberately offered something to nationalists, socialists and antisemites at once; and the SA, which recruited ex-Freikorps, projected order through its uniforms and silenced hecklers and communists by force. Excelling (going beyond): The early growth of the NSDAP demonstrates how extremist support is shaped by complex relationships between leadership, ideology and organised violence. Although membership rose eightfold in four years, factors such as the party's confinement to Bavaria, its dependence on the personal appeal of a single speaker, the contradiction between its nationalist and socialist promises, and the fact that its appeal rested on the Republic's crises rather than its own strength continue to explain why it remained a fringe movement in 1923.	'Match the promise to the problem' – Twenty-Five Point Programme sorting task; membership growth card sort into leadership / programme / SA with ranking; source utility (8) and interpretations questions (4, 4, 16) on why the NSDAP grew
11	Why did Hitler launch the Munich Putsch (1923)? Emerging (catching up): On 8 November 1923 Hitler, Ludendorff and 600 SA burst into a Munich beer hall where the leaders of the Bavarian government, army and police were meeting, and forced them at gunpoint to back a march on Berlin. Röhm seized the Bavarian police headquarters, and at midday on 9 November around 3,000 marched into the town centre. Achieving (keeping up): The causes operated over different timescales, since long-term hatred of the 'stab in the back' and the Versailles Diktat and the weakness shown in 1919–20 made the Republic look vulnerable, while the growth of the NSDAP to 50,000 members and the sympathy of Bavaria's nationalist local government gave Hitler a base. The short-term triggers were the French occupation of the Ruhr and hyperinflation, alongside Mussolini's March on Rome in 1922, which seemed to prove the tactic could work. Excelling (going beyond): The Munich Putsch demonstrates how political violence is shaped by complex relationships between long-term grievance, organisational strength and short-term crisis. Although 1923 appeared to be the Republic's weakest moment, factors such as Hitler's assumption of support he had never secured, the Bavarian leaders' agreement being obtained at gunpoint, the loyalty of the army and police to the state, and Stresemann's measures already beginning to end hyperinflation continue to explain why the moment was far less favourable than Hitler judged.	Long-, medium- and short-term causes grid with judgement and justification; point–evidence–explanation table on the reasons the Putsch failed (p.50–51)
12	What were the consequences of the Munich Putsch? Emerging (catching up): The Putsch collapsed on 9 November 1923 when the state police opened fire, killing 16 Nazis and 4 policemen. Hitler was arrested and tried for treason, received the minimum sentence of five years and served only nine months. The NSDAP was banned until 1925, and in prison Hitler wrote Mein Kampf. Achieving (keeping up): It failed for three connected reasons: the army and police stayed loyal and the Nazis never took the army barracks; the Bavarian leaders were alienated by being held at gunpoint and released early enough to warn the authorities; and popular support never came, as paid 'supporters' fled once shooting started and the Rentenmark had already made people hopeful. Yet failure brought advantages, since the trial gave Hitler national publicity and convinced him to seek power through votes rather than violence. Excelling (going beyond): The Munich Putsch demonstrates how the significance of a political failure is shaped by complex relationships between defeat, publicity and strategy. Although the Putsch was crushed within a day, cost 16 Nazi lives and left the party banned and its leader imprisoned, factors such as the national platform the trial provided, the leniency of a sentence that exposed right-wing sympathy in the courts, the writing of Mein Kampf and Hitler's own verdict that it was 'the greatest good fortune' continue to complicate any judgement that it was a total disaster.	Chronological ordering of the events of 8–9 November; success and failure evidence sort with justified conclusion; 'Explain why the Munich Putsch failed' (12) using the point–evidence–explanation grid

Weimar and Nazi Germany, 1918–39

Autumn Term 1 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
13	How did Hitler change the Nazi Party after 1923? Emerging (catching up): Banned until 1925, the NSDAP was rebuilt around the Führerprinzip confirmed at the Bamberg Conference (1926), which weakened its socialist wing. A central headquarters, specialist sections, a national party structure and the SS were created, while Mein Kampf (1924), targeted appeals to particular groups and professional propaganda widened its reach. Achieving (keeping up): Reorganisation was designed for elections rather than revolution, since winning votes across Germany required a national structure and propaganda machine rather than the ability to seize one city. But the strategy could not be tested while the Republic was recovering, and in 1928 the Nazis won only 12 seats – in 1927 the Interior Ministry dismissed them as 'a numerically insignificant radical-revolutionary splinter group'. Excelling (going beyond): Nazi reorganisation demonstrates how political strength is shaped by complex relationships between structure, ideology and circumstance. Although the party that emerged by 1928 was far better organised, more disciplined and more clearly led than the one banned in 1923, factors such as falling electoral support during the Stresemann years, the abandonment of the policies that had attracted socialists, and the party's dependence on a crisis it could not itself create continue to explain why organisation alone could not deliver power.	Reorganisation diagram (p.55–56) and party weaknesses (p.57); linking task explaining why the party was stronger in 1929 than 1925, with importance ranking; inference and utility work on the 1927 Interior Ministry report
14	How did the Wall Street Crash affect the Weimar Republic? Emerging (catching up): The Wall Street Crash of October 1929 led US banks to recall their loans to Germany. German firms went bankrupt, unemployment reached 6.1 million, demand for German goods collapsed, and the government's response of raising taxes made people's lives harder without solving the crisis. Achieving (keeping up): The effects were economic, social and political at once, since the withdrawal of loans caused unemployment, unemployment caused poverty and child malnutrition, and poverty destroyed faith in a democracy that appeared unable to respond. Coalition government broke down into squabbling, and the votes of both the Nazis and the Communists rose sharply, with Hitler taking 37% of the vote in 1932. Excelling (going beyond): The Wall Street Crash demonstrates how the collapse of a democracy is shaped by complex relationships between economic shock, constitutional weakness and political extremism. Although the crash originated entirely outside Germany, factors such as the Republic's dependence on short-term American loans, the inability of coalitions to agree a response, the availability of Article 48 as an alternative to parliament, and the readiness of extremists on both wings to exploit the crisis continue to explain why the same shock proved far more destructive in Germany than elsewhere.	Stresemann recovery mix-and-match recap; stock market simulation and share value analysis; consequences colour-coded into economic, political and social; two supported inferences from a source (4)
15	Why did people support the Nazi Party after 1929? Emerging (catching up): Nazi support grew from 12 seats in 1928 to become the largest party by 1932. Goebbels ran a modern propaganda campaign built on posters such as 'Work and Bread', 'Our Last Hope' and 'Women!', while Hitler toured the country as a speaker and the SA provided visible discipline and street violence against the communists. Achieving (keeping up): Different messages were aimed deliberately at different groups, as the working classes were offered work and bread, the middle classes and big business protection from communism, farmers protection from collectivisation, women recognition as mothers, and the young discipline and employment. This worked through negative cohesion, since these groups were united far less by what the Nazis promised than by what they all feared. Excelling (going beyond): The growth of Nazi support demonstrates how mass movements are shaped by complex relationships between economic desperation, propaganda and fear. Although the campaigns of 1930–32 were extraordinarily effective, factors such as the dependence of that appeal on continuing crisis, the contradictions between the promises made to different groups, the wealthy backing required to fund it, and the fact that the Nazis never won a majority in a free election continue to complicate the claim that Germany simply chose Hitler.	Poster analysis table – audience and message for four Goebbels posters; 'What can you learn from Source B about why people voted for Hitler after 1929?' (4); judgement on how effective Nazi propaganda was, supported by voting figures

Weimar and Nazi Germany, 1918–39

Autumn Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
16	Why was Hitler made Chancellor in January 1933? Emerging (catching up): Despite the Nazis becoming the largest party in the Reichstag in 1932, President Hindenburg refused Hitler the chancellorship, and the Nazi vote then fell in November 1932. After Brüning, von Papen and von Schleicher each failed as Chancellor, von Papen persuaded Hindenburg to appoint Hitler Chancellor on 30 January 1933 with only two other Nazis in the cabinet. Achieving (keeping up): Hitler became Chancellor through backstairs intrigue rather than electoral victory, since Article 48 had already replaced normal parliamentary government and the conservative elite believed Hitler's mass support could be harnessed while Hitler himself was controlled. Their calculation depended on his popularity remaining useful to them and his ambition remaining containable. Excelling (going beyond): Hitler's appointment demonstrates how power is transferred through complex relationships between electoral support, constitutional design and elite miscalculation. Although Nazi votes were essential and had been built on the Depression, propaganda and Hitler's personal appeal, factors such as the falling Nazi vote in November 1932, the personal rivalry of Papen and Schleicher, Hindenburg's willingness to govern by presidential decree, and the belief of conservatives that they could tame Hitler continue to explain why he was appointed rather than elected.	'You are the Reichstag' coalition simulations for 1930 and 1932; actions grid for Hindenburg, Brüning, von Papen, von Schleicher and Hitler with judgement on responsibility; cartoon strip of Hitler's rise; causes ranking with annotated links
17	How did Hitler consolidate his power in 1933? Emerging (catching up): Hitler became Chancellor in January 1933 with only two other Nazis in a cabinet of twelve. On 27 February the Reichstag building burned down; the Dutch communist Marinus van der Lubbe was blamed and 4,000 communists were arrested overnight. Hitler used the fire to declare a state of emergency suspending civil rights, and in March 1933 the Enabling Act gave him the power to make laws without the Reichstag. Achieving (keeping up): Each step made the next one possible, since emergency powers let the police search houses, seize property and detain opponents without trial, which allowed Hitler to intimidate the March election, exclude the 81 Communist deputies and reach the two-thirds majority the Enabling Act needed with Nationalist and Centre Party support. He then used that legal power to close down local government, ban trade unions and outlaw every other political party by July 1933. Excelling (going beyond): Consolidation demonstrates how a democracy is dismantled through complex relationships between crisis, legality and intimidation. Although each step was carried out by apparently constitutional means, factors such as the use of an emergency to suspend rights permanently, the arrest of opposition deputies before a crucial vote, SA violence during the campaign and the willingness of other parties to vote away their own existence continue to explain why the process was legal in form but not in substance.	Highlighting the strengths and weaknesses of Hitler's position in January 1933; Reichstag Fire question grid; Enabling Act consequences table – local government, trade unions, political parties; two supported inferences from Source A (4); 'Explain why Hitler was able to consolidate his power' (12) paragraph scaffold
18	How did Hitler achieve total power in 1934? Emerging (catching up): By 1934 the SA had nearly 3 million members loyal to Ernst Röhm, who wanted a 'second revolution' and to merge the SA with the army. On the Night of the Long Knives (30 June 1934) Hitler ordered the SS to arrest and execute Röhm and other SA leaders, killing roughly 85–200 people including von Schleicher. When Hindenburg died in August 1934, Hitler combined the offices of Chancellor and President to become Führer. Achieving (keeping up): The purge solved several problems at once, since removing Röhm reassured the army generals whose loyalty Hitler needed, ended public alarm at SA violence, silenced criticism of Hitler's links to big business and rewarded the SS. Its timing mattered, as securing the army's support weeks before Hindenburg's death allowed the army to swear a personal oath of loyalty to Hitler himself rather than to the state. Excelling (going beyond): The Night of the Long Knives demonstrates how dictatorship is secured through complex relationships between violence, institutional loyalty and legal form. Although Hitler was by then unchallengeable and presented the purge as stopping a plot against the state, factors such as the murder of his own allies without trial, his dependence on the army's acceptance, the transfer of power from the SA to the SS and the use of Hindenburg's death to merge two offices continue to explain why his authority rested on force as much as on law.	Ranking Hitler's concerns about Röhm and the SA with justified judgement; two supported inferences on how the Night of the Long Knives increased Hitler's power (4); final paragraph of the 12-mark consolidation answer on the creation of the role of Führer

Weimar and Nazi Germany, 1918–39

Autumn Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
19	How did Himmler help Hitler keep control after 1934? Emerging (catching up): Heinrich Himmler led the SS from 1929 and by 1936 headed every German police agency. The SS ran the police and the concentration camps, the SD kept index cards on suspected opponents, and the Gestapo tapped phones, used informants and was permitted to torture. The first camp opened at Dachau in 1933. All judges swore loyalty to Hitler, trial by jury was abolished, and the People's Court sentenced 534 people to death between 1934 and 1939. Achieving (keeping up): The parts of the police state reinforced one another, since surveillance produced arrests, arrests filled the camps, and courts stripped of independence guaranteed conviction. Its power came less from its size than from uncertainty, as the Gestapo never had more than 30,000 members, so control depended on ordinary Germans denouncing neighbours and censoring themselves because they could not know who was watching. Excelling (going beyond): The Nazi police state demonstrates how control is shaped by complex relationships between surveillance, law and self-censorship. Although terror removed opponents and created a climate of fear, factors such as the small size of the Gestapo, its reliance on voluntary denunciation by ordinary citizens, the survival of Church and youth opposition and evidence of considerable genuine support for the regime continue to complicate the claim that Germans obeyed only because they were afraid.	Define, identify and explain grid on the police state; 'Explain why the Nazis were able to create a police state in the years 1933–39' (12); SSIK interpretation paragraph on Himmler and the role of fear (16)
20	How did Goebbels help Hitler keep control after 1934? Emerging (catching up): Goebbels, Minister for Popular Enlightenment and Propaganda, closed 1,600 newspapers in 1935 alone, banned 2,500 writers and burned books publicly. Cheap mass-produced radios meant 70% of homes had one by 1939, and listening to foreign stations was punishable by death. The 1937 Nuremberg Rally used 200,000 Nazis, 20,000 flags and 130 spotlights, and the 1936 Berlin Olympics showcased the regime in the largest stadium in the world. Achieving (keeping up): Censorship and propaganda were two halves of one system, since removing alternative information made the Nazi message the only one available, while rallies, film, sport, art and architecture attached that message to pride, spectacle and national achievement. The approach targeted everyday life rather than politics alone, as every film opened with a 45-minute newsreel and traditional German culture was celebrated to make Nazi ideas feel like continuity rather than change. Excelling (going beyond): Nazi propaganda demonstrates how consent is manufactured through complex relationships between censorship, spectacle and cultural control. Although the machinery reached almost every German home, factors such as the difficulty of proving that exposure changed beliefs, the continuation of private grumbling and church attendance, the appeal of policies such as full employment independent of any propaganda, and the terror that always stood behind the message continue to complicate the claim that propaganda alone kept the Nazis in power.	Propaganda and censorship sorting task; judgement on whether Himmler or Goebbels mattered more; two supported inferences on the 1936 Berlin Olympics (4); source utility question (8) on Sources B and C; interpretations questions (4, 4, 16)
21	What were Nazi policies towards youth? Emerging (catching up): Boys progressed through the Deutsches Jungvolk into the Hitler Youth, doing drilling, shooting practice and teamwork, while girls joined the League of German Maidens and were prepared for motherhood and domestic work. Both did sport based on competition, fitness and military training, plus lessons on Aryan ideals and the importance of the Führer. The 1936 Hitler Youth Law made non-membership virtually impossible and a second law in 1939 made membership compulsory. Achieving (keeping up): The groups extended Nazi control beyond the school day, since comradeship, uniforms, sport and countryside trips made indoctrination attractive while training boys as future soldiers and girls as future mothers. Membership rose from 5.4 million in 1936 to 8 million by 1939, helped by parents who valued free activities, but the appeal was conditional: A. Klonne's memoir records real enthusiasm for the comradeship alongside resentment at 'the compulsion and obedience' and activity that was 'almost entirely boring military drill'. Excelling (going beyond): Nazi youth policy demonstrates how a generation is shaped through complex relationships between ideology, opportunity and compulsion. Although membership reached 8 million and the groups delivered military and domestic training on an enormous scale, factors such as the 3 million children still outside any youth organisation in 1938, boredom with endless drill, adult unease at children being encouraged to inform on their own families, and the emergence of the Edelweiss Pirates and Swing Youth continue to explain why indoctrination was never complete.	Annotating boys' and girls' youth group activities (p.115–117); comparison of how similar the experiences of boys and girls were; two supported inferences from Source F, the Klonne memoir (4)

Weimar and Nazi Germany, 1918–39

Autumn Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
22	What was the main factor in ensuring Nazi control of Germany? Emerging (catching up): Nazi control rested on two systems: the police state built by Himmler – the SS, SD, Gestapo, concentration camps and Nazified courts – and the propaganda and censorship machine run by Goebbels, covering the press, radio, rallies, film, art and sport. Achieving (keeping up): Historians weigh these differently, as one argues Himmler and the SS were 'absolutely critical' while conceding the Gestapo was less all-powerful than often claimed and that there was considerable support for the regime, and another argues Goebbels's control of information was essential to the regime's survival. In practice the two worked together rather than separately, since propaganda made obedience feel voluntary while terror ensured that anyone it failed to convince stayed silent. Excelling (going beyond): Nazi control demonstrates how judgement about a regime is shaped by complex relationships between evidence, criteria and the definition of control adopted. Although the same policies are available to every historian, factors such as whether obedience is read as fear or as belief, the weight given to genuine popularity built on employment and national revival, the impossibility of measuring private opinion under a dictatorship, and the survival of opposition continue to produce very different conclusions about which factor mattered most.	'Starter for five' recall; propaganda and police state matching and explanation task; identifying the correct structure for a 16-mark interpretation paragraph; SSIK judge paragraph and conclusion comparing Interpretations 1 and 2 (16)
23	How successful was Church opposition to the Nazis? Emerging (catching up): In 1933 the Pope signed a Concordat with Hitler agreeing the Catholic Church would stay out of politics, and Catholic bishops swore allegiance to the regime. The Nazis then closed Catholic schools and youth groups. The Pope issued 'With Burning Anxiety' in 1937, priests such as von Galen attacked the regime in sermons, and 400 priests were imprisoned in Dachau. Protestants split between the Nazi-backed Reich Church (2,000 pastors) and Niemöller's Confessional Church (6,000 pastors), with 800 pastors sent to Dachau. Achieving (keeping up): Both Churches were compromised by the same bargain, since agreements that protected religious practice also removed the grounds for political protest, and the Nazis broke those agreements once they were secure. Opposition therefore tended to be defensive, and Ian Kershaw argues the Churches' energies went into 'opposing Nazi interference with their traditional practices' rather than into 'equally vigorous denunciation of Nazi inhumanity and barbarism'. Excelling (going beyond): Church opposition demonstrates how resistance is shaped by complex relationships between institutional survival, moral principle and state power. Although individual clergy showed real courage and well over a thousand were imprisoned, factors such as the Concordat and the oaths of loyalty, the division of the Protestant Church, the concentration on defending religious practice rather than the regime's victims, and the state's ability to imprison critics without provoking mass protest continue to explain why Church opposition limited Nazi interference without ever threatening Nazi rule.	Catholic support and challenge sorting task with judgement; Protestant opposition and support table (p.100–101) comparing the two Churches; evaluation of the Kershaw interpretation
24	How much resistance and opposition was there to the Nazi regime? Emerging (catching up): Opposition to the Nazis existed but stayed small and fragmented. Political opponents were removed early, as the Enabling Act of March 1933 was followed in the same month by the opening of Dachau. The Edelweiss Pirates, with only around 2,000 members, wrote anti-Nazi graffiti, told anti-Nazi jokes and attacked Hitler Youth members, while the Swing Youth held illegal jazz dances attended by up to 6,000 people. Achieving (keeping up): Opposition was limited because the machinery of the police state made it so, since, as C. N. Trueman argues, the law was 'adjusted' so that the Nazis could decide who counted as an opponent, a 'D notice' made arrest inevitable, and the SD was effective at rounding up opponents 'imaginary or not'. Opposition therefore took cultural and social forms – dress, music, refusing to salute – rather than organised political challenge. Excelling (going beyond): Opposition demonstrates how resistance is shaped by complex relationships between repression, propaganda and popular consent. Although opponents existed throughout the regime, factors such as the removal of parties and unions in 1933, the risk of arrest without trial, the difficulty of organising in secret, genuine support built on employment and national revival, and disagreement over whether non-conformity counts as resistance at all continue to make the true extent of opposition very hard to measure.	Source utility question (8) on Sources A and B on the limits of opposition; interpretations questions – main difference (4), reason for difference (4), how far do you agree (20); source versus interpretation definition check

Weimar and Nazi Germany, 1918–39

Autumn Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
25	How did the Nazis use education to control the young? Emerging (catching up): Teachers had to join the Nazi Party, swear an oath of loyalty to Hitler, join the Nazi Teachers' Association and attend camps on how to indoctrinate the young. From 1935 all textbooks were centrally approved. Lessons opened with 'Heil Hitler' and a salute, PE took 15% of the timetable, boys studied science, maths and military fitness while girls did needlework and homecrafts, and History, Geography, Race Studies and Eugenics taught Germany's glorious past, lebensraum, herrenvolk and untermenschen. Achieving (keeping up): Education served three aims at once – loyalty to Hitler, preparation for future roles as soldiers and mothers, and indoctrination in Nazi racial ideas – and the three reinforced one another. Separating boys from girls and embedding racial hierarchy in ordinary subjects, even in maths questions about bombing raids, made ideology feel like fact rather than politics, while teachers who might have objected had already been made members of the party. Excelling (going beyond): Nazi education demonstrates how belief is manufactured through complex relationships between curriculum, staffing and the wider culture. Although the Nazis controlled what was taught, who taught it and what every textbook said, factors such as parents and churches offering competing values, the resentment young people recorded at compulsion and drill, the survival of non-conformist groups, and the impossibility of proving that lessons changed what pupils actually believed continue to complicate the claim that a generation was successfully remade.	'Starter for five' recall; classifying education evidence into loyalty, preparation and indoctrination with a judgement on the main purpose; five-minute paragraph on youth groups; success and limitation colour-coding; source utility question (8) on Sources B and C about attitudes to the Hitler Youth
26	What was the role of women in Nazi Germany? Emerging (catching up): Nazi policy had two aims: removing women from work and raising the birth rate. The Law for the Encouragement of Marriage gave loans to couples where the wife gave up her job; women were banned from professions such as teaching, medicine and law; girls' grammar schools were banned in 1937. Abortion was illegal and birth control clinics closed, the Mother's Cross gave bronze, silver and gold medals for four, six and eight children, and the Lebensborn programme paid women to have children with SS men. Achieving (keeping up): The two aims supported each other, since a woman who left work to marry was expected to have children and marriage loan repayments fell by 25% for each child born. Schools, radio programmes and the German Women's Enterprise Organisation – 6 million members, with 1.7 million women trained in childcare, cooking and sewing by 1939 – taught domestic skills rather than employment skills, so the policy shaped expectations as well as law. Excelling (going beyond): Nazi policy towards women demonstrates how ideology is limited by complex relationships between belief, economics and personal choice. Although 360,000 married women had given up work by the end of 1934 and the birth rate rose, factors such as women in employment rising from 4.85 million in 1933 to 7.14 million in 1939, employers preferring women because they cost two-thirds of a man's wage, the reversal of the marriage loan scheme in 1937 to meet labour shortages, and most couples still having only two children continue to explain why rearmament undermined the very policies the Nazis had introduced.	'Starter for five' recall; housewives and mothers policy table; success and limitation colour-coding with a judgement on how far the aims were achieved; source utility question (8) on the 1933 Goebbels speech and the 1938 textile factory photograph
27	How did Hitler aim to reduce unemployment? Emerging (catching up): The National Labour Service (RAD) made manual labour compulsory for young men. Job creation schemes built 7,000 km of autobahns and the 1936 Olympic facilities and subsidised the Volkswagen. Rearmament expanded the army from 100,000 to 900,000 men and mass-produced tanks, ships and aircraft. 'Invisible unemployment' removed women, Jewish people and political opponents from the official figures altogether. Achieving (keeping up): The schemes worked together, since public works absorbed labour immediately while rearmament created lasting demand for steel, coal and engineering, and removing whole groups from the count made the improvement look larger than it was. The cost fell on the workers themselves, as one RAD worker recorded shovelling dirt in all weathers for very low pay with only ten days' holiday a year, and thought the dole 'a lot better' because at least he had been at home. Excelling (going beyond): Nazi economic policy demonstrates how success is shaped by complex relationships between real change, statistical definition and hidden cost. Although unemployment fell dramatically and Germany recovered faster than most of Europe, factors such as the exclusion of women, Jews and opponents from the figures, the compulsion and low pay of the Labour Service, the loss of trade union rights and the right to strike, and the dependence of the whole recovery on rearmament for a future war continue to complicate the claim that the Nazis solved unemployment.	Inference work on the Labour Service memoir and the 1938 tank production photograph; recall, explain and predict task linking policies towards women to the unemployment figures; supported inference practice

Weimar and Nazi Germany, 1918–39

Autumn Term 2 Golden Nuggets and Work Hard

#	Golden Nugget	Work Hard
28	How far did the standard of living improve, 1933–39? Emerging (catching up): The Nazis promised prosperity through the German Labour Front, 'Strength Through Joy' (KdF) holidays and leisure schemes, and the KdF car savings plan advertised in 1939 as 'just 5 marks a week to drive your own car'. Wages rose 6% by 1934, 9% by 1936 and 20% by 1939, but prices over the same years rose 14%, 25% and 45%. Achieving (keeping up): Historians disagree because they measure different things. Steve Waugh argues wages rose only because the working day lengthened, that the rising cost of living meant real wages actually fell, and that cutting agricultural production to protect farmers' prices caused food shortages. Hall, Shuter, Brown and Williams argue that for Germans who conformed to Nazi expectations living standards went up, since unemployment dropped, real wages rose for those working overtime, and KdF benefits such as loans and medical care 'were real enough'. Excelling (going beyond): Standard of living demonstrates how historical judgement is shaped by complex relationships between evidence, criteria and whose experience is counted. Although the same wage and price figures are available to every historian, factors such as whether pay is measured hourly or weekly, whether security of employment outweighs falling real wages, whether promised benefits such as the KdF car were ever actually delivered, and whether those excluded from the 'national community' are counted at all continue to produce very different conclusions.	'Starter for five' recall; promises versus reality colour-coding with a judgement; interpretations questions – main difference (4) and reason for difference (4); SSIK judge paragraphs on both interpretations with an overall conclusion
29	How did the treatment of minorities change under Nazi rule? Emerging (catching up): Nazi racial policy rested on eugenics, racial hygiene and the antisemitism set out in Mein Kampf, with Aryans as the herrenvolk and other groups as untermenschen. From 1933 anyone judged mentally ill, deformed, epileptic, deaf or blind could be sterilised – 400,000 people by 1939 – and in 1939 the Nazis ordered the killing of babies with disabilities, taking over 5,000 children's lives. Roma were sent to camps from 1933 and ordered out of Germany in 1939, and prosecutions for homosexuality rose from 766 in 1934 to 8,000 by 1938. Achieving (keeping up): Persecution followed directly from the racial ideas taught in schools, since eugenics and racial hygiene justified sterilising the 'unsuitable' and breeding from the 'best', while the herrenvolk idea justified stripping citizenship from anyone defined as inferior. Policy escalated in stages from exclusion to sterilisation to killing, with each step made possible by the last and by propaganda presenting disabled Germans as a financial burden on the nation. Excelling (going beyond): Nazi persecution demonstrates how state violence is shaped by complex relationships between ideology, science and public consent. Although the measures were presented as medical and economic rather than political, factors such as the use of respectable-sounding science to justify them, the gradual escalation that made each step seem small, propaganda that framed persecution as a cost to ordinary taxpayers, and the removal of all legal protection from those stripped of citizenship continue to explain how policies of exclusion became policies of murder.	Match the definition to the key term – eugenics, racial hygiene, antisemitism, Hitler's views – and explain the effect on minorities; treatment classification task by group; two supported inferences from the 1938 '60,000 Reichmarks' poster (4)
30	How did the treatment of Jewish people change, 1933–39? Emerging (catching up): Persecution escalated year by year. In 1933 Jewish lawyers, judges, civil servants and teachers lost their jobs and Jewish shops were boycotted; in 1934 Jews were banned from sports clubs, parks and swimming pools; the Nuremberg Laws of 1935 removed citizenship and banned marriage between Jews and non-Jews; by 1938 property had to be registered, children were excluded from school and passports were stamped with a 'J'. On 9 November 1938 Kristallnacht destroyed 191 synagogues, 814 shops and 171 homes, killed 100 Jews and sent 20,000 to concentration camps. Achieving (keeping up): Each phase targeted a different part of life – first work, then social life, then legal status, then property and identity – so that Jewish Germans were isolated before they were dispossessed. The Nuremberg Laws were the turning point, since removing citizenship meant the state's remaining protections no longer applied, and afterwards persecution could be written into law rather than carried out through boycotts and intimidation. Excelling (going beyond): The persecution of Jewish people demonstrates how discrimination becomes systematic through complex relationships between law, propaganda and public compliance. Although the process appears steady in outline, factors such as the temporary removal of antisemitic posters for the 1936 Olympics, the shift from unofficial boycott to legal exclusion, the fining of the victims of Kristallnacht one billion marks for the damage done to them, and the absence of significant public protest continue to explain how persecution could escalate so far without meeting resistance.	Colour-coding the 1933–38 timeline by property, jobs and social position; explaining why each area of life was targeted and why the Nuremberg Laws were a turning point; 'Explain how the treatment of Jewish people in Germany changed between 1933 and 1939' (12) with paragraph scaffolds including Kristallnacht

How is your attainment measured at GCSE in Spring term?

Spring: HT1

Nazi control of Germany, 1933–39	The police state, the SS and Gestapo, propaganda and censorship, and the Churches.
Interpretations (Q3b, c and d)	4, 4 and 16 marks plus 4 for SPaG. Students explain how two interpretations differ, why they differ and how far they agree with one.
Opposition and resistance	Church opposition, youth groups and the extent of resistance to the regime.

Assessment Point 2

What is assessed?	% of course	Why?
Full mock papers across Paper 1 (Crime and Whitechapel), Paper 2 (Superpowers and Elizabeth) and Paper 3 (Weimar).	100% of the GCSE	Papers 1 and 3 are 30% each and Paper 2 is 40%. A full set of mocks in the spring gives a reliable forecast grade and identifies which of the four topics needs the most revision time before the summer.
Life in Nazi Germany, 1933–39	Youth and education, women, employment and living standards, and the treatment of minorities.	
Assessment Point 2	Full mock papers across Papers 1, 2 and 3 to produce a forecast grade.	
Revision programme	Whitechapel, Crime and Punishment, Elizabeth, Superpowers and Weimar revisited in rotation.	