

History Level 10

Chapter 4 — The Holocaust and legacies

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What led to the Holocaust

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The words we must define first. This section asks about *causes*, but before causes we need definitions, because the curriculum’s first elaboration (.E01) is a discussion of four words: **racism**, **discrimination**, **antisemitism** and **genocide**. In this section we use them in these senses: **racism** is the belief that humans belong to separate “races” and that some races are worth more than others, used to treat people differently on that ground; **discrimination** is that unfair treatment itself, written into law or carried out in daily life; **antisemitism** is hatred of, or hostility towards, Jews. **Genocide** is the most contested of the four, so we attribute it: the word was coined by the Polish-Jewish lawyer Raphael Lemkin in 1944 and made legal in the United Nations Genocide Convention of 1948, where it means acts committed with intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnic, racial or religious group. Historians argue about where the word should and should not apply; in this book it is used for the Holocaust and for the Convention’s own legal sense (Figure 1).

The **Holocaust** was the planned, step-by-step persecution and murder of six million Jews of Europe by Nazi Germany and the people and governments that helped it, between 1933 and 1945. That is the definition used by the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, in plainer words. What the wartime years held — ghettos, deportations, mass murder, liberation — is Section 4B. This section holds the earlier question: how did this become possible?

One more note before we start, because this is difficult history. We study it in plain words and dated facts, without shocking images, and with respect for the people harmed. And we study it as historians: no single cause explains the Holocaust. Some causes are **long-term roots** (ideas and habits that grew over centuries), some are **short-term conditions** (events that made the outcome more likely), and some are **decisions** made by people in power. The historian’s job — and your job in .E04 — is to weigh what each contributed.

The key words of this section

<i>Each term is defined at first use, with the source the definition comes from</i>	
Holocaust	The systematic, state-sponsored persecution and murder of six million Jews by the Nazi regime and its allies and collaborators, 1933-1945. Other groups were also targeted (Section 4C). <i>Definition used: United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, Holocaust Encyclopedia. Many Jews also use the Hebrew word Shoah.</i>
Racism	The belief that humans are divided into 'races' of unequal worth, and the mistreatment of people built on that belief. <i>The sense used in this section (the curriculum uses the term but does not define it).</i>
Discrimination	Treating people worse than others because of a group they belong to - faith, race, sex or another marker. <i>The sense used in this section.</i>
Antisemitism	Hostility to, prejudice against, or discrimination against Jews as a group. <i>Working definition used: International Holocaust Remembrance Alliance (IHRA), 2016 - antisemitism is 'a certain perception of Jews, which may be expressed as hatred toward Jews'.</i>
Genocide	Acts done with the intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnic, racial or religious group. <i>Coined by Raphael Lemkin, 1944; legal definition: UN Genocide Convention, 1948. Lemkin's own sense was broader (it included destroying a group's culture); the 1948 law is narrower. Both meanings are named here.</i>

Five stacked cards defining, in order: the Holocaust; racism; discrimination; antisemitism; and genocide, each with a short attribution line

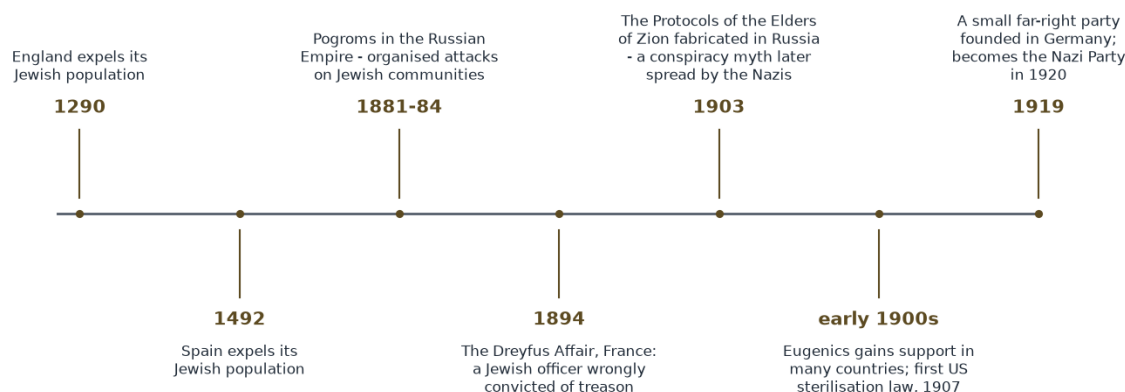
Figure 1. The five words this section defines at first use, and who owns each definition.

Part 1 — The long roots

Antisemitism did not begin in Germany in the 1930s. For centuries, Jews in Europe were treated as outsiders by law and by custom: expelled from whole countries, barred from many trades, and blamed for disasters they did not cause — sometimes in **pogroms**: organised attacks on Jewish homes and businesses, usually with the authorities' blessing. Figure 2 sets out six roots the rest of this section builds on.

Long-term roots: hostility to Jews and race thinking before 1914

None of these events made the Holocaust certain - but each left a store of ideas the Nazis could draw on



Hostility to Jews as a religion (anti-Judaism) was centuries old in Europe before 1900; in the late 1800s it was recast as hostility to Jews as a 'race' - the form the Nazis took up.

Timeline of long-term roots: 1290 Jews expelled from England; 1492 expelled from Spain; 1881 to 1884 pogroms in the Russian Empire; 1894 the Dreyfus Affair in France; 1903 the Protocols of the Elders of Zion fabricated; early 1900s eugenics spreads, 1907 Indiana sterilisation law; 1919 the party that became the Nazi Party founded

Figure 2. Six long-term roots, 1290–1920. The Nazi Party of 1920 grew from soil that had been worked for centuries.

Two roots deserve a closer look because they show antisemitism adapting to modern times. In France in 1894, a Jewish army officer, Alfred Dreyfus, was falsely convicted of passing secrets, on evidence that was later shown to be forged; the affair split France for over a decade and proved that antisemitism could burn even in a republic with equal laws. In 1903 a text appeared in Russia claiming to expose a Jewish plot for world rule; it was exposed as a forgery by 1921, yet it kept being printed and believed. Conspiracy myths of this kind are still with us today.

A third root was new in the early 1900s: **eugenics** — the idea that a population can be “improved” by controlling who is allowed to have children. Eugenics was not a German invention; it was taught and funded in many countries, and it gave old hatreds a new, scientific-sounding language of “race improvement”. When the Nazi Party was founded in 1919–1920, it drew on all of these roots at once: the old religious hostility, the new race thinking, and the conspiracy myths.

Part 2 — Conditions: defeat, depression, despair

Roots are not enough on their own. In 1928 the Nazi Party won just 2.6 per cent of the German vote; the question is what changed. You met the bridge in Section 3A: Germany’s defeat in World War I, the Treaty of Versailles (which many Germans resented as a national shame), and the weak democracy — the **Weimar Republic** — that had to carry both. What turned resentment into Nazi votes was the Great Depression. Figure 3 plots the two numbers side by side.

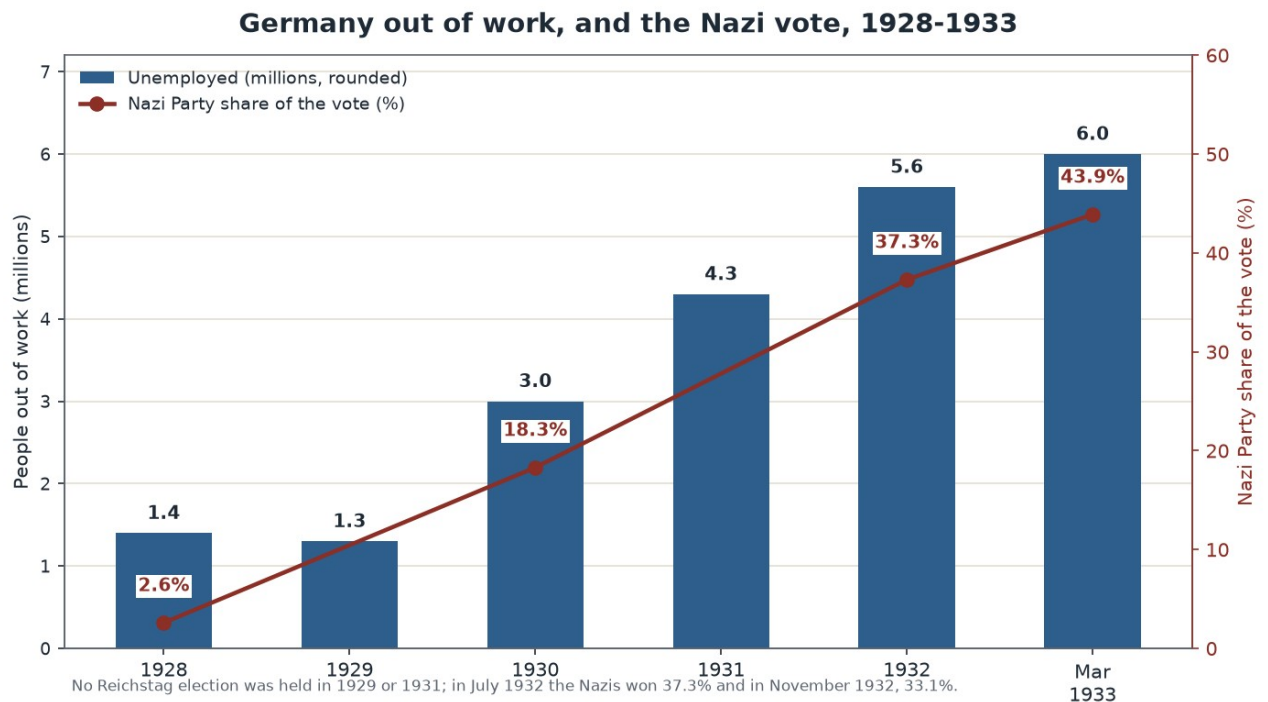


Chart with bars for unemployment in Germany (1.4 million in 1928 rising to 6.0 million by March 1933) and a line for the Nazi Party vote share (2.6 per cent in 1928, 18.3 in 1930, 37.3 in 1932, 43.9 in March 1933)

Figure 3. Unemployment and the Nazi vote in Germany, 1928 to March 1933. The last election before Hitler took power was November 1932; even at their peak the Nazis never won a majority in a free vote.

Read the two series together. As unemployment climbed from about 1.4 million in 1928 to about 6 million in 1932, the Nazi vote climbed from 2.6 to 37.3 per cent. That is **correlation** — the two lines move together — and correlation is evidence, not proof: the Depression did not make Germans hate Jews, but fear and unemployment made millions willing to listen to a party that promised simple answers and named a **scapegoat** — a group blamed for problems it did not cause. In January 1933, with no party holding a majority, President Paul von Hindenburg and his advisers chose to appoint Adolf Hitler as Chancellor, believing they could control him. It was a decision, not an accident — and it belongs to the causes.

Part 3 — Seizing power: dismantling a democracy

The curriculum's .E03 names the **rise of fascism** and the **erosion of democracy** as part of the historical context. **Fascism** is the politics of the far right that rose in Europe between the wars: one leader, one party, extreme nationalism, the open use of violence against opponents, and contempt for parliaments and elections. Mussolini's Italy (from 1922) was its first model; Hitler's Germany became its most powerful case. Figure 4 shows how quickly a modern democracy was taken apart once Hitler held the Chancellor's office.

From democracy to dictatorship: the steps of 1933-1934

Eighteen months separate the two ends of this ladder

30 January 1933

President Hindenburg appoints Adolf Hitler as Chancellor (head of government). The Nazis had won only a third of the vote in the last free election.

28 February 1933

The day after the Reichstag (parliament) building burns down, the Reichstag Fire Decree suspends key rights: free speech, free press, assembly, and trial rights.

23 March 1933

The Enabling Act lets Hitler's cabinet make laws without parliament - passed with the seats of the arrested and absent members left empty.

2 May 1933

Trade unions are taken over and shut down.

14 July 1933

New political parties are banned. Germany is now a one-party state.

30 June - 2 July 1934

The Night of the Long Knives: Hitler has rivals inside his own movement murdered.

2 August 1934

Hindenburg dies. Hitler merges the offices of Chancellor and President under the title Führer. The army swears a personal oath to him.

Each step used a show of law - decrees and acts - so that the takeover looked legal while the checks on power were removed one by one.

Ladder of seven steps, 30 January 1933 to 2 August 1934: Hitler appointed Chancellor; the Reichstag Fire Decree suspends key rights; the Enabling Act allows law-making without parliament; trade unions shut down; parties banned; the Night of the Long Knives murders; Hindenburg dies and Hitler takes the title Führer

Figure 4. Eighteen months from democracy to dictatorship. The shaded steps are the ones that changed the law itself.

Worked inquiry 1 — how do you dismantle a democracy by law? Watch the method. On 27 February 1933 the Reichstag (parliament) building burned down; the next day, President Hindenburg signed the Reichstag Fire Decree — a **decree** being an order with the force of law — which suspended free speech, a free press, free assembly and trial rights — using an emergency power (Article 48) that the Weimar constitution had meant for true crises. On 23 March 1933 the Enabling Act let Hitler's cabinet make laws without parliament at all; it passed because communist deputies had been arrested and the chamber was ringed by party men. Notice the pattern the historian should name: each step kept the *form* of law — a decree, an act, a signature — while removing the thing law exists for, the checks on power. By August 1934 the army swore a personal oath to Hitler. The takeaway for cause-and-consequence thinking is precise: the erosion of democracy was not a background condition. It was a cause in its own right — a chain of decisions that made every later step possible.

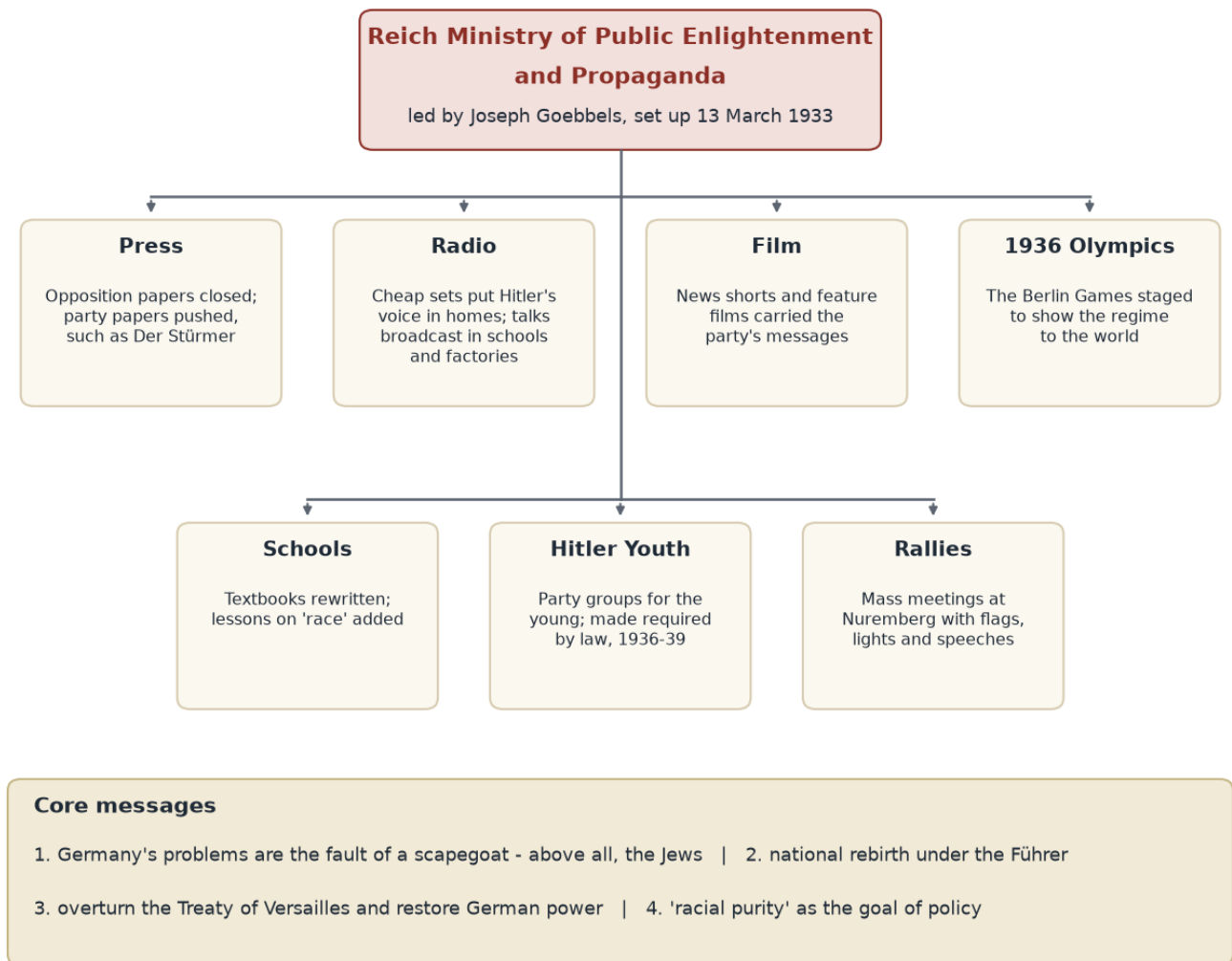
Part 4 — Ideology and propaganda

.E03 also names **Nazi ideology** and **Nazi propaganda**. An **ideology** is a organised set of ideas about how the world works and what should be done. The Nazi version put race at the centre of everything: history was a struggle between races; the “Aryan” race was, in this fantasy, the creator of culture; and the Jews were cast as its enemy — not as a religion but as a “race”, and therefore as something no conversion or law could change. Hitler had written this down years before taking power, in *Mein Kampf* (1925).

Propaganda is organised communication used to shape what a whole society thinks. From 13 March 1933 it was run by its own ministry under Joseph Goebbels (Figure 5).

Propaganda: how the regime spoke to Germany

Propaganda is organised communication used to shape what a whole society thinks - in this case, run by the state



Tree diagram: the Reich Ministry of Public Enlightenment and Propaganda, led by Joseph Goebbels from 13 March 1933, branches to Press, Radio, Film, the 1936 Olympics, Schools, Hitler Youth and Rallies, above a band of four core messages: blame a scapegoat, above all the Jews; national rebirth under the Führer; overturn the Treaty of Versailles; racial purity as the goal of policy

Figure 5. The propaganda system, and the four messages it repeated. Cheap radios put Hitler's voice in homes; schools taught "race" as fact.

Notice what the four core messages do: they join an old hatred (the scapegoat) to a promise of national rebirth, and to the grievance of Versailles. That joining is why ideology matters to causes — it told Germans *who* to blame and *why* harsh measures felt like recovery. And it was said openly. On 30 January 1939, in a speech to the Reichstag, Hitler said:

“... if the international Jewish financiers of Europe and outside should succeed in plunging the nations into a world war again, the result will be ... the annihilation of the Jewish race in Europe.”

— Adolf Hitler, speech to the Reichstag, 30 January 1939 (abridged translation). Read it as a historian reads any source: this is not a hidden plan discovered after the war. It is a public statement of intent, two and a half years before the war turned to mass murder. .E04 will ask you to weigh exactly this kind of evidence.

Part 5 — Racial policy before 1939

Ideology became law. Figure 6 tracks the main measures against Jews in Germany before the war began. Each went further than the last, and each met little open resistance at home or protest abroad — which is itself a cause worth naming: the regime learned that it could go further.

State measures against Jews in Germany, 1933–1938

Each step went further than the last - and each met little open resistance at home or abroad

1 April 1933

A one-day national boycott of Jewish-owned shops, doctors and lawyers; armed party men stand outside the doors.

7 April 1933

The first law of the new regime: Jews and political opponents are dismissed from government jobs.

May 1933

Students burn books by Jewish and other 'un-German' writers in university towns.

15 September 1935

The Nuremberg Laws: Jewish Germans lose citizenship and equal rights; marriage between Jews and other Germans is banned. (Section 4B examines them in depth.)

October 1938

Jewish passports are stamped with a red 'J' so officials abroad can see who carries them.

9-10 November 1938

The Kristallnacht pogrom: more than 1,000 synagogues are attacked, about 91 people are killed, and about 30,000 Jewish men are sent to concentration camps.

Between 1933 and 1938 about half of Germany's roughly 500,000 Jews left; those who could emigrate gave up homes, jobs and most of what they owned. The wartime phase - deportation and mass murder - is Section 4B.

Ladder of six measures, 1933 to 1938: the one-day boycott of Jewish shops; the civil service law dismissing Jews from government jobs; the book burnings of May 1933; the Nuremberg Laws of 15 September 1935; passports stamped with a red J in October 1938; the Kristallnacht pogrom of 9 to 10 November 1938

Figure 6. From boycott to pogrom: state measures against Jews in Germany, 1933–1938.

Two of these steps need a sentence each. The **Nuremberg Laws** of 15 September 1935 wrote the racial ideology into the citizenship code: Jewish Germans lost their citizenship and equal rights, and marriage between Jews and other Germans was banned. (Their significance, and the Wannsee Conference of 1942, are examined in depth in Section 4B.) The pogrom of 9–10 November 1938 — more than 1,000 synagogues attacked, about 91 people killed, about 30,000 Jewish men sent to concentration camps — was called *Kristallnacht* (“Crystal Night”) at the time; many historians today prefer “the November pogrom”, because the old name repeats the Nazis’ joking about broken glass. Names carry arguments; that is why we attribute them.

The human result by 1939: of roughly 500,000 Jews living in Germany in 1933, about half had left, giving up homes, jobs and most of what they owned to find a country that would take them. Which brings us to the world beyond Germany.

Part 6 — The wider world looks away

.E02 asks about the world context of the 1930s, and its attitudes to antisemitism, racism and genocide, *before and throughout* World War II. The clearest single test before the war was the Evian Conference of 6–15 July 1938 (Figure 7): thirty-two governments met in France to discuss the growing flow of refugees from Germany and Austria.

The world responds: the Evian Conference, July 1938

Called by US President Franklin D. Roosevelt to discuss the growing flow of refugees from Germany and Austria

Evian-les-Bains, France - 6 to 15 July 1938

32 governments sent delegations; refugee organisations attended as observers.

The question on the table: who would take in Jews trying to escape Nazi Germany?

Almost every country said no

Delegates offered reasons - tight borders, the Depression, 'no room' - but most simply would not open their doors.

Australia's delegate

T. W. White, 14 July 1938: 'As we have no real racial problem, we are not desirous of importing one.' Australia would not take more Jewish refugees.

One offer stood out

The Dominican Republic offered to settle up to 100,000 refugees on its land - the only large offer made. A weak committee was set up, and achieved little.

The message refugees received

The conference told the Nazi regime that few countries would fight for Jews - or even take them in. The regime's own paper wrote that countries criticised Germany while shutting their borders. In May-June 1939 the ship MS St. Louis carried 937 refugees, most of them Jewish, from Germany. Cuba, the United States and Canada all refused them entry; the ship went back to Europe, and more than 250 of its passengers were later killed in the Holocaust.

E02 asks about attitudes 'before and during World War II': Evian is the clearest single test of the world's attitude before the war.

Three-column summary of the Evian Conference: almost every country said no; Australia's delegate T. W. White, 14 July 1938, quoted; the Dominican Republic's offer of up to 100,000 places; below, the message refugees received, including the voyage of the MS St. Louis in May to June 1939

Figure 7. The Evian Conference, July 1938: who would take in Jews trying to escape?

Worked inquiry 2 — Australia at Evian. Australia's delegate, T. W. White, told the conference on 14 July 1938: "As we have no real racial problem, we are not desirous of importing one." Put the frame to it. **Origin:** a national delegate, speaking for government policy, at an international conference called to help refugees. **Content:** Australia would not take more Jewish refugees. **Purpose:** to reassure a domestic audience that the White Australia policy era's habits would hold. **What it shows:** Australia's attitude was not unusual — almost every country at Evian said no, for reasons of depression, borders and "no room". **The steelman — the other side's view in its strongest form — held fairly:** these were real pressures, and no single country's offer would have solved a crisis that only ended with the war's end. **The weighing:** yet the combined refusal sent a message the Nazi regime read clearly — its own paper wrote that other countries criticised Germany while shutting their borders. When the ship MS St. Louis sailed in May–June 1939 with 937 refugees aboard, Cuba, the United States and Canada all refused it entry, and the ship went back to Europe; more than 250 of its passengers were later killed in the Holocaust. Closed doors did not cause the Holocaust — the regime did — but they removed escape, and they told the regime it could go further. Attitudes *during* the war are Section 4B's territory; the pattern of 1938–39 is what E02 asks you to know here.

Part 7 — How much did ideology cause? The historians' debate

Everything in this section is a cause of some kind; E04 asks you to evaluate the significance of one in particular — ideology. Historians genuinely disagree about how much weight it carries, and the disagreement has named positions (Figure 8).

How much did ideology cause? A historians' debate

Each position below is stated in its strongest form, as its own writers would recognise - then weighed

Position 1 - Ideas and leaders drove it

The Nazi leaders, above all Hitler, hated Jews long before 1933 and meant to destroy them. *Mein Kampf* (1925) says so; Hitler's 1939 speech promised 'annihilation' if war came. The regime kept turning racial ideas into law, step by step, from 1933.

Strongest evidence: the written record of intent, before any war.

Writers you can look up: Lucy Dawidowicz, *The War Against the Jews* (1975); Eberhard Jaeckel.

Limit: intent alone does not explain when, where or how the killing took the shape it did.

Position 2 - Circumstances drove it

No single written order for mass murder has ever been found. War created the camps, the chaos and the closed borders. Competing offices each took harsher steps to please Hitler, so policy escalated step by step rather than following one plan.

Strongest evidence: no master plan has survived; much of the path was improvised under wartime pressure.

Writers you can look up: Martin Broszat, *The Hitler State* (1969); Hans Mommsen.

Limit: if no ideology pointed the way, why did the regime fix on Jews, and not some other group, at every step?

Where most historians now stand

Ideology set the goal and pointed the direction; war, institutions and escalating decisions shaped the road taken. Ian Kershaw's phrase 'working towards the Führer' (*The Nazi Dictatorship*, 1985) joins the two: Hitler set the direction in broad words, and officials below him found ever harsher ways to follow it.

For E04 you will need your own weighed answer: how significant was ideology, compared with war, the Depression, propaganda and the world's closed doors?

Two panels and a synthesis band: Position 1, ideas and leaders drove it (Lucy Dawidowicz, Eberhard Jaeckel), stated in its strongest form with its limit; Position 2, circumstances drove it (Martin Broszat, Hans Mommsen), stated in its strongest form with its limit; below, where most historians now stand, including Ian Kershaw's phrase working towards the Führer

Figure 8. The debate, steelmanned. Each position is stated as its own writers would recognise it, with its strongest evidence and its limit.

Position 1 says the ideas did it: the written record of intent runs from *Mein Kampf* (1925) through the 1939 speech to the laws of 1933–1938, so the goal was fixed long before the war. Position 2 says circumstances did it: no single written order for mass murder has ever been found, and the killing took its shape under wartime pressure, step by escalating step, as competing offices radicalised policy to please the leader. Most historians now stand where Figure 8's third band stands: ideology set the goal and pointed the direction; war, institutions and decisions shaped the road. Your task 10 asks for your own weighed answer — on both sides' evidence, not on feeling.

Source inquiry — the Reichstag Fire Decree, 28 February 1933

The section's primary source is the decree that began the dismantling in Figure 4. A **primary source** is a record made at the time by people inside the events; the **provenance** line — who issued it, where, when, under what power — is

part of the source. Figure 9 reproduces a short extract; Figure 10 gives the questions to put to it (the same frame Sections 7C and 7D teach in depth).

Decree for the Protection of the People and the State

(the 'Reichstag Fire Decree') - 28 February 1933

On the basis of Article 48, Paragraph 2 of the Constitution of the German Reich, the following is ordered for defense against acts of violence endangering the State:

1. Articles 114, 115, 117, 118, 123, 124 and 153 of the Constitution of the German Reich are suspended until further notice. Therefore, restrictions on personal liberty, on the right of free expression of opinion, including freedom of the press, on the rights of assembly and association, and violations of the privacy of postal, telegraphic and telephonic communications, and warrants for house-searches, orders for confiscations as well as restrictions on property are otherwise permissible within the limits of the law.

2. (summarised) Where measures dangerous to public safety are taken, the Reich Government may take over the powers of the highest state authorities.

Signed: President Hindenburg | Chancellor Hitler

Short extract; the full decree had six articles. Issued the day after the Reichstag (parliament) building burned down.

Source: the decree as issued, 28 February 1933; English wording as published by the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, Holocaust Encyclopedia (encyclopedia.ushmm.org); retrieved 2026-08-25.

Document reproduction of a short extract of the Decree for the Protection of the People and the State, 28 February 1933: Article 1 suspends Articles 114, 115, 117, 118, 123, 124 and 153 of the constitution, removing protections for personal liberty, free expression, the press, assembly, association and property; Article 2 summarised; signed President Hindenburg and Chancellor Hitler

Figure 9. The decree, in short extract. English wording as published by the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum.

Putting the decree to work: the questions to ask

Read Figure 9, then work through these six frames before you infer anything

ORIGIN

Who issued it, in whose name, and under what power?
What had happened the day before it was signed?

CONTENT

List each right the decree suspends. Which of those rights matter most for a democracy, and why?

PURPOSE

Why rule by emergency decree instead of by votes in parliament? Who gains power from each suspended right?

AUDIENCE

Who now has to obey, and who can now be arrested without trial? What message does it send to the parties that oppose Hitler?

SILENCES

What does the decree NOT say? Does it prove who set the fire? What else would you need to know?

CHECKS

What other sources could test it - a diary from March 1933, a court record, a newspaper from the week after? What would each add?

INFERENCE - what does the source make possible?

An inference is a sensible conclusion drawn from what the source says PLUS what you already know. Write one inference about what this decree did to German democracy, and name the exact words in the decree that support it.

Six question boxes (origin, content, purpose, audience, silences, checks) plus an inference band, for reading the Reichstag Fire Decree

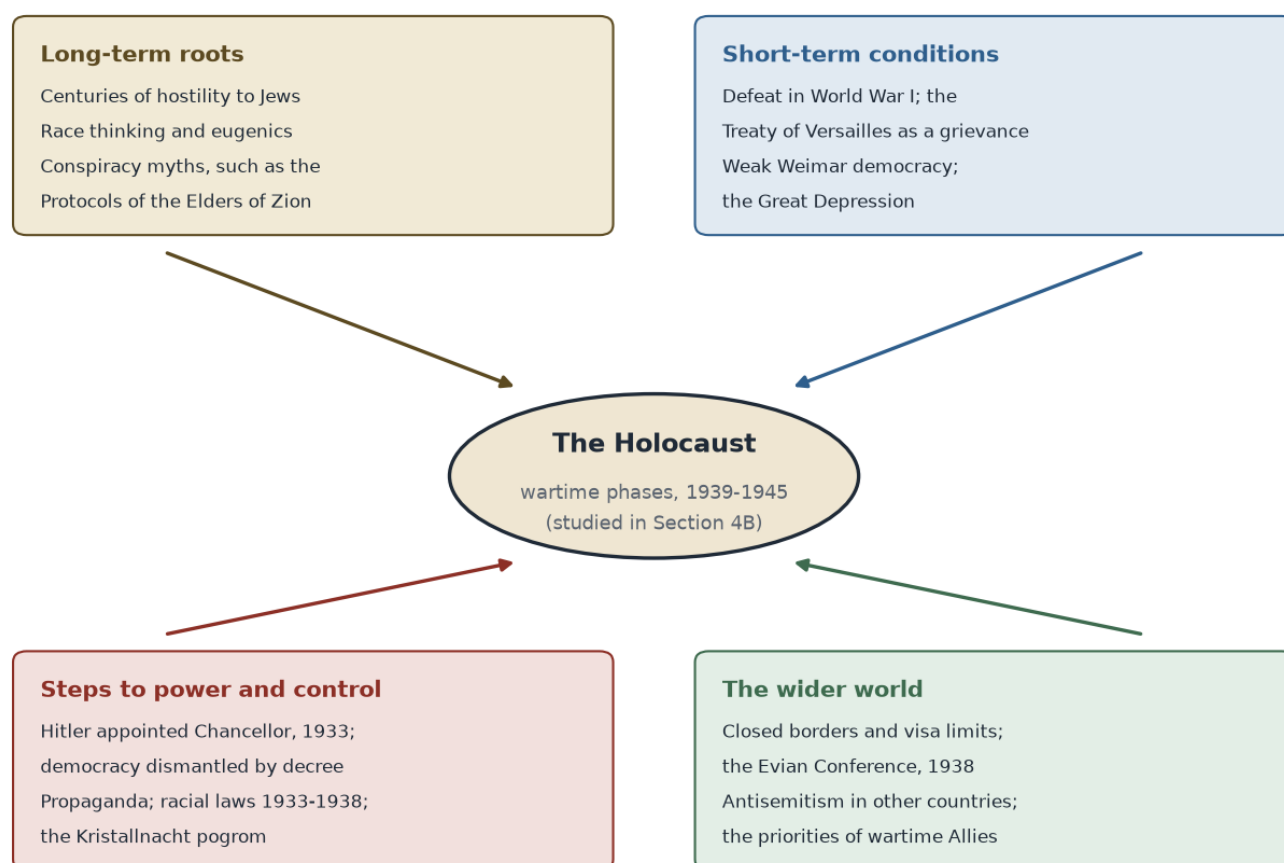
Figure 10. The questions to ask of the decree before inferring anything from it.

The causes in one web

Before the tasks, gather the section's causes into one picture (Figure 11). No box in it says "the cause"; the web is the argument.

The cause web: four clusters feeding one outcome

No single cause explains the Holocaust - the task is to weigh how these clusters joined



Cause web: four clusters (long-term roots; short-term conditions; steps to power and control; the wider world) with arrows feeding a centre ellipse labelled The Holocaust, wartime phases 1939 to 1945, studied in Section 4B

Figure 11. The cause web of this section. Your task 10 weighs these clusters against each other.

Practice — scaffolded

1. Match the term to the example. Copy the table and complete it using the definitions in Figure 1. One row is done for you.

Example from this section	Term
The Nuremberg Laws remove citizenship from Jewish Germans	racism written into law (discrimination)
The belief that Jews and “Aryans” are locked in a struggle	
Alfred Dreyfus convicted on forged evidence because he was a Jew	
The UN Convention’s word for acts intended to destroy a group	
Jewish doctors and lawyers barred from their work, April 1933	

2. Put the roots and steps in order. Using Figures 2, 4 and 6, order these from earliest to latest: the Dreyfus Affair; the Nuremberg Laws; Hitler appointed Chancellor; the expulsion of Jews from Spain; the Kristallnacht pogrom; the Enabling Act. Which two are only weeks apart?

3. Read the chart. From Figure 3: (a) what happened to unemployment between 1928 and 1932? (b) what happened to the Nazi vote share over the same years? (c) Finish this sentence with a historian's caution, not a repeat of the numbers: "The two lines move together, which suggests ... but does not prove ..."

4. Read the ladder. From Figure 4: (a) which step removed free speech and a free press, and what event was used to justify it? (b) True or false, and fix the false ones: (i) The Nazis won a majority of the vote in a free election before Hitler became Chancellor. (ii) The Enabling Act let Hitler's cabinet make laws without parliament. (iii) By 14 July 1933 Germany was a one-party state.

5. Read the tree. From Figure 5: (a) name two channels through which propaganda reached German children. (b) Which of the four core messages connects an old hatred to a national grievance? Explain the connection in one sentence.

6. Origin questions for the decree. Using only Figure 9's title, signatures and source line, and Figure 10, answer the three ORIGIN questions: Who issued it, in whose name, and under what power? What had happened the day before it was signed? Why is the provenance line part of the source?

Practice — unscaffolded

7. The world's attitude (E02). In one paragraph (4–6 sentences), explain what the Evian Conference and the voyage of the St. Louis showed about the world's attitude towards Jews trying to escape, using at least two dated facts from Figure 7 and one **inference** labelled as an inference.

8. The steelman, both ways. Figure 8 states each position in its strongest form. Write two sentences beginning "The strongest case for Position 2 is ...", then two sentences beginning "But Position 1 answers that ...". Do not caricature either side.

9. Silences and checks. (a) Name one thing the decree (Figure 9) does **not** tell us. (b) Name one kind of source — a diary from March 1933, a court record, a newspaper from the week after — that could check what the decree *did* in practice, and say what it would add.

10. Evaluate the significance of ideology (E04). In one paragraph (5–7 sentences), evaluate how significant ideology was as a cause of the Holocaust, weighed against at least two other clusters from Figure 11. Use the moves in Figure 12 — claim, dated evidence, steelman, weighing, judgement — with your own dated facts from this section, not the model's.

Answers

1. The belief that Jews and “Aryans” are locked in a struggle — racism. Alfred Dreyfus convicted on forged evidence — antisemitism. The UN Convention’s word — genocide. Jewish doctors and lawyers barred from their work — discrimination.
2. Expulsion from Spain (1492) → Dreyfus Affair (1894) → Hitler appointed Chancellor (30 January 1933) → Enabling Act (23 March 1933) → Nuremberg Laws (15 September 1935) → Kristallnacht pogrom (9–10 November 1938). The Chancellor appointment and the Enabling Act are about eight weeks apart.
3. (a) Unemployment rose from about 1.4 million to about 6 million. (b) The Nazi vote rose from 2.6 per cent (1928) to 37.3 per cent (1932). (c) Any claim plus caution — for example: “... suggests that depression and fear drove Germans to the Nazis, but does not prove that the Depression caused antisemitism or the Holocaust.”
4. (a) The Reichstag Fire Decree of 28 February 1933, justified by the Reichstag fire of the day before. (b) (i) False — their best free-election result was 33.1 per cent (November 1932); they never won a majority. (ii) True. (iii) True.
5. (a) Schools and the Hitler Youth (cheap radios at home also acceptable). (b) Message 1 joined to message 3: Germany’s problems — including the shame of Versailles — are blamed on a scapegoat, above all the Jews, so an old hatred is made to look like the cure for a national grievance.
6. Who: President Hindenburg signed it and Chancellor Hitler countersigned — issued by the new regime in the President’s name, under the emergency Article 48. What had happened: the Reichstag building had burned down the day before (27 February 1933). Why provenance is part of the source: who issued it, when, and under what power tells us it was made at the time by people inside the events, and under a crisis — which is exactly what the PURPOSE and AUDIENCE questions then test.
- 7–10. There is no single right answer; the checklist is: two dated facts and one labelled inference (7); both positions stated in their strongest form, neither caricatured (8); a silence really absent from the decree and a check-source that would add something new (9); a claim up front, dated evidence, a fair steelman, a weighing that answers it, and a judgement that returns to the claim (10).

Model response (for task 10)

*Ideology was the most significant single cause of the Holocaust, but it did not work alone. Nazi racial ideas were written down long before 1933 — Hitler’s *Mein Kampf* (1925) — and the regime kept turning them into law: the civil service law of April 1933, the Nuremberg Laws of 1935, and the violence of Kristallnacht in November 1938. Against this, historians who stress circumstances point out that no single written order for mass murder has been found, and that the war created the conditions in which killing could escalate. But without the ideology there was no goal: it was racial ideas that fixed on Jews as the target at every step, from boycott to law to violence, and it was those ideas that made each harsher step feel like progress to the people carrying it out. Ideology was the engine; the Depression, the closed doors of other countries, and the war were the road. Without the engine there was no journey at all.*

Model paragraph: how significant was ideology?

The notes name the move each sentence makes

Ideology was the most significant single cause of the Holocaust, but it did not work alone.	CLAIM - states the judgement up front
Nazi racial ideas were written down long before 1933 - Hitler's Mein Kampf (1925) - and the regime kept turning them into law: the civil service law of April 1933, the Nuremberg Laws of 1935, and the violence of Kristallnacht in November 1938.	EVIDENCE - dated facts, each one checkable
Against this, historians who stress circumstances point out that no single written order for mass murder has been found, and that the war created the conditions in which killing could escalate.	STEELMAN - the other side's best case, stated fairly
But without the ideology there was no goal: it was racial ideas that fixed on Jews as the target at every step, from boycott to law to violence, and it was those ideas that made each harsher step feel like progress to the people carrying it out.	WEIGHING - answers the steelman instead of ignoring it
Ideology was the engine; the Depression, the closed doors of other countries, and the war were the road. Without the engine there was no journey at all.	JUDGEMENT - returns to the claim, now earned

Steal the moves - claim, evidence, steelman, weighing, judgement - not the facts: your task uses your own dated evidence.

Annotated model paragraph for task 10: five sentence cards labelled claim, evidence, steelman, weighing and judgement

Figure 12. The model paragraph of task 10, annotated. Steal the moves, not the facts.

Looking back. You can now define racism, discrimination, antisemitism and genocide with their owners named; place the long roots (expulsions, pogroms, the Dreyfus Affair, forged conspiracy myths, eugenics) on a timeline; and explain how the Depression, the appointment of January 1933, the dismantling of democracy by decree, the ideology and propaganda of the regime, the racial laws of 1933–1938, and the closed doors of the wider world each contributed to the Holocaust. The wartime phases — identification turning to ghettoisation, deportation and mass murder — are Section 4B; diverse experiences of Jewish people and non-Jewish people are 4C; and the formal criteria for the significance judgement you practised in task 10 are Section 8C.

Sources for this section (all figures in this section are original, drawn for this book).

- Victorian Curriculum 2.0, History, Levels 9 and 10: VC2HH10K20 with elaborations .E01–.E04 (VCAA export, 29 July 2026).
- United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, Holocaust Encyclopedia (encyclopedia.ushmm.org): the definition of the Holocaust used in the introduction; entries on the Reichstag Fire Decree (the English wording reproduced in Figure 9), the Enabling Act, the boycott of April 1933, the Nuremberg Laws, Kristallnacht, the Evian Conference and the voyage of the St. Louis; dates and figures in Figures 2–6; retrieved 2026-08-25.
- T. W. White, Australian delegate, statement to the Evian Conference, 14 July 1938, from the conference record; retrieved 2026-08-25.
- Adolf Hitler, speech to the Reichstag, 30 January 1939, abridged standard translation.

- Lucy Dawidowicz, *The War Against the Jews* (1975); Martin Broszat, *The Hitler State* (1969); Ian Kershaw, *The Nazi Dictatorship* (1985) — for the named positions in Figure 8 and Part 7.
- Unemployment and election figures in Figure 3: standard published record as collated in the USHMM encyclopedia entries above and in the museum's encyclopedia entry on the Nazi rise to power; retrieved 2026-08-25.

The Holocaust: key events, people and developments

Curriculum trace. Victorian Curriculum 2.0 — History, Levels 9 and 10 band. Content description VC2HH10K21 (cited by code). Elaborations drawn on (cited by code): .E01, .E02, .E03, .E04.

A note before we begin. This section is about the murder of about six million people. The facts are set out plainly, without pictures of suffering, because the history is serious enough on its own. If anything in this section is hard to read, say so to your teacher — talking about it is part of studying it well.

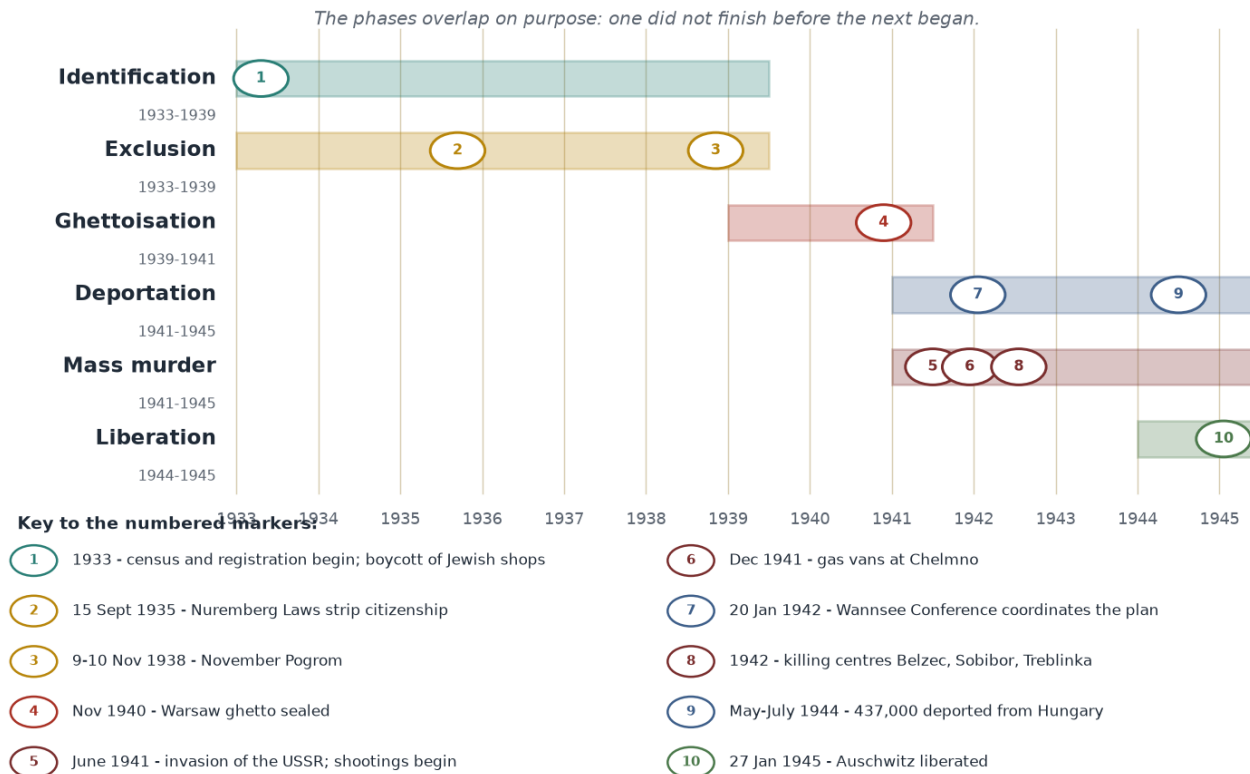
The word we keep testing: the Holocaust. Section 4A looked at the *causes* — the ideas, the politics and the long history of hatred that made the Holocaust possible. This section is about the events themselves: what happened, in what order, who did it, and how the countries of Europe responded. First, the name. In this book, the **Holocaust** is used in the sense given by the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum: “*the systematic, state-sponsored persecution and murder of six million Jews by the Nazi regime and its allies and collaborators*” (United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, Holocaust Encyclopedia, retrieved 2026-08-25). Three words in that definition matter: *systematic* (organised, step by step), *state-sponsored* (run by a government, not by a mob), and *six million* (the scale, which historians have built up from transport records, camp records, census returns and post-war trials). Other groups were also targeted by the Nazi regime — that story belongs to Section 4C. The term **genocide** — the deliberate destruction, in whole or in part, of a national, ethnic, racial or religious group, as defined by the United Nations Genocide Convention of 1948 — was coined partly in response to these events; Section 4A defined it first.

One habit from Section 3C carries straight over: when we call something **significant**, we test it — how many people were involved, how deep and how lasting the effects were, and whether it is still remembered. Section 8C teaches the full criteria; here they are on loan.

Part 1 — Six phases, 1933–1945

The Holocaust did not happen in one moment. Historians divide it into phases, and the curriculum names six of them: **identification** (finding out who was Jewish and making it visible), **exclusion** (pushing Jewish people out of German life), **ghettoisation** (forcing Jewish people into sealed city districts), **deportation** (transporting people, mostly by rail, to ghettos, camps and killing sites), **mass murder**, and **liberation**. Figure 1 sets the phases along one timeline.

The six phases of the Holocaust, 1933-1945



Original diagram for this book; all dates are from the section text.

Timeline of the six phases of the Holocaust from 1933 to 1945: identification, exclusion, ghettoisation, deportation, mass murder and liberation, each with key dated events

Figure 1. The six phases. The bars overlap on purpose — the phases are a guide to the pattern, not neat boxes; exclusion continued after the ghettos began, and deportations continued almost to the last weeks of the war.

Phase 1 — Identification (from 1933). When the **Nazi Party** — the National Socialist German Workers’ Party, led by **Adolf Hitler** — came to power in Germany in January 1933, the state began to sort the population by descent. Censuses, church records and registration cards were used to establish who had Jewish ancestors. In time Jewish people were made to carry identity papers marked with a “J”, and from 1941 German Jews had to wear a yellow star badge in public. Identification came first because everything else needed a list.

Phase 2 — Exclusion (1933–1939). On 1 April 1933 Nazi paramilitary men stood outside Jewish-owned shops to enforce a boycott. Days later, on 7 April 1933, a law removed Jewish people from German government jobs. The **Nuremberg Laws** of 15 September 1935 stripped Jews of German citizenship and made marriage between Jews and other Germans a crime; Section 4A set these in context, and Part 3 below weighs their significance. On 9–10 November 1938, in the **November Pogrom** — the night of violence often called *Kristallnacht*, “night of broken glass” — Nazi gangs burned and damaged more than 1,400 synagogues and prayer rooms across Germany and Austria and arrested about 30,000 Jewish men, sending them to concentration camps. By 1939 more than half of Germany’s Jews had left the country, wherever a visa could be found (numbers of those who left come from the USHMM Holocaust Encyclopedia entries for these events; source line at the end of the section).

Phase 3 — Ghettoisation (1939–1941). When Germany invaded Poland in September 1939, starting World War II in Europe, millions more Jewish people came under Nazi rule. German orders concentrated them in **ghettos** — sealed districts of a city, walled off, where Jewish people were forced to live, often several families to a room, on starvation rations. The Warsaw ghetto, sealed in November 1940, held more than 400,000 people at its height; the Łódź ghetto held about 160,000. Ghettos were presented as a “temporary” measure, but disease and hunger killed tens of thousands. Figure 7 lists five of the largest ghettos.

Phase 4 — Deportation (1941–1945). From 1941 trains carried Jewish people from all over German-held Europe to ghettos in the east, to forced-labour camps and, increasingly, to killing sites. **Deportation** here means forced removal

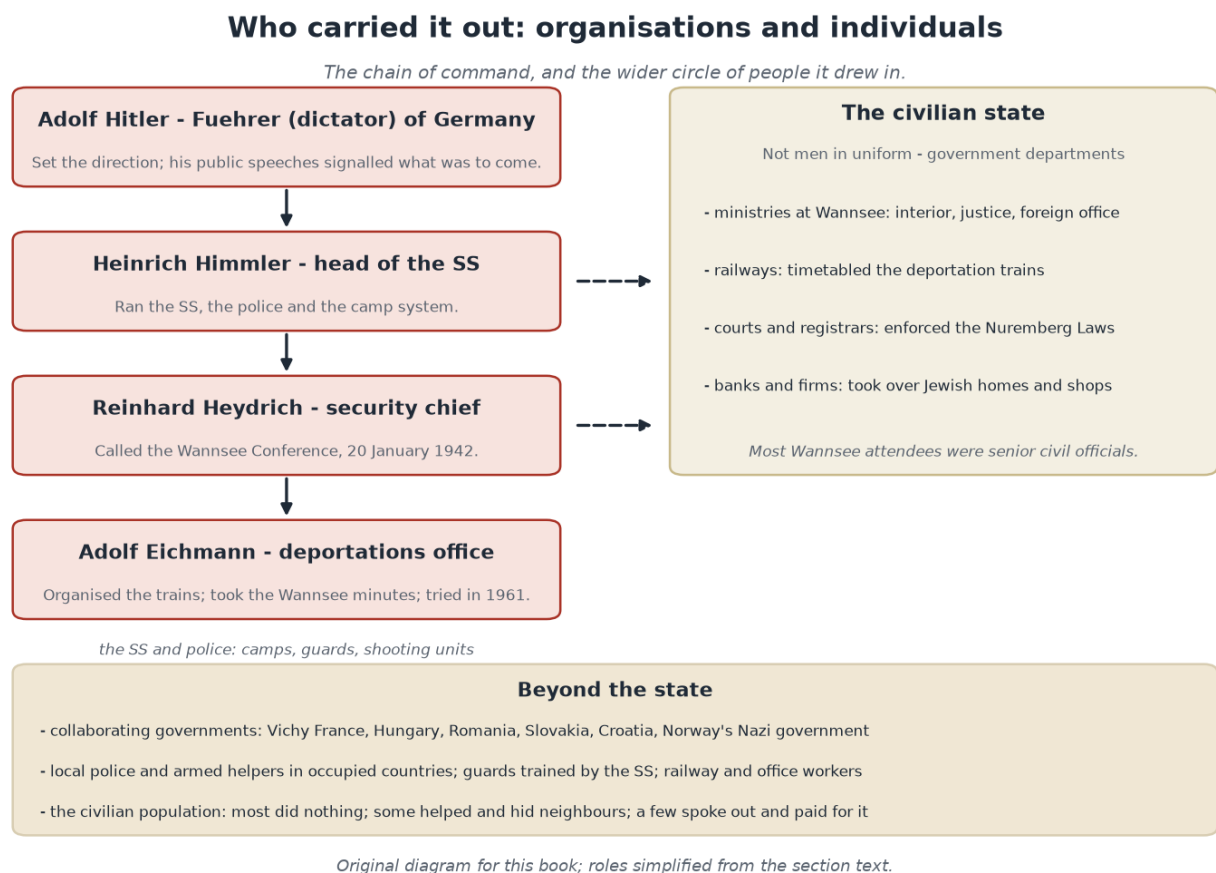
by the state — people were given hours to pack, marched to goods stations and loaded into cattle wagons, often a hundred people to a wagon, with almost no food, water or air. Section 4D’s sources work with survivors’ accounts of these journeys; here the fact to hold is the logistics: thousands of trains, timetabled and paid for, across a continent at war.

Phase 5 — Mass murder (1941–1945). When Germany invaded the Soviet Union in June 1941, mobile killing units called **Einsatzgruppen** — four units, lettered A to D, made up of German security police — followed the army and, with local helpers, shot Jewish communities town by town: more than 1.5 million Jews were shot in the occupied Soviet territories (USHMM and Yad Vashem estimates; retrieved 2026-08-25). At Babyn Yar, a ravine beside Kyiv, German reports recorded that over 33,000 Jews were shot in two days, 29–30 September 1941. From December 1941, gas vans at Chełmno in occupied Poland killed by engine exhaust; in 1942 three purpose-built killing centres — Belżec, Sobibór and Treblinka — began gassing with poison gas, and the vast camp complex of **Auschwitz-Birkenau** in occupied Poland became the biggest site of murder, where arrivals were “selected” — a small share kept for labour, the rest killed in gas chambers. Historians estimate that at least 1.1 million people were killed at Auschwitz, of whom about 960,000 were Jews (USHMM, retrieved 2026-08-25).

Phase 6 — Liberation (1944–1945). As Allied armies closed in, the SS forced tens of thousands of camp prisoners on **death marches** westward, and thousands more died by the roadside. Soviet troops liberated Majdanek in July 1944 and Auschwitz on 27 January 1945; British troops liberated Bergen-Belsen in April 1945. Soldiers found thousands of unburied bodies and survivors too weak to stand. The war in Europe ended in May 1945, but for survivors there was often no home to return to — what came next, including the trials of the perpetrators and the long work of memory, is Section 4D.

Part 2 — Who did it: organisations and individuals

A crime on this scale needed an organisation chart. Figure 2 sets out the main ones named in the curriculum.



Organisation chart of the main organisations and individuals of the Holocaust: Hitler and the Nazi Party, Himmler and the SS, Heydrich and the security police, Eichmann and the deportations office, and the civilian government departments beside them

Figure 2. The chain of command. Notice the second column: the civilian ministries. The Holocaust was carried out by a government — not only by men in uniform.

Adolf Hitler was the **Führer** — the dictator of Germany from 1933 — and his hatred of Jews was at the centre of Nazi ideology (the system of beliefs studied in Section 4A). He gave few written orders for the murder; his speeches did some of that work for him. On 30 January 1939, before any killing centre existed, he told the German parliament that a new world war would mean “*the annihilation of the Jewish race in Europe*” (translation, USHMM Holocaust Encyclopedia, retrieved 2026-08-25). Historians read that sentence today as a signal of intent, delivered in public.

Heinrich Himmler, as **Reichsführer-SS**, turned the **SS** — begun as Hitler’s bodyguard — into a state within the state, running the concentration camps, the police and the deportations. **Reinhard Heydrich**, head of the Reich Security Head Office, chaired the Wannsee Conference (Part 3) until his assassination in 1942. **Adolf Eichmann**, one office below Heydrich, ran the desk that organised the deportation trains; he took the notes at Wannsee, fled to Argentina after the war, was captured in 1960 and stood trial in Jerusalem in 1961, where he was convicted and executed. His trial mattered because it put a face and a file before the world: here was not a monster from a story but an organiser who spoke in timetables.

The civilian population. Most ordinary Germans were not members of the SS. They saw the boycott of 1933, the broken glass of 1938 and the deportations leaving from public stations — and most did nothing to stop it. Some did more than nothing: they hid neighbours, forged papers, or looked away on purpose; a handful spoke out and paid for it. Historians still argue about how much ordinary Germans knew about the killing sites themselves, because the regime used secret language (Part 3) and because “knowing” has degrees — hearing a rumour is not the same as seeing. Both claims deserve their strongest form: the early persecution was unmistakably public, and the final stage of the murder was hidden on purpose, so silence in 1943 is not quite the same evidence as silence in 1935.

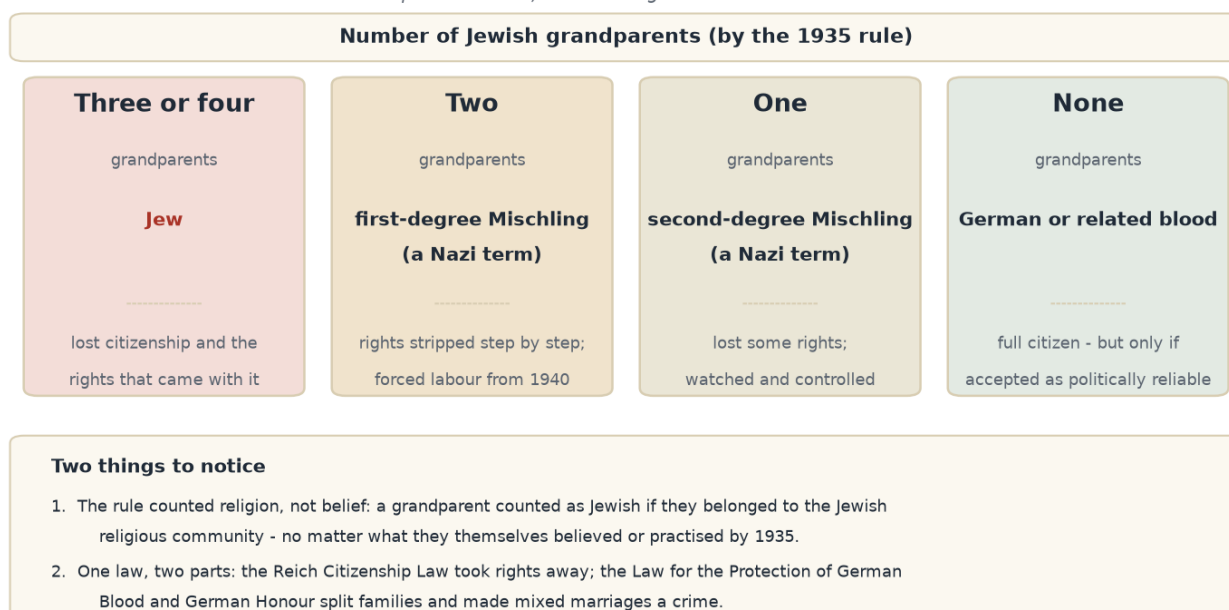
Collaborators and complicit governments. A **collaborator**, in this section, is a person or government under Nazi rule or alliance who actively helped carry out Nazi policies — that is the working definition used here; historians debate where helping ends and surviving begins, and Section 4C tests that line through individual stories. Collaborators included local police and armed helpers in Lithuania, Latvia and Ukraine who joined the shootings; guards trained by the SS; and railway workers, clerks and mayors across Europe without whom no list and no train moved. **Complicit governments** — the wartime French state at Vichy, Hungary, Romania, Slovakia, Croatia, and Norway’s Nazi-appointed government — each handed over Jews within reach, for reasons of their own: alliance, ideology, or the hope of keeping some freedom of action. Where governments refused — and some did, at some moments — far more people lived. That map is Part 4.

Part 3 — Two developments and why they matter

The Nuremberg Laws (15 September 1935). Two laws announced at the Nazi Party’s annual rally in Nuremberg turned hatred into statute. The **Reich Citizenship Law** said that only a person of “*German or related blood*” could be a citizen, which made Jews foreigners in their own country; the **Law for the Protection of German Blood and German Honour** made marriage and sexual relations between Jews and other Germans crimes (USHMM, retrieved 2026-08-25). A follow-up decree of 14 November 1935 drew the line by grandparents: a person with three or four Jewish grandparents was a Jew, whatever they believed or how they lived — and a grandparent counted as Jewish if they belonged to the Jewish religious community (USHMM, retrieved 2026-08-25). Figure 3 shows how the regime’s rule sorted a population.

The Nuremberg Laws sorted people by their grandparents

Passed 15 September 1935; the counting rule was fixed in November 1935.



Original diagram for this book; the categories are the regime's own, shown here to be studied, not accepted.

Diagram of the Nuremberg Laws grandparent rules: four or three Jewish grandparents classified a person as a Jew, two as a first-degree Mischling, one as a second-degree Mischling, and none as a full citizen

Figure 3. The grandparent rule of November 1935. “Mischling” (“mixed”) is the regime’s own term — a label invented to rank people by blood, kept here in quotation marks because it is the Nazis’ language, not ours.

Why it was significant. The Nuremberg Laws are a turning development for three reasons you can test. First, they made persecution *legal*: afterwards, a Jewish person robbed of rights could appeal to no court, because the law itself was the robber. Second, they defined Jewishness by *descent*, not belief — no conversion, no service, no argument could undo a grandparent. Third, they were a rehearsal: the same state machinery — registrars, courts, police — that sorted citizens in 1935 later organised the deportations. Worked inquiry 1 below builds that evaluation step by step.

The Wannsee Conference (20 January 1942). In January 1942, fifteen senior officials of the Nazi Party, the SS and German ministries met in a villa beside Lake Wannsee, near Berlin, at a conference called by Heydrich. Its purpose was to coordinate what the Nazis called the “*Final Solution to the Jewish Question*” — the regime’s **euphemism**, its mild word, chosen on purpose, for the plan to murder the Jews of Europe. A euphemism is a soft word used in place of a hard one; here the softness was the point, hiding the act from the public, from the victims and perhaps from the men doing it (USHMM, retrieved 2026-08-25). The meeting’s minutes, drafted by Eichmann, survive: one copy — the sixteenth of thirty — was found in 1947 among German foreign office files and was used as evidence at the post-war trials. The protocol includes a table counting the Jews of Europe, country by country, at about 11 million — including countries Germany did not yet hold, such as Britain, Ireland and Switzerland (Figure 4).

The Wannsee Protocol counted Jews across a whole continent

Selected rows from the table in the minutes, 20 January 1942.

Country or territory named in the document	Number given
Germany	131,800
Austria	43,700
Bohemia and Moravia	74,200
Estonia	0 (the document says 'free of Jews')
Latvia	3,500
Lithuania	34,000
Belgium	43,000
Denmark	5,600
France (occupied part)	165,000
France (unoccupied part)	700,000
Greece	69,600
Netherlands	160,800
Norway	1,300
Hungary	742,800
England *	330,000
Ireland *	4,000
Switzerland *	18,000
Total written in the document	over 11,000,000

* Never occupied by Germany - the plan reached for countries it did not even hold.

The numbers plan the murder of every Jew in Europe, including neutral and enemy countries.

Original diagram for this book; figures are the Protocol's own (standard published translations).

Reproduction of selected rows from the statistics table in the Wannsee Protocol of January 1942, listing the number of Jews in European countries including countries not occupied by Germany, with the document's own total of about eleven million

Figure 4. Selected rows from the Wannsee Protocol's own table, in translation. Read the last rows carefully: England, Ireland and Switzerland were never occupied. The table is evidence of how far the plan was meant to reach.

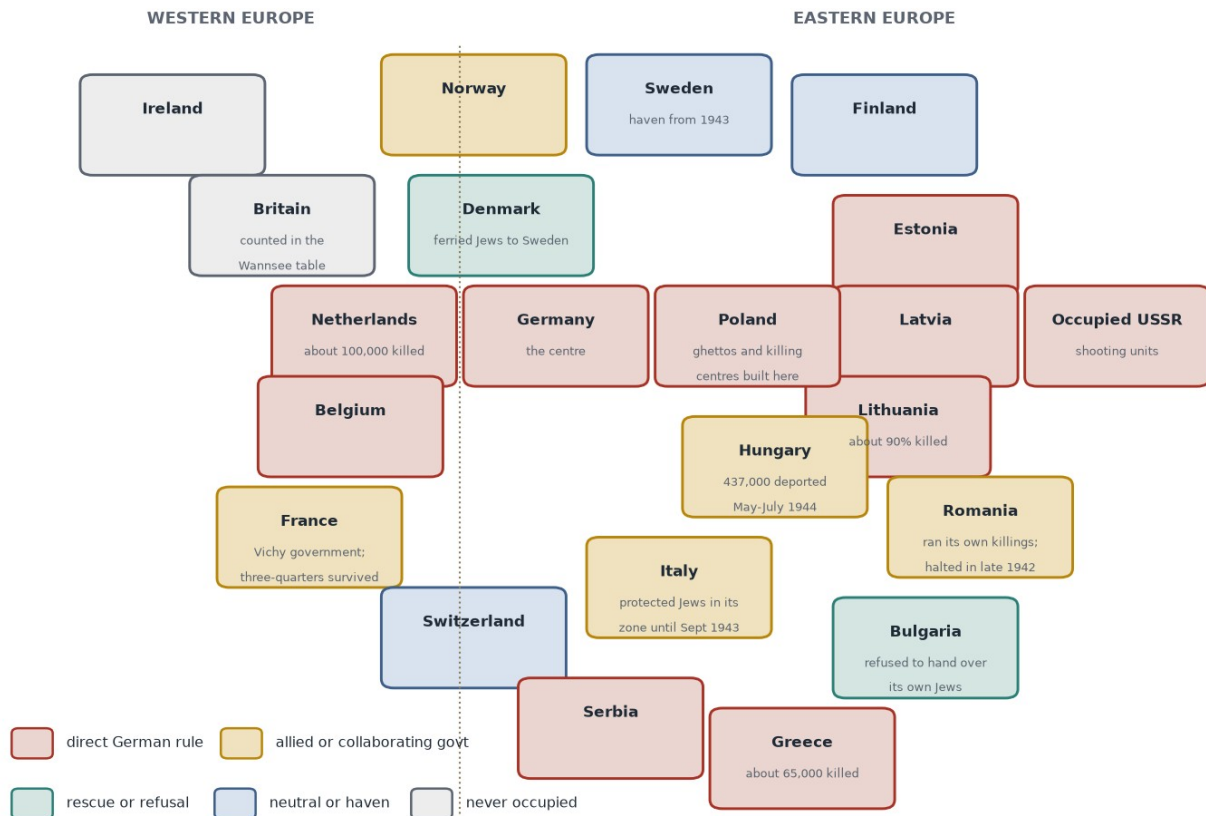
Why it was significant. Wannsee decided nothing new — killing was already underway in the east. Its significance is different and worth stating exactly: it shows the murder becoming *administrative*. Fifteen officials of state, in suits, around a table, with minutes and copies; railways, foreign office and ministries folding the killings into their ordinary work. The surviving document also matters as evidence: because the regime spoke in euphemisms, the protocol's cool table is one of the clearest surviving records of what "Final Solution" meant in practice. Worked inquiry 2 models the evaluation, and Figure 12 gives you a finished paragraph, annotated.

The language question. Notice the pattern: *identification*, *evacuation* (the Nazis' word for deportation), *special treatment* (their word for killing), *Final Solution*. Each word hid what it stood for. Historians treat this language as evidence twice over: it shows *what was done*, and it shows that the doers *knew it needed hiding*. When you quote Nazi terms in your own writing, put them in quotation marks, as this section does — quoting a word is not the same as adopting it.

Part 4 — Responses: mapping eastern and western Europe

The Holocaust was carried out from Berlin, but it happened *through* Europe — and Europe did not respond one way. Figure 5 maps the countries of this section; Figure 6 sets their responses side by side.

Responses across Europe, east and west



Schematic thinking map: tiles sit at rough positions only; no published map was copied.

Schematic map of Europe during the Holocaust with countries coloured by response: governments allied to Germany, German-occupied countries, and countries or communities that refused or rescued, with Sweden marked as a place of refuge

Figure 5. Where is where. Schematic map — positions and borders are simplified for study. Sweden stayed neutral and took in refugees from Denmark and Norway.

Ten responses, east and west

What governments did - and what it meant for their Jewish citizens.

Country	Side	What the government did	Outcome for Jews
Poland	East	occupied; no national government left	about 90% of Jews killed
Lithuania	East	local armed helpers joined the killing	about 90% killed - highest rate in Europe
Hungary	East	ally; refused to hand Jews over until March 1944	437,000 deported in eight weeks, 1944
Romania	East	ally; ran its own killings; halted in late 1942	about 300,000 killed
Bulgaria	East	ally; refused to deport its own 48,000 Jews	its own Jews survived
Denmark	West	occupied; warning leaked in September 1943	about 7,200 of 7,800 ferried to Sweden
Norway	West	Nazi-run government; resistance helped escapes	over 900 escaped to Sweden
Netherlands	West	direct German rule; detailed population records	about 100,000 of 140,000 killed
France	West	Vichy state made its own laws; police rounded up Jews	about 76,000 deported; three-quarters survived
Italy	West	ally; protected Jews in its zone until Sept 1943	about 8,000 Italian Jews killed

Same order from Germany - different results. The difference was made by governments, officials, police and neighbours.

Original diagram for this book; figures are rounded estimates given in the section text.

Table comparing how occupied and allied countries in eastern and western Europe responded to the Holocaust, with the status of each government and the outcome for Jewish residents

Figure 6. Ten responses, east and west. The last column is the one to read against the others.

Five ghettos

Ghettos were fenced city districts where Jews were forced to live before deportation.

Ghetto	Where	Set up	People	What happened
Warsaw	Poland	sealed Nov 1940	over 400,000 packed in	about 265,000 sent to Treblinka from July 1942; uprising April 1943
Lodz	Poland	set up 1940	about 160,000	last major ghetto emptied, Aug 1944
Vilnius	Lithuania	set up Sept 1941	about 40,000	most residents shot at Ponary, close by
Krakow	Poland	set up March 1941	15,000-20,000	emptied March 1943; residents sent to camps
Theresienstadt	Czechoslovakia	from Nov 1941	about 140,000 passed through	shown off for propaganda; most sent east to killing sites

Living conditions: forced inside, fenced off, starving rations, disease, forced labour.

Ghettos were a holding stage - people were concentrated there, then deported to killing sites.

Original diagram for this book; figures are rounded estimates given in the section text.

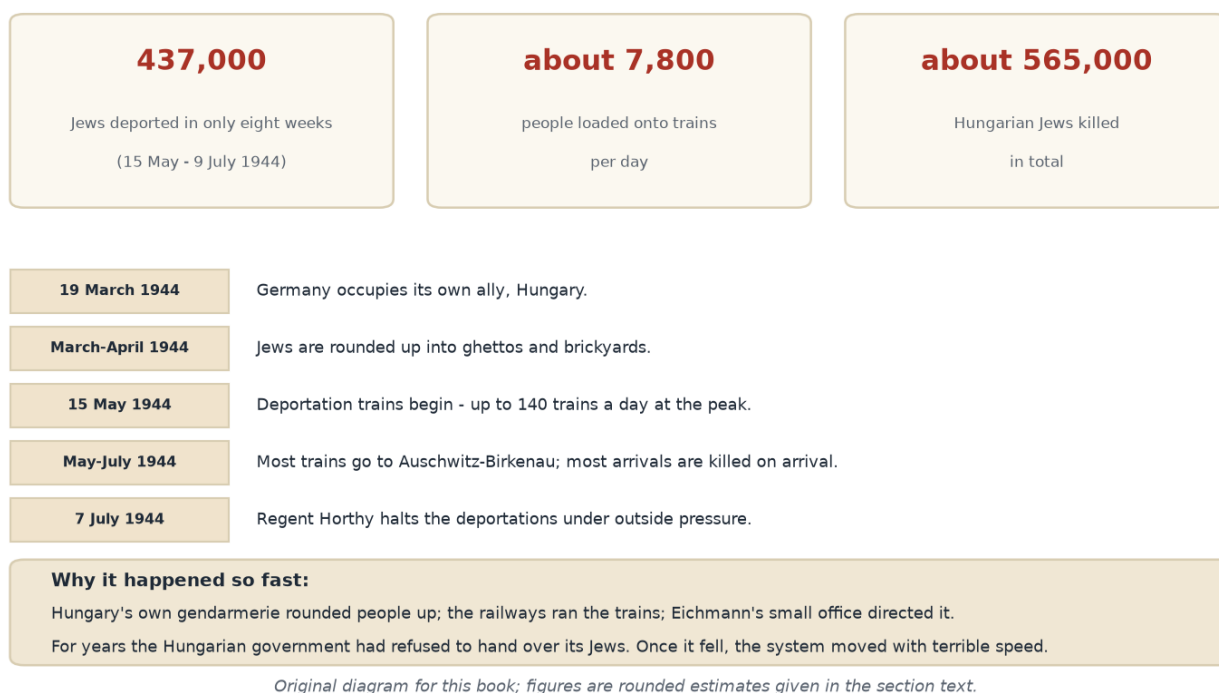
Table of five major ghettos of the Holocaust with the year each was established, the number of people held at its height, and what happened to them

Figure 7. Five of the largest ghettos. Ghettoisation was concentrated in the east because that was where Europe's largest Jewish communities lived.

Eastern Europe: under direct German rule. Poland, the Baltic states, and the occupied parts of the Soviet Union were governed by Germany itself, with no national government left to answer for anything. There the killing was direct: ghettos, Einsatzgruppen shootings, and the killing centres the Germans built on occupied Polish soil. In Lithuania, local armed helpers joined the German units, and around nine of every ten Lithuanian Jews were killed — the highest share in Europe. Romania, Germany's ally, organised its own mass killings of Jews in the territories it seized, killing about 300,000 people (USHMM estimates run from 280,000 to 380,000; retrieved 2026-08-25), but the Romanian government stopped deporting its remaining Jews from late 1942, as the war turned. Hungary, also an ally, refused for years to hand over its Jews; after Germany occupied Hungary in March 1944, that protection collapsed. Figure 8 shows what followed.

Hungary, May-July 1944: eight weeks

The fastest mass deportation of the whole war.



Panel showing the deportation of Hungarian Jews: 437,000 people deported in the eight weeks from mid-May to early July 1944, an average of about 7,800 people per day, most of them to Auschwitz-Birkenau

Figure 8. Hungary, May–July 1944. The speed is the point: the machinery described in Part 3 could still run at full scale in 1944, when Germany was losing the war.

Western Europe: occupied, allied, or caught between. Denmark was occupied but its king, government and courts stayed in place until 1943. When the Germans moved to arrest Denmark's Jews in October 1943, word leaked, and in three weeks Danish fishermen and neighbours ferried about 7,200 of the country's roughly 7,800 Jews across the sea to neutral Sweden; fewer than 500 were deported (USHMM, retrieved 2026-08-25). In the Netherlands, under direct German rule, about 100,000 of the country's 140,000 Jews were killed — the highest share in western Europe, helped along by thorough population registers and flat, open country with few places to hide. In France, the German-occupied north was run from Paris by collaboration, and the French **Vichy** government in the south passed its own anti-Jewish laws: in July 1942 French police arrested more than 13,000 Jews in Paris and held them in a sports stadium before deportation. About 76,000 Jews were deported from France, fewer than 3,000 of whom came back — yet about three-quarters of the Jews in France survived, hidden or sheltered by French households, churches and officials who said no (figures from the USHMM Holocaust Encyclopedia, retrieved 2026-08-25). Norway's Nazi-appointed government arrested its Jews with German help — about 770 were deported — while the Norwegian resistance helped more than 900 escape to Sweden. Italy, Germany's ally, protected the Jews in its own zone until Germany took over the country in September 1943; about 8,000 Italian Jews were killed in all. And Bulgaria, Germany's ally, stopped the planned deportation of its own 48,000 Jews in March 1943 after protests by church leaders and members of parliament — while handing over about 11,000 Jews from the territories it occupied. Bulgaria shows the whole pattern in one country: refusal at home, complicity abroad.

Explaining the differences. Why did responses differ so much? Four causes do most of the work, and they are worth naming because Section 8B will ask you to sort causes like these. *Control*: where Germany ruled directly (Poland, the Netherlands), little could stand in its way; where some national authority survived (Denmark, France, Bulgaria), there was room to refuse. *Timing*: refusals clustered from 1942–43 onward, when Germany began to lose — governments calculated. *Local attitudes*: long-settled communities with citizens' standing, as in Denmark, were harder to hand over than newly occupied lands, and local antisemitism — hostility toward Jews — shaped how eagerly some helpers joined in. *Individual choices*: a leaked warning, a ferry captain, a registrar who fudged a record — the map is made of

thousands of small decisions. The strongest case *for* stressing control and terror is that refusal could be fatal, and whole populations lived under occupation they had not chosen; the strongest case *for* stressing choice is that under nearly identical occupation, outcomes differed — Denmark and the Netherlands, neighbours on the same sea, sit at opposite ends of the table. A good explanation uses both causes and says which weighed more, where.

Worked inquiries

Worked inquiry 1 — Why were the Nuremberg Laws a turning development? Watch how dated facts do the arguing.

Step	What we do	Example answer
1. Describe	Say what happened, with dates.	On 15 September 1935 two laws stripped Jews of German citizenship and banned marriage between Jews and other Germans; a decree of 14 November 1935 defined Jewishness by grandparents (Figure 3).
2. Consequence	Name what changed because of it.	Afterwards, persecution was <i>legal</i> : courts, registrars and police became the instruments of discrimination, and Jewish Germans lost every citizen's avenue of appeal.
3. Connection	Link it to what came after.	The same registers and definitions sorted who would later wear the star, lose their shop, and board the trains; the state machinery rehearsed in 1935 organised the deportations from 1941.
4. Significance test	Quantity, depth, durability.	Quantity: about 500,000 German Jews were affected. Depth: it reached into marriage, work and school. Durability: its definitions were still deciding fates a decade later.
5. Counter-weight	Meet the other side fairly.	One could argue the laws only wrote down what was already happening — boycotts and violence preceded them. That is true, and it is exactly why they mattered: they turned street violence into state policy that outlived any individual riot.

Worked inquiry 2 — Why did Denmark and France respond so differently? Build the comparison in pairs before judging.

Pair	Denmark	France
Status under Germany	Occupied 1940; own government stayed until 1943	Occupied in the north; collaborationist Vichy government in the south
Who carried out arrests	German forces, met with a leaked warning and mass flight	French police arrested more than 13,000 in Paris in July 1942
Outcome	About 7,200 of about 7,800 Jews reached Sweden	About 76,000 deported; about three-quarters of Jews in France survived through hiding and help

Pair	Denmark	France
Cause that weighs most	A national authority and a sea route to a neutral country survived	The state itself chose to cooperate, though thousands of ordinary French people refused

Both countries complicate any simple story: Denmark's rescue needed Sweden's open door, and France's survival figures needed ordinary citizens who broke their own government's rules. Comparison teaches that "a country responded" is shorthand for many different choices.

Source inquiry — a letter between two powerful men, 31 July 1941

Between Hitler's public speeches and the trains of 1942–1944 sits the paperwork. On 31 July 1941, Hermann Göring — the second most powerful man in the Nazi state — sent a short letter to Reinhard Heydrich. Figure 9 reproduces it in translation. It is a **primary source**: a record made at the time, by a person inside the events. It was later used as evidence at the post-war trials of Nazi leaders.

TRANSLATION OF AN OFFICIAL LETTER

Goering to Heydrich, 31 July 1941

Berlin, 31 July 1941

To SS-Obergruppenführer Heydrich.

In addition to the task already given to you in the order of 24 January 1939 - to solve the Jewish question through emigration and evacuation, as the conditions allow - I now ask you to make every needed preparation, in organisation, practice and materials, for a total solution of the Jewish question in the German sphere of influence in Europe.

Where the duties of other central offices are touched, they are to be included.

Further, I ask you to send me soon an overall plan of the organisation, practice and materials needed to carry out the intended final solution of the Jewish question.

Signed: Goering

Source: letter from Hermann Goering to Reinhard Heydrich, 31 July 1941. Translation prepared for this section from the German original; the letter was used as evidence at the post-war trials. Notice the plain, office-like language - and the words that hide what they mean.

Reproduction in translation of Hermann Göring's letter of 31 July 1941 to Reinhard Heydrich commissioning preparations for a total solution and an overall plan for the final solution of the Jewish Question

Figure 9. The Göring letter, 31 July 1941, in translation (original: German). Note the two Nazi terms — "total solution" and "final solution" — and what they sit beside: "organisational, practical and material measures", the language of an office memo.

Figure 10 gives you the questions to put to it — the same frame Sections 7C and 7D teach in depth.

Reading the Goering letter like a historian

Six question frames, applied to one source.



Original diagram for this book; the frames follow the source-analysis steps used through this book.

Question frame for reading the Göring letter: origin, audience and purpose, content and language, silences, checks and inference

Figure 10. The questions to ask of the Göring letter — and of any source in this section.

One inference to practise: the letter *assigns* responsibility (“I hereby commission you”), which tells historians the plan was ordered from the top of the state, by men who could command ministries. One silence to name: nowhere does the letter say what “final solution” would mean for living people. The euphemism is doing its work. To check the inference, corroborate — compare with a second source: the Wannsee Protocol of January 1942 (Figure 4) shows the commission carried out, six months later, in a table of eleven million.

Practice — scaffolded

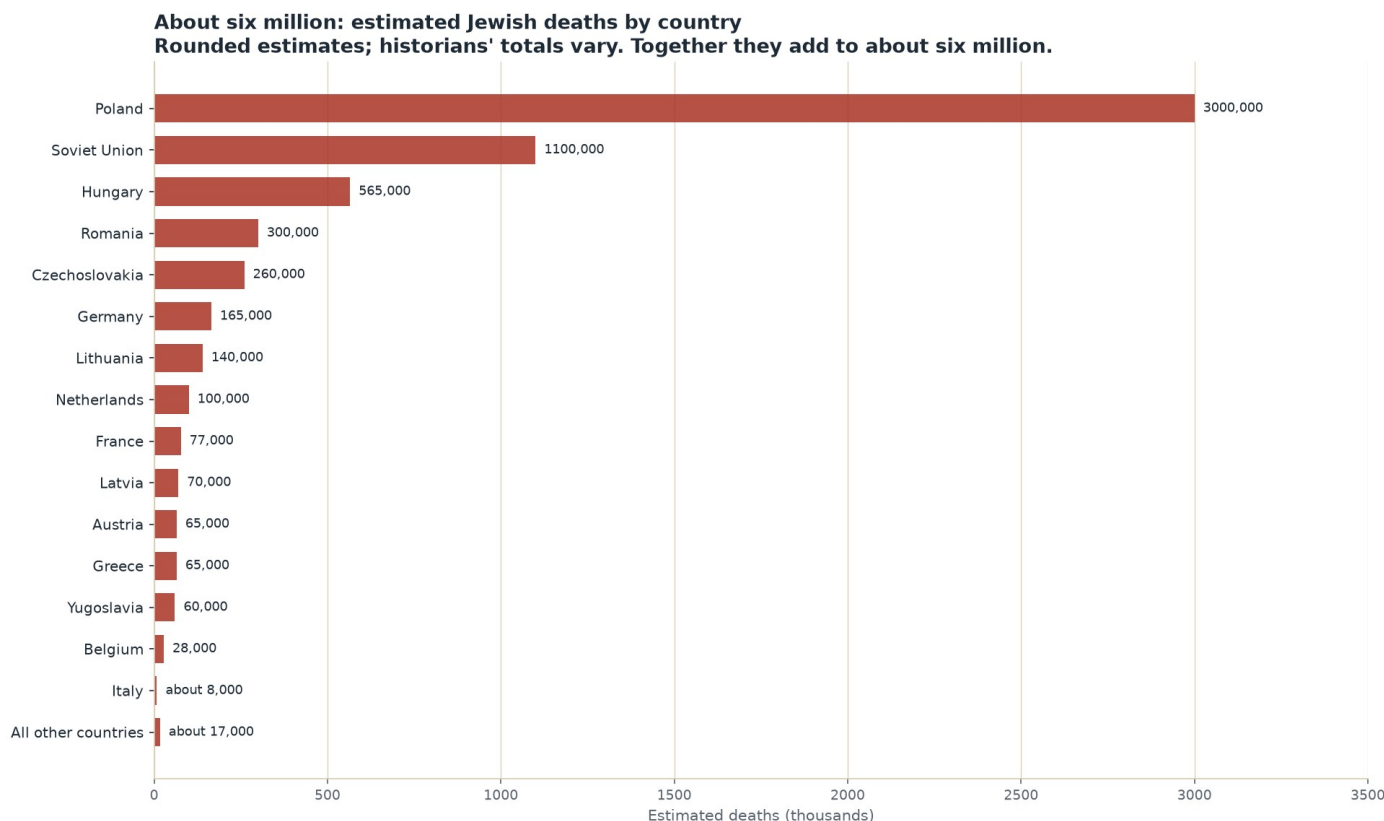
1. Place the phases. Copy the table and complete it using Figure 1. One row is done for you.

Phase	One dated event from this section
Identification	Jewish Germans made to wear the yellow star, 1941
Exclusion	
Ghettoisation	
Deportation	
Mass murder	
Liberation	

2. Put six events in order. Using the section text, order these from earliest to latest: the Wannsee Conference; the boycott of Jewish shops; the sealing of the Warsaw ghetto; the November Pogrom; the liberation of Auschwitz; the Nuremberg Laws. Which two events on your list are about three years apart?

3. Sort by the grandparent rule. Using Figure 3, classify each person: (a) a woman with four Jewish grandparents; (b) a man with one Jewish grandparent; (c) a boy with two Jewish grandparents who belonged to the Jewish religious community; (d) a girl with no Jewish grandparents. Then answer: what does the rule tell you about how the Nazis defined Jewishness — by belief, or by descent?

4. Read the death-toll chart. From Figure 11: (a) in which country were the most Jews killed, and roughly how many? (b) Name two countries where more than 100,000 were killed. (c) Finish this sentence with a historical claim, not a repeat of the numbers: “The fact that most of the killing happened in eastern Europe shows that ...”



Bar chart of estimated numbers of Jews killed in the Holocaust by country, from Poland at about three million down through the Soviet Union, Hungary, Romania and others, totalling about six million

Figure 11. Estimated Jewish deaths by country. Figures are rounded estimates and historians' counts vary slightly by source; the total is about six million (USHMM and Yad Vashem, retrieved 2026-08-25).

5. Use the responses table. From Figure 6: (a) name two allied governments that refused, at some point, to hand over all their Jews; (b) name two occupied countries where rescue or escape efforts saved large numbers; (c) which western European country lost the highest share of its Jews?

6. Origin questions for the Göring letter. Using only the provenance in Figure 9 and the source inquiry text, answer: Who wrote it, and what was his position? To whom was it sent, and what was that man's role? On what date was it written — and what had Germany already done to the Jews of the Soviet Union by then (Part 1, Phase 5)?

Practice — unscaffolded

7. Evaluate a development. Choose the **Wannsee Conference** or the **Nuremberg Laws**. In one paragraph (5–7 sentences), evaluate its significance using at least two dated facts and two of the significance tests (quantity, depth, durability, or what it reveals as evidence). Figure 12 shows the standard.

One model paragraph, six moves

The finished response to practice question 10, with each sentence labelled.

CLAIM	The Wannsee Conference was significant not for what it decided but for what it shows.
EVIDENCE WITH DATES	On 20 January 1942, fifteen senior officials of the Nazi Party, the SS and government ministries met near Berlin to coordinate one plan across the whole of German-ruled Europe.
SCALE	The minutes themselves counted about eleven million Jews across the continent - including countries Germany did not even hold.
SIGNIFICANCE TEST: EVIDENCE	As evidence its value is rare beyond price: the regime hid its acts, yet here is its own paperwork, in its own words, signed by its own officials.
COUNTERWEIGHT	Historians rightly note that Wannsee decided nothing new - killing was already under way - and one meeting did not run the whole process.
VERDICT	That is exactly why its significance lies in coordination, scale and evidence: it marks the moment the murder of a people became a shared project of the whole state.

Original diagram for this book; the paragraph is the model response in the Answers section.

Annotated model paragraph evaluating the significance of the Wannsee Conference, with each sentence labelled to show its move: claim, dated evidence, explanation, significance test and counter-weight

Figure 12. A model evaluation of the Wannsee Conference. Steal its moves, not its facts — task 7 lets you choose either development.

8. The steelman task. “Occupied countries had no real choice — Germany could do what it wanted.” Write one paragraph arguing *for* that claim using evidence from this section, and one paragraph arguing *against* it, each at full strength. Then give your own verdict in two sentences, saying which cause weighed more and where. (Denmark, the Netherlands, France and Bulgaria are your best evidence.)

9. The language task. Explain, in 4–6 sentences, why the Nazi regime used words like “evacuation” and “Final Solution” instead of naming the murder, and why historians treat those words as evidence *about* the regime, not just as labels for events. Include one more euphemism from this section, translated into plain words.

10. Mapping and causes. Choose one country from eastern Europe and one from western Europe in Figure 6. Compare their responses in one paragraph, then explain one cause of the difference using the language of causes (short-term/long-term, intended/unintended — Section 8B). Your explanation must name at least one dated fact for each country.

Answers

1. Models — any dated event from the section will do. Exclusion: Nuremberg Laws, 15 September 1935 (or the boycott, 1 April 1933; the November Pogrom, 9–10 November 1938). Ghettoisation: Warsaw ghetto sealed, November 1940 (or Łódź ghetto, April 1940). Deportation: Hungarian deportations begin, mid-May 1944 (or deportations to killing centres from 1942). Mass murder: killings at Babyn Yar, 29–30 September 1941 (or gassing at Auschwitz-Birkenau, from 1942). Liberation: Auschwitz liberated, 27 January 1945 (or Majdanek, July 1944).

2. Boycott of Jewish shops (1 April 1933) → Nuremberg Laws (15 September 1935) → November Pogrom (9–10 November 1938) → Warsaw ghetto sealed (November 1940) → Wannsee Conference (20 January 1942) → liberation of Auschwitz (27 January 1945). The Nuremberg Laws (September 1935) and the November Pogrom (November 1938) are about three years apart.

3. (a) “Jew” under the regime’s law. (b) “Mischling, second degree” in the regime’s language. (c) “Jew” — two Jewish grandparents plus membership of the Jewish religious community was enough under the November 1935 decree. (d) full citizen, “of German or related blood”. The rule defined Jewishness by *descent* — by ancestors — not by belief: no faith, baptism or way of life could change a grandparent.

4. (a) Poland — about three million. (b) Any two of: the Soviet Union (about 1.1 million), Hungary (about 565,000), Romania (about 300,000), Czechoslovakia (about 260,000), Germany (about 165,000), Lithuania (about 140,000), the Netherlands (about 100,000). (c) Any claim that uses the geography as evidence — for example: “... the killing centres and the shooting sites were built where the Germans ruled directly, in the east, where most of Europe’s Jews already lived.”

5. (a) Any two of: Hungary (until March 1944), Romania (from late 1942), Bulgaria (for its own citizens), Italy (until September 1943), Denmark (never agreed). (b) Any two of: Denmark (about 7,200 ferried to Sweden), Norway (more than 900 escaped to Sweden), France (about three-quarters survived through hiding and help). (c) The Netherlands — about 100,000 of about 140,000.

6. Who wrote it: Hermann Göring, the second most powerful man in the Nazi state. To whom: Reinhard Heydrich, head of the Reich Security Head Office and the man who chaired the Wannsee Conference. Date: 31 July 1941 — by which time the Einsatzgruppen had already been shooting Jewish communities in the occupied Soviet Union for about five weeks (the invasion began in June 1941).

7–10. There is no single right answer; the checklist is: at least two dated facts and two significance tests, with the development’s importance *as evidence today* addressed (7); both sides argued at full strength before any verdict, with the verdict naming a place and a cause (8); the explanation linking euphemism to *concealment* — audience, motive, and what the language hides — plus a correctly translated example such as “special treatment” = killing, or “evacuation” = deportation (9); one country per half of Europe, a genuine comparison (not two separate descriptions), and one cause of the difference stated with a dated fact on each side (10).

Model response (for task 7, Wannsee Conference)

The Wannsee Conference was significant less for what it decided than for what it shows. On 20 January 1942, fifteen senior officials of the Nazi Party, the SS and German ministries met near Berlin to coordinate the plan the regime called the “Final Solution to the Jewish Question” — and the minutes they left show murder becoming administrative: copies, a chair, a table of figures, railways and ministries folded into the work of killing. On quantity, the protocol’s own table counted about 11 million Jews across Europe, including countries Germany did not hold, such as Britain and Ireland, which is evidence of how far the plan was meant to reach. On what it reveals, the document is priceless: because the regime hid its acts behind words like “evacuation”, the protocol is one of the clearest surviving records of what those words stood for. However, a historian would rightly point out that Wannsee decided nothing new — by January 1942 the Einsatzgruppen had already shot more than a million Jews in the east, and Chelmno was already gassing. That is exactly why the meeting’s significance lies in coordination and evidence, not in starting the murder: it shows how deep into the ordinary state the killing had reached, and it left the paper to prove it.

Looking back. You can now set out the Holocaust as six phases on a timeline, name the organisations and individuals who carried it out, evaluate the significance of the Nuremberg Laws and the Wannsee Conference, and map how countries across eastern and western Europe responded. The questions get harder from here: what the experience was like for individuals — Jewish and non-Jewish — is Section 4C; what the Holocaust changed afterwards, from the

trials to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, is Sections 4D and 6B; and the formal criteria behind every significance judgement you made here are Section 8C.

Sources for this section (all figures in this section are original, drawn for this book; maps are schematic and positions approximate).

- Victorian Curriculum 2.0, History, Levels 9 and 10: VC2HH10K21 with elaborations .E01–.E04 (VCAA export, 29 July 2026).
- United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, *Holocaust Encyclopedia* (encyclopedia.ushmm.org): definition of the Holocaust; the Nuremberg Laws and the grandparent decree of November 1935; the November Pogrom 1938; the Warsaw and other ghettos; Einsatzgruppen and Babyn Yar; Auschwitz-Birkenau death estimates; the Wannsee Conference and protocol; the Göring letter of 31 July 1941; deportations from Hungary (about 437,000, May–July 1944); the rescue of Danish Jews (October 1943); deportations from France and the Netherlands; Romania, Bulgaria, Italy and Norway — retrieved 2026-08-25.
- Yad Vashem, Jerusalem (yadvashem.org): the Righteous Among the Nations; Holocaust death tolls by country (rounded estimates used in Figure 11); the Wannsee Protocol translation held in its document archive — retrieved 2026-08-25.
- Adolf Hitler, speech to the German parliament (Reichstag), 30 January 1939; translation per the USHMM Encyclopedia entry on the speech.
- Hermann Göring to Reinhard Heydrich, letter, 31 July 1941; translation prepared for this section from the German text as published in the USHMM and Yad Vashem document collections; the original was used as evidence at the post-war trials.
- Wannsee Protocol, 20 January 1942 (copy 16 of 30, found among German foreign office records in 1947); table rows in Figure 4 are a transcription of the standard English translation; the document is held at the Political Archive of the German Federal Foreign Office.
- Death tolls by country (Figure 11) are rounded to the nearest 5,000 from the published estimates of USHMM and Yad Vashem; historians' figures vary within the ranges given, and the total of about six million is the scholarly consensus of both institutions.

Jewish and non-Jewish experiences of the Holocaust

Curriculum trace. VC2HH10K22 — Historical Knowledge and Understanding · Investigation:

Australians at war (1914–1945). Elaborations drawn on (linkage only, D7): .E01, .E02, .E03, .E04.

This section is about people. Section 4A traced how Nazi Germany moved, step by step, from **antisemitism** (hatred of Jewish people) to **genocide** (the deliberate attempt to destroy a whole people). That process is called the **Holocaust**: the **systematic** — planned and carried out step by step — **persecution** (cruel treatment, backed by the state) and murder of six million Jewish people between 1933 and 1945. Here we stay close to individual lives, Jewish and non-Jewish, and ask what each person lived through, what each person saw, and what each person did.

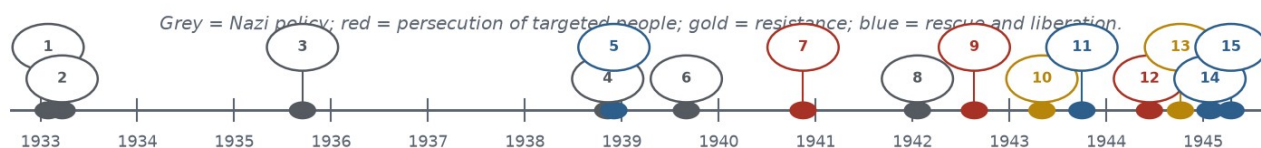
Two habits carry through every part. First, every person on these pages is real: named, dated, and checkable against the sources listed at the end. Second, a **perspective** is a view from one person's position. Two people can stand in the same street in 1943 and see different things. We collect those views without forcing them into one story, and we always ask who is speaking.

A note before we begin: this is heavy material. It is normal to read slowly and to stop and think. The section never shows cruel pictures, and it never softens what happened either. That respect — for the dead and for you — is the rule of the house.

Part 1 — The shape of the years, 1933 to 1945

Meet the people only after the frame is fixed. Figure 1 puts fifteen dated events on one line and colours them by kind: grey for the moves of the Nazi **regime** (the government, here the Nazi government), red for the persecution that fell on targeted people, gold for resistance, blue for rescue and liberation.

The Holocaust in time: events this section uses



- 1 Hitler appointed head of government of Germany
30 January 1933
- 2 Dachau camp opens, first political prisoners
22 March 1933
- 3 Nuremberg Laws strip rights from Jews
15 September 1935
- 4 Kristallnacht pogrom, Germany and Austria
9-10 November 1938
- 5 First Kindertransport arrives in Britain
2 December 1938
- 6 War begins; 'euthanasia' order signed, backdated
1 September 1939
- 7 Warsaw ghetto sealed
15-16 November 1940
- 8 Wannsee Conference
20 January 1942

- 9 Warsaw ghetto: mass deportations to Treblinka
July-September 1942
- 10 Warsaw ghetto uprising
19 April - 16 May 1943
- 11 Danish rescue across the Sound
October 1943
- 12 Hungarian Jews deported to Auschwitz-Birkenau
May-July 1944
- 13 Auschwitz Sonderkommando uprising
7 October 1944
- 14 Red Army frees Auschwitz
27 January 1945
- 15 British troops free Bergen-Belsen
15 April 1945

Timeline of fifteen dated events between 1933 and 1945, coloured by kind: regime moves in grey, persecution in red, resistance in gold, rescue and liberation in blue

Figure 1. The Holocaust in time: the events this section returns to. Read the line at a glance: persecution begins in 1933, not with the war in 1939; the fastest killing is packed into 1942-45; and the gold and blue events sit inside the red years, not after them.

Hold three things from Figure 1. One, the years 1933 to 1939 were not quiet: rights were stripped year by year, and the **Kristallnacht** pogrom of 9-10 November 1938 — a **pogrom** is an organised mob attack on a group of people, its homes and its **synagogues** (Jewish places of worship) — showed where things were heading. Two, 1942, the year of the **Wannsee Conference** and the mass **deportations** (forced removals, here in locked trains) from the Warsaw **ghetto** (a sealed part of a city where Jewish people were forced to live), was the deadliest year of all. Three, resistance and rescue happened *during* the killing, not after it. That third fact is the heart of this section.

1. Figure 1 sorts its fifteen events into four colours. List the event numbers under each colour, then write one sentence per colour: taken as a whole, what does that group tell you about these twelve years?

Part 2 — Six lives: a biographical exhibition (E01)

Elaboration E01 asks you to create a **biographical** exhibition — a display of short life stories. A **biography** is an account of one person's life; an exhibition sets several side by side so the variety can be seen. The variety is the point. The Holocaust did not fall on one kind of life. It fell on babies, teenagers, parents and old people, in many countries and many languages.

Figure 2 gives six life cards, chosen to spread across countries, ages and fates. Read them slowly: they are the evidence bank for this part.

Six lives, six ways through the Holocaust

A biographical exhibition wall. Every card carries a dated fact and the kind of source that tells it.

Anne Frank 1929-1945 Germany, then the Netherlands A teenager in hiding Hid in Amsterdam, July 1942 - August 1944; arrested 4 August 1944; died at Bergen-Belsen, February-March 1945. <i>Source: Her diary (a primary source)</i>	Alfred Dubs born 1932 Czechoslovakia, then Britain A child sent to safety Left Prague on a Kindertransport in March 1939, aged 6; grew up in Britain and entered politics. <i>Source: Transport records; his own accounts</i>	Edith Stein 1891-1942 Germany, then the Netherlands A convert to Catholicism Born Jewish, baptised Catholic in 1922, became a nun; arrested 2 August 1942 and killed at Auschwitz. <i>Source: Church and camp records</i>
Eva Schloss born 1929 Austria, then the Netherlands In hiding, then the camps Fled Vienna for Amsterdam in 1938; hid from 1942; captured 11 May 1944; survived Auschwitz. <i>Source: Her memoir Eva's Story (1988)</i>	Primo Levi 1919-1987 Italy A prisoner of the camps Arrested December 1943; Auschwitz from February 1944, prisoner no. 174517; freed 27 January 1945. <i>Source: His memoir If This Is a Man (1947)</i>	Elie Wiesel 1928-2016 Sighet (then Hungary, now Romania) From ghetto to camps Forced into the Sighet ghetto at 15 in 1944, then Auschwitz and Buchenwald; his father died there. <i>Source: His memoir Night (1958)</i>

Six life cards for Anne Frank, Alfred Dubs, Edith Stein, Eva Schloss, Primo Levi and Elie Wiesel, each with life dates, a place, one tag and one dated fact with its source

Figure 2. Six lives. Check the spread for yourself: different countries (Germany, Czechoslovakia, the Netherlands, Austria, Italy, Romania-Hungary), different ages (from a child of six to adults), and fates that split between survival and murder. No single life stands for the whole.

Figure 3 then matches every experience type that E01 names to at least one of these lives, with a dated piece of evidence.

Every experience the curriculum names, matched to a life

E01 asks for variety: different countries, ages and experiences.

Experience	A person in this section	Dated evidence
Emigration (escape abroad)	Alfred Dubs, aged 6	Kindertransport from Prague, March 1939
Hiding	Anne Frank; Eva Schloss	Secret annex, Amsterdam, July 1942 - August 1944
Ghettoisation	Elie Wiesel, aged 15	Sighet ghetto, spring 1944
Work and death camps	Primo Levi; Elie Wiesel; Edith Stein	Auschwitz, February 1944 - January 1945
Conversion	Edith Stein	Baptised Catholic 1922; killed 9 August 1942
Joining the resistance	Mordechai Anielewicz, aged 24	Warsaw ghetto uprising, April - May 1943

Conversions did not change who the Nazis called Jewish: Nazi policy was racial, not religious. Edith Stein was killed despite her baptism. That is one reason historians call the Holocaust racial persecution.

Table matching each experience type named by the curriculum — emigration, hiding, ghettoisation, work and death camps, conversion, joining the resistance — to a person from Figure 2 and a dated piece of evidence

Figure 3. Every experience the elaboration names, matched to a life. Read the conversion row carefully: Edith Stein had become a Catholic nun, yet she was killed all the same, because Nazi policy was racial, not religious. Conversion did not protect anyone the regime called Jewish.

2. Choose two experience types from Figure 3. For each, name the person, the dated evidence, and the country it happened in. Then write one sentence: what does the conversion row teach you about how Nazi targeting worked?

3. E01 asks for variety - different countries, ages and experiences. Using Figure 2, list the countries and the ages of the six people at the key date of their card. Why does an exhibition that showed only one country and one age give a false picture?

Worked inquiry 1 — Building one exhibition entry (Anne Frank)

We build one full entry together, from one primary source. A **primary source** is a record made at the time, by a person inside the events.

‘In spite of everything, I still believe that people are really good at heart.’ — Anne Frank, diary entry of 15 July 1944, written in the secret annex in Amsterdam. The original diary is kept by the Anne Frank House, Amsterdam; the line follows the standard English translation. Retrieved 25 August 2026.

- **a. Dated facts.** From the Anne Frank card in Figure 2, take three dated facts: hiding from July 1942; arrest on 4 August 1944; death in Bergen-Belsen in February-March 1945, with her father Otto the only survivor of the eight people in the annex.
- **b. Perspective.** The quoted line is the perspective half of the entry. It was written in hiding, three weeks before the arrest, after two years of fear. Ask: what does this one line show us about the writer that no date or number can show?

- **c. The silence.** Name what the source cannot say. The diary ends with the arrest; it cannot tell us about Bergen-Belsen. A good exhibition entry names its silence instead of hiding it.
- **d. The check.** Cross-check the diary against the other records on the card (the arrest date and the camp records). When a personal source and an official record point the same way, the entry stands on two legs.

Figure 4 shows the finished entry with those four moves labelled.

A model exhibition entry, annotated

Steal its moves, not its facts - your tasks use other lives.



A model exhibition entry on Anne Frank with four moves labelled: dated facts, a quotation used as perspective evidence, a named silence, and a cross-check against another record

Figure 4. The model entry, annotated. Borrow the four moves, never the words: an entry on any other life must stand on its own facts.

4. Write your own exhibition entry of 100-140 words on one of the *other* five lives in Figure 2. Use the four moves from Figure 4: dated facts; one short quotation or reported view as perspective evidence; one named silence; one cross-check.

Part 3 — Racial policy reached further: other targeted groups (E02)

The Holocaust put Jewish people at the centre of the regime's killing: Nazi policy aimed at the total murder of every Jewish person in Europe. But the same racial thinking reached other groups too, in different ways and with different ends. E02 asks you to explain those policies, group by group.

Start with one source, because it shows how this kind of killing began — with a single signed page.

Berlin, 1 September 1939. 'Reichsleiter Bouhler and Dr. med. Brandt are charged with the responsibility of extending the competence of certain physicians, to be designated by name, so that after critical diagnosis they can render to those who according to human judgment are incurably sick a mercy death.' (signed) A. Hitler. — Adolf Hitler's authorisation for the Nazi 'euthanasia' programme. It was signed in October 1939 but backdated to 1 September 1939, the day Germany invaded Poland. It is not a law, and the word

‘euthanasia’ appears nowhere in it. Translation follows the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, which holds a copy of the document. Retrieved 25 August 2026.

Three reading points before Figure 5. One, this page is not a law: no parliament debated it, no public notice printed it — one man’s signature was enough. Two, it was **backdated** to the day the war began, so the killing could hide behind the noise of war. Three, notice the soft words. The regime called this programme ‘euthanasia’ — the word really means a gentle death, and it was borrowed to hide murder. A soft word used to hide a hard truth is called a **euphemism**, and spotting euphemisms is a core historian’s skill for this topic. The inverted commas around ‘euthanasia’ in this section are the alarm bell: they mark the regime’s label, not our word.

One page, one signature: the order that began the killings

A source reproduction. The German original is one short, hand-signed page.

Berlin, 1 September 1939

Reichsleiter Bouhler and Dr. med. Brandt are charged with the responsibility of extending the competence of certain physicians, to be designated by name, so that after critical diagnosis they can render to those who according to human judgment are incurably sick a mercy death.

(signed) A. Hitler

Provenance

Adolf Hitler's authorisation for the Nazi 'euthanasia' programme. Signed in October 1939 but backdated to 1 September 1939, the day Germany invaded Poland. It is not a law, names no victims, and the word 'euthanasia' appears nowhere in it. Translation follows the version used by the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, which holds a copy of the document.

Reproduction of the one-page hand-signed order that began the euthanasia killings, with a provenance panel noting that it was signed in October 1939, backdated to 1 September 1939, and was never a law

Figure 5. One page, one signature. The ‘euthanasia’ killing centres murdered about 70,000 people with disabilities by August 1941, and around 250,000 in total. Historians read this programme as the rehearsal for the later mass gassings: the same men, the same methods, the same soft words.

Figure 6 widens the lens to the other groups E02 names.

Nazi racial policies reached far beyond Jewish people

Figures are historians' estimates; ranges are used where records were destroyed or never kept.

Group targeted	What the Nazi regime did	Historians' estimates
People with disabilities	Forced into 'euthanasia' killing centres; many sterilised	About 70,000 gassed by August 1941; around 250,000 killed in total
Sinti and Roma peoples	Stripped of rights, forced into camps, deported to Auschwitz-Birkenau	At least 250,000 killed; estimates reach 500,000
Men accused of homosexuality	Prosecuted under Paragraph 175, tightened in 1935; pink triangle badge in camps	About 100,000 arrested; 5,000-15,000 sent to camps
Black Germans	Denied rights; hundreds of teenagers forcibly sterilised from 1937	A small community; exact numbers not kept
Slavic peoples: Poles and Soviet prisoners of war	Mass killings, starvation plans, forced labour	About 1.9 million non-Jewish Polish civilians; about 3.3 million Soviet prisoners of war died
Political prisoners, including Soviet Communists	First prisoners in Dachau from March 1933; red triangle badge in camps	Tens of thousands passed through the camp system

Estimates follow the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum's online encyclopaedia. The curriculum's word LGBTQTI+ names the people in the third row; the regime's persecution fell most heavily on men, and some women were also targeted.

Table of six groups targeted by Nazi racial policies — people with disabilities, Sinti and Roma peoples, men accused of homosexuality, Black Germans, Slavic peoples including Poles and Soviet prisoners of war, and political prisoners including Soviet Communists — showing what the regime did and what historians estimate

Figure 6. The policies differed group by group — that difference matters, and so does the shared racial thinking behind them. Note the third column: where the regime destroyed records or kept none, historians honestly give ranges, not fake precision.

Two cautions about language and categories. First, the curriculum's word **LGBTQTI+** names the people in the third row of Figure 6; the historical record is mostly about men prosecuted under **Paragraph 175** (the German law against homosexual acts, tightened in 1935), and some women were targeted too. Second, the regime's own labels and lists are evidence of the regime's thinking — they are never true descriptions of people. Historians use those categories to expose the regime, not to sort people all over again.

5. Choose two groups from Figure 6. For each, describe one policy the regime used and one figure from the third column. Then explain, in your own words, why some figures in that column are ranges.

6. Using the provenance panel in Figure 5, give three separate pieces of evidence that the 'euthanasia' killings were both deliberate and hidden. Each piece must come from a different detail on the page (the date, the signature, the words, the form of the document).

Part 4 — Jewish resistance (E03): first, argue about the word

Before the stories, the argument. **Resistance** is a contested term: historians disagree about how wide the word should stretch, and a good section states the disagreement fairly before using it. Figure 7 puts the two strongest positions side by side — to **steelman** a view is to state its strongest fair version before judging it.

What counts as resistance? Two positions, each at its strongest

A contested term. Both positions agree the word 'resistance' must be earned, not given away.

Position A - the narrow view

Resistance means organised action taken against the persecutors - above all armed action: uprisings, sabotage, escapes with weapons.

Its strongest case: stretching the word until every act of survival counts as resistance drains the word of meaning, and it risks suggesting that people who could not fight somehow failed. The fighters of the Warsaw ghetto knew they could not win; that is what makes their choice extraordinary, and a narrow definition keeps that sharp.

Position B - the broad view

Resistance includes every act that upheld Jewish life, dignity or culture against a regime bent on destroying them: the historian Yehuda Bauer calls this *amidah*, 'standing firm'.

Its strongest case: under Nazi rule, staying alive was itself defiance. Smuggling food, keeping a diary, holding a class, saying a prayer, burying an archive - each preserved something the regime meant to destroy. A definition that only counts gunshots lets the regime set the terms of what counts as fighting back.

This section's working definition

The curriculum itself lists armed, camp-based and spiritual resistance and concealment, so this section works with Position B's wider sense: resistance means acts, alone or together, that opposed the Nazi regime's aims - whether with weapons, with escape, or by keeping life, faith, memory and dignity alive. It states clearly which form is meant each time, so the two positions can still be judged against each other.

Two position cards on the word resistance: position A argues for a narrow meaning of armed attack, position B argues for a broad meaning that includes keeping Jewish life going, with the section's working definition underneath

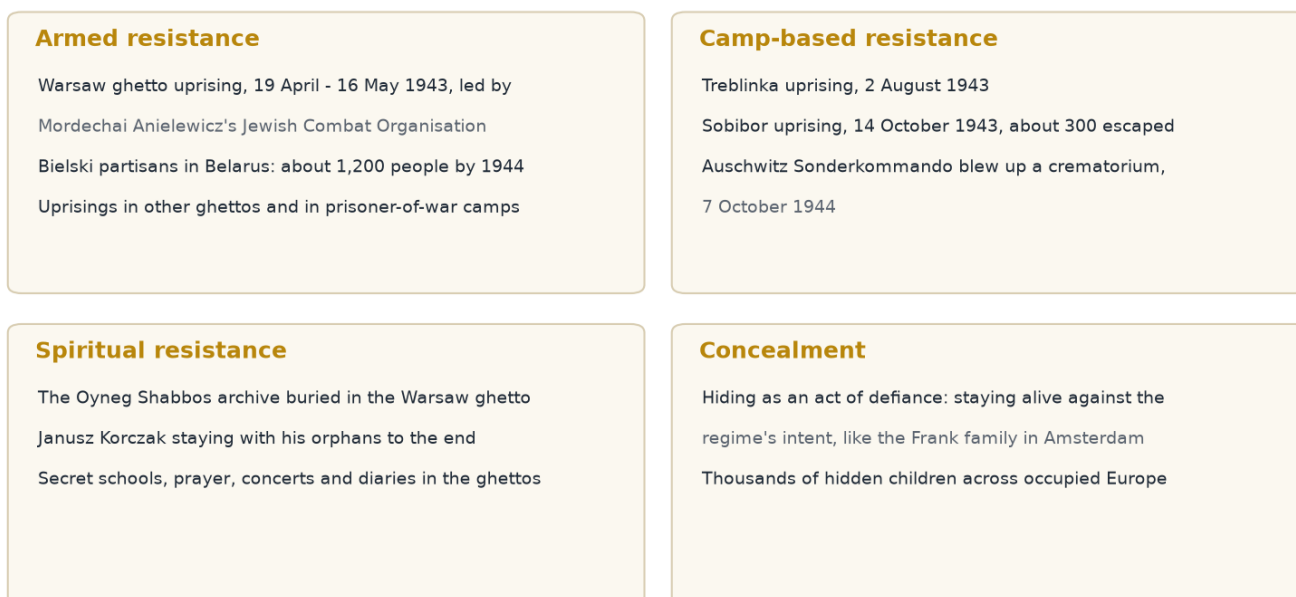
Figure 7. The steelman in one picture. Position A is not mocked and Position B is not padded out; the disagreement is real, and it is a disagreement about a word, not about the facts.

Position A makes a fair point: armed risings were tragically rare, and if we call everything resistance, we may blur what the armed few attempted against the guns. This section accepts that point every time it uses the word: it always names the form. But the curriculum's own list — armed resistance, resistance based in camps, spiritual resistance, concealment — is the broad sense, so the broad sense is our working definition here. In the broad sense, the Nazis wanted to destroy Jewish life as well as Jewish lives; therefore keeping Jewish life going — a school, a diary, a prayer, a hidden child — opposed the plan. The historian **Yehuda Bauer** gives this broad sense a Hebrew name, **amidah**, standing firm.

Figure 8 sorts the named, dated examples into the curriculum's four forms.

Four forms of Jewish resistance

Each box carries named, dated examples. The forms are the curriculum's own.



Historians debate how far to stretch the word 'resistance' - the two positions are set out in Figure 8.

Four boxes for the four forms of Jewish resistance — armed, camp-based, spiritual and concealment — each with named and dated examples such as the Warsaw ghetto uprising, the Treblinka and Sobibor camp risings, the Auschwitz Sonderkommando rising, the Oyneg Shabbos archive and the Bielski partisans

Figure 8. The four forms. Several examples sit in two boxes at once — the Warsaw rising was armed and was also the act of a ghetto keeping its dignity — and that overlap is exactly why the word is contested.

In the forests of eastern Europe, Jewish **partisans** — armed fighters outside the regular armies — kept family camps alive; the Bielski partisans sheltered about 1,200 people by 1944. Inside the camps, even the **Sonderkommando** — the prisoners the Nazis forced to work at the gas chambers — rose up at Auschwitz-Birkenau on 7 October 1944 and destroyed one gas chamber building. And **concealment** — hiding treated as a form of resistance — runs through the whole section, from the secret annex to the hidden rooms on Warsaw's 'Aryan' side.

One case study carries the weight: Warsaw, the largest ghetto in occupied Poland.

Warsaw ghetto: from sealing to uprising

The largest ghetto in occupied Europe, and the site of its largest armed rising.



Before the war, Warsaw had Europe's largest Jewish community, about 375,000 people. The people of the ghetto knew by 1943 what deportation meant. The uprising was fought with very few weapons, mostly to choose how the end would be met, not to win.

Mordechai Anielewicz, aged 24, led the Jewish Combat Organisation (ZOB). He wrote his last letter on 23 April 1943 and died in the ghetto on 8 May 1943. His letter is this section's source inquiry.

Four-stop timeline of the Warsaw ghetto: sealed in November 1940 with about 460,000 people inside; the deportations to Treblinka of July to September 1942; the uprising of 19 April to 16 May 1943; the razing of the ghetto in May 1943

Figure 9. Warsaw, 1940-43. Mordechai Anielewicz, aged 24, led the Jewish Combat Organization (ZOB) in the rising — the first city-wide rising against German rule anywhere in occupied Europe.

Spiritual resistance has its own primary source. The **Oyneg Shabbos** archive was a secret group, led by historian **Emanuel Ringelblum**, that collected diaries, notes and German papers inside the Warsaw ghetto so that the truth would outlive the killers. When the deportations to Treblinka began, the teenagers and writers of the archive knew what the papers meant. One note, by **David Graber**, aged 19, went into the buried milk cans on 3 August 1942:

‘What we were unable to cry out to the world, we buried in the ground.’ — David Graber, note written into the Oyneg Shabbos archive, Warsaw ghetto, 3 August 1942. The recovered archive is held by the Jewish Historical Institute, Warsaw. Retrieved 25 August 2026.

Source inquiry — a letter from inside the rising

On 23 April 1943, four days after the uprising began, Mordechai Anielewicz smuggled a letter out of the ghetto to **Yitzhak Zuckerman** on the so-called ‘Aryan’ side of Warsaw. It is one of the few records written from inside a rising while it was still being fought.

‘The main thing is that the dream of my life has come true.’ — Mordechai Anielewicz, letter to Yitzhak Zuckerman, Warsaw ghetto, 23 April 1943. Translation held in the Yad Vashem archives; the full letter reports fierce fighting and asks for weapons to be found. Anielewicz died in the fighting on 8 May 1943. Retrieved 25 August 2026.

Figure 10 sets the letter inside the six-question frame this book teaches for reading any source: origin, purpose, content, silences, checks, inference. (An **inference** is a conclusion you build from the evidence plus what you already know.)

Reading a letter from inside the uprising

The same question frame Sections 7C and 7D teach in depth.

'The main thing is that the dream of my life has come true.'

Mordechai Anielewicz, letter to Yitzhak Zuckerman, Warsaw ghetto, 23 April 1943.

Written during the uprising, from the ghetto to the 'Aryan' side of the city. Translation held in the Yad Vashem archives. The full letter also reports fierce fighting and asks for weapons to be found.

ORIGIN

Who wrote it? When and where?
To whom - and where was
the reader?

PURPOSE

Why write it at all - what
should the reader do with it?

CONTENT

What does it say? Which words
carry the most feeling?

SILENCES

What does it leave out - the
fighters' losses, the civilians,
the end of the story?

CHECKS

What other sources back it up -
German reports, survivors'
accounts?

INFERENCE

What can you conclude from
the letter plus what you
already know?

A primary source: a record made at the time, by a person inside the events. Its value is not that every word is true, but that it shows what resistance looked like from the inside - perspective is exactly what it offers.

A six-card question frame — origin, purpose, content, silences, checks, inference — set beneath the quoted line from the Anielewicz letter, with a note that a primary source offers perspective above all

Figure 10. The frame applied to the letter. Work the six cards in order before attempting Task 8.

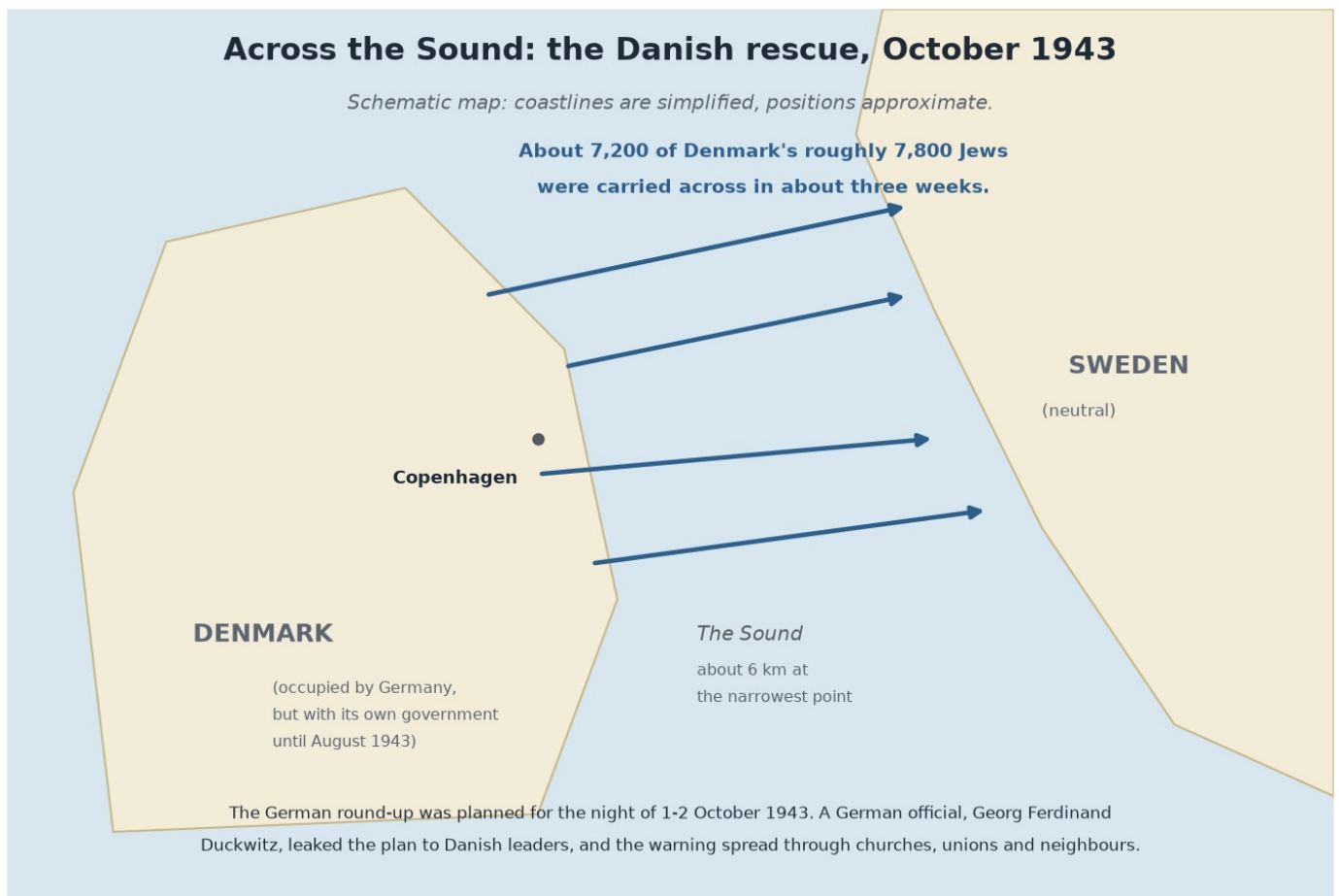
7. Steelman both positions on the word resistance (Figure 7): three to four sentences for Position A, three to four for Position B, each written so that a holder of that view would say 'yes, that is my position'. Then state which sense the curriculum uses, and judge between the positions on their reasoning.

8. Using Figure 10, answer the SILENCES and CHECKS cards for the Anielewicz letter in three to four sentences each. Your CHECKS answer must name at least two kinds of outside record.

Part 5 — People who protected and saved (E04)

Rescue is the last lens, and the rarest. In most of occupied Europe, helping a Jewish person was a crime; in occupied Poland, Germans often killed whole families for it. So rescue was never common — and it still happened, which is why historians insist on both halves of that sentence.

No rescue shows the teamwork of helping better than Denmark, October 1943.



Simple map of Denmark and Sweden with four blue arrows crossing the Sound, showing about 7,200 of Denmark's roughly 7,800 Jews carried to safety by fishing boats in October 1943, with a note on the German round-up planned for the night of 1-2 October and the warning spread by Georg Ferdinand Duckwitz

Figure 11. Across the Sound. The rescue worked because many kinds of people moved in order: a German official who leaked the plan, Danish leaders who spread the warning through churches, unions and neighbours, boat crews who sailed by night, and a neutral Sweden that had said it would take the refugees in.

Figure 12 widens the lens from the Sound to occupied Europe as a whole, and — importantly — records the kind of evidence behind each claim.

People who acted: rescue during the Holocaust

Each row carries the kind of record that supports the claim.

Who	What they did	The record behind it
Georg Ferdinand Duckwitz, German diplomat in Copenhagen	Leaked the planned round-up to Danish leaders, September 1943	The round-up was delayed; the rescue began in time
Danish fishing families and boat crews	Ferried about 7,200 Jews to Sweden in October 1943	Swedish arrival records
Nicholas Winton, British stockbroker	Organised eight trains carrying 669 children out of Prague, 1939	Transport lists; his scrapbook
Oskar Schindler, German factory owner	Shielded about 1,100 Jewish workers as 'essential' labour	Factory records; survivors' accounts
Raoul Wallenberg, Swedish diplomat in Budapest	Protective passes and safe houses from July 1944; tens of thousands helped	Pass records; the exact count is unknown
Chiune Sugihara, Japanese consul in Kaunas	Transit visas against instructions, July-August 1940	About 2,139 visas recorded; historians estimate about 6,000 people saved
Zegota, the Polish Council to Aid Jews	Underground network: money, false papers, hiding places	Underground records; Yad Vashem honoured Zegota as a whole

Rescue was rare and dangerous: in occupied Poland, Germans often killed whole families who hid Jewish people.

Yad Vashem, Israel's official memorial, has recognised more than 28,000 rescuers as 'Righteous Among the Nations'.

Table of seven rescuers and rescue networks — Georg Ferdinand Duckwitz, Danish fishing families, Nicholas Winton, Oskar Schindler, Raoul Wallenberg, Chiune Sugihara and Zegota — with what each did and the record behind the claim

*Figure 12. People who acted. Israel's official memorial, **Yad Vashem**, honours non-Jewish rescuers who took real risks with the title **Righteous Among the Nations**; more than 28,000 rescuers have received the title so far, and Zegota as a whole was honoured with it.*

9. Choose two rescuers from Figure 12. For each: what did they risk, what did they do, and which record in the third column supports the claim? Why does the table refuse to give a neat number for Wallenberg?

Worked inquiry 2 — The same October, three records

Perspective work does not need invented voices; the records themselves stand in different places.

- **Record 1 (the German side).** The German authorities kept their own tally of the round-up of 1-2 October 1943: about 477 Jewish people were caught and deported to **Theresienstadt**. (United States Holocaust Memorial Museum encyclopaedia.)
- **Record 2 (the Danish and Swedish side).** Swedish arrival records show about 7,200 Jews crossing from Denmark during October 1943. (Swedish records, via the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum encyclopaedia.)
- **Record 3 (the church side).** On Sunday 3 October 1943, a letter of protest was read aloud in Denmark's churches, and the warning had spread from church readings in the days before; Danish church records and post-war **testimony** — survivors' and witnesses' spoken and written accounts — preserve the event. (Danish church records, via the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum encyclopaedia.)

- **a.** What does each record see well, and what can it not see? (The German tally sees its own failure only as a number; the Swedish record sees arrivals, not the boats; the church record sees the choice, not the sea.)
- **b.** Put the three records side by side. Which facts appear in all three, and which appear in only one? Facts in all three are your safest ground.
- **c.** Now, and only now, you may write two to three sentences *as if* from one named position (for example, a Danish boat crew member). Label it clearly as your **reconstruction** — your picture rebuilt from the records — not a source. A reconstruction built on three records is honest; one passed off as a source is not.

10. ‘Rescue was rare and dangerous.’ Using Figures 11 and 12, explain both halves of that sentence, and say why historians refuse to drop either half.

Answers

1. Grey (regime moves): 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8. Red (persecution): 7, 9, 12. Gold (resistance): 10, 13. Blue (rescue/liberation): 5, 11, 14, 15. Example sentences: the grey group shows the regime building its machine in law and policy before and during the war; the red group shows persecution falling on people in ghettos and camps; the gold group shows resistance inside the killing years; the blue group shows that escape and liberation came from outside help and advancing armies.
2. Example: Hiding — Anne Frank and Eva Schloss; the secret annex in Amsterdam, July 1942 to August 1944; Netherlands. Emigration — Alfred Dubs; Kindertransport train from Prague, March 1939; Czechoslovakia. The conversion row teaches that Nazi targeting was racial: baptism changed nothing for Edith Stein, because the regime sorted people by family background, not belief.
3. Countries on the cards include Germany, Czechoslovakia, the Netherlands, Austria, Italy and Romania-Hungary; ages run from six (Dubs in 1939) to adults (Levi, Stein). A one-country, one-age exhibition would make the Holocaust look like a local or an age-limited event; the variety of the cards is what the elaboration asks for, because the persecution reached across borders and generations.
4. See the Model response below for one full example (Eva Schloss).
5. Example: Sinti and Roma — stripped of rights, forced into camps, deported to Auschwitz-Birkenau; at least 250,000 killed, estimates reach 500,000. Political prisoners — first prisoners at Dachau from March 1933; tens of thousands passed through the camp system. Ranges appear where the regime destroyed records or kept none: a range is honest, a fake exact number is not.
6. Deliberate: the page names two men charged to extend the ‘competence of certain physicians’ — killing was assigned as a duty, and physicians were chosen by name. Hidden: (i) it is a private authorisation, not a published law; (ii) it was backdated to 1 September 1939 to hide behind the start of the war; (iii) it uses soft words (‘mercy death’, ‘incurably sick’) instead of the word killing — a euphemism doing hiding work.
7. A fair Position A: the word resistance should mean armed attack on the regime; widening it blunts the word; armed acts were rare, and calling a diary ‘resistance’ may hide how few guns were ever raised against the killers. A fair Position B: the regime aimed at Jewish life as well as lives, so keeping life going — schools, archives, faith, hiding — opposed the plan; the broad sense honours acts the narrow sense would delete. The curriculum uses the broad sense (it lists armed, camp-based, spiritual, concealment), and this section judges B the better working definition while accepting A’s warning by naming the form every time.
8. SILENCES: the letter cannot report the fighters’ losses, the civilians still trapped in the ghetto, or the end of the story — it was written four days after the uprising began, in the middle of a month-long fight, by a man who would die in it. CHECKS: German military and police reports on the fighting confirm an organised rising; survivors’ accounts (for example Zuckerman’s own post-war testimony) confirm the letter’s picture; the ghetto’s burnt streets were recorded in German photographs made to boast of the razing.
9. Example: Duckwitz — a German official risking his career and his life to leak the round-up; supported by the timing (the warning reached Danish leaders before the planned night). Danish fishing families — risking boats and lives against German patrols; supported by Swedish arrival records. Wallenberg has no neat number because his protective passes and safe houses worked in a city still under German eyes; the passes survive, the full count does not.
10. Rare: of roughly 7,800 Jews in Denmark, about 477 were caught — the rescue reached the rest, but Denmark was the exception, not the rule, and in Poland the death penalty for helpers kept most rescue underground. Dangerous: boat crews faced German patrols; Zegota workers and Polish families faced execution. Historians keep both halves because dropping ‘rare’ turns rescue into a comfort story, and dropping ‘dangerous’ turns rescuers into people who just got lucky; the truth is that small numbers of people chose great risk.

Model response

Task 4 — exhibition entry, Eva Schloss (about 130 words).

Eva Schloss was born in Vienna and fled Austria in 1938, after the German takeover made life impossible for Jews [dated facts]. Her family hid in Amsterdam, was caught on 11 May 1944, and was deported to Auschwitz; Eva

survived, and her father and brother did not [dated facts]. In her **memoir** (a written account of a person's own life), *Eva's Story* (1988), she recalled that in the camp her mother's refusal to give up was the rope she held on to [perspective evidence]. The memoir cannot show us the moments Eva did not write down, and it looks back from old age at a teenager's fear — that gap is its silence [named silence]. The arrest date and the camp records match the transport lists held by museums, so the story stands on two legs [cross-check].

Looking back. This section kept one promise: every experience, every group, every act of resistance and every rescue was carried by a named person, a date, and a record. That is what VC2HH10K22 asks for — diverse experiences *and* diverse perspectives, held together by evidence. The steelman (Figure 7) showed that contested words are argued, not avoided; the three records of Worked inquiry 2 showed that perspective is collected, not invented. Carry the four moves of the exhibition entry (facts, perspective, silence, check) and the six cards of the source frame (Figure 10) into every later section that asks you to handle a human story. Sections 4A and 4B gave the causes and the machinery; this section gave the faces. The two together are the Holocaust as history, not as a blur.

Sources for this section (all retrieved 25 August 2026):

- United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, *Encyclopedia of the Holocaust* (online): entries on the 'euthanasia' programme, Sinti and Roma, the persecution of homosexuals, Black Germans, Polish civilians, Soviet prisoners of war, the Warsaw ghetto and its uprising, Treblinka, Sobibor, the rescue of the Danish Jews, Theresienstadt, Zegota, Oskar Schindler, Raoul Wallenberg, Chiune Sugihara, and Nicholas Winton.
- Yad Vashem (online): the Anielewicz letter of 23 April 1943 and the Warsaw ghetto uprising; the Righteous Among the Nations database.
- Anne Frank House (online): the life of Anne Frank, the diary and the entry of 15 July 1944.
- Jewish Historical Institute, Warsaw: the Oyneg Shabbos (Ringelblum) archive, including the note of David Graber, 3 August 1942.
- Memoirs and published accounts used as primary sources: Anne Frank, *The Diary of a Young Girl*; Primo Levi, *If This Is a Man* (1947); Elie Wiesel, *Night* (1958); Eva Schloss, *Eva's Story* (1988).
- Yehuda Bauer, *Rethinking the Holocaust* (2001), for the broad sense of resistance and the term *amidah*.

What the world wars meant: legacies and debates

For the teacher

*This section is one teaching sequence (parts 1–7) with two worked inquiries built from real, dated, checkable sources, six scaffolded practice tasks, four unscaffolded tasks and one source-based inquiry task, per the §3 volume calibration. Register is direct-address prose at or below the Yr10 ceiling (D2). Subject terms are defined at first use (D2 exemption 2). Contested terms (legacy, the Anzac legend, significance) carry **CONTESTED_TERMS** Rule 1 treatment — defined before use, frames stated, attribution given — and every debate in the section steelmans both positions at equal depth (Rules 4–5): repatriation, the Anzac legend, the wartime alliance shift, the war crimes trials, the origins of the Cold War and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Marking is on quality of reasoning, not conclusion reached (Rule 5). All First Nations content is excluded per Rule 1 and §2A; none may be authored in later, including as context or a caption.*

Curriculum alignment (VCAA export VC2_AS-CD-E1ab_29-07-2026.csv) — codes only:

VC2HH10K23 — Historical Knowledge and Understanding · Investigation: Australians at war (1914–1945)

Draws on (linkage only, D7): VC2HH10K23.E01 (partial — taught through the remaining referents) · VC2HH10K23.E02 · VC2HH10K23.E03 · VC2HH10K23.E04 · VC2HH10K23.E05 · VC2HH10K23.E06.

D3 note (binding): VC2HH10K23.E01 is taught through its remaining referents — trauma of body and mind, including shell shock; finding work again; recognition of service; soldier-settlement land grants; and health care and pensions — with the CD's First Nations soldier clause dropped per §2A. The referents that attach to that strand (racial discrimination, wage inequality) are not taught. The id is retained as a linkage key and reported **ACCEPTED** in coverage audits. No First Nations material may be authored into this section later, including as context, background or a caption.

Teaching choices (chapter block spec, §3): this section closes the sub-strand with legacies, in the order the chapter notes give them: impacts on returned soldiers (part 2, .E01 partial), the Anzac tradition and how World War I is commemorated (part 3, .E02), significance for Australia's international relationships — Britain, the USA, Asian countries, the United Nations (part 4, .E03), historians' interpretations of World War II's legacies including the United Nations (part 5, .E04), the Holocaust's post-war impacts on the Jewish community (part 6, .E05), and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights assessed as a legacy of the Holocaust and of World War II (part 7, .E06). Worked inquiry 1 (part 2) models the repatriation debate; worked inquiry 2 (part 7) models an evaluation of the UDHR as a legacy. The section assumes no Level 9 sequence (D1): it re-establishes every idea it uses, and it points forward and sideways (3C, 4A–4C, 6B, 7C–7F, 8C) rather than back.

Subject words — define at first use (D2 exemption 2):

Word	Gloss used in this section
legacy	what an event leaves behind that outlasts the event itself (contested — defined by a stated frame at first use)
interpretation	a historian's answer to a question about the past, built from evidence
steelman	to state an opposing view in its strongest form before judging it
repatriation	the government work of helping returned service personnel rebuild civilian life
shell shock	the World War I name for combat stress — now recognised as a form of post-traumatic stress disorder
post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)	a lasting pattern of distress after a terrible experience
soldier settlement scheme	programs that gave returned soldiers farmland after the wars
commemoration	a public act of remembering, such as a service, a

Word	Gloss used in this section
dawn service	memorial or a day in the calendar an early-morning Anzac Day ceremony, the main form of Anzac commemoration in Australia today
the Anzac legend	the set of qualities said to define Australian soldiers and, through them, the nation (contested — frame stated at first use)
primary source	a record made at the time being studied, by someone inside the events
provenance	the who, where and when of a source
occupation	after 1945, the period in which Allied forces governed and rebuilt defeated Germany and Japan
war crimes trial	a court that tries people for breaking the laws of war
the Cold War	the long rivalry between the USA and the USSR after 1945 — short of open war between them
decolonisation	the process by which colonies became independent nations
displaced persons	people forced from their homes by war, with nowhere to return to
genocide	the deliberate destruction of a people, defined in section 4A
covenant	a formal, binding agreement between nations
significance	how important something was, judged by its effects (criteria taught in section 8C)
revisionist school	historians who rewrote the early account of the Cold War's origins (to revise means to think again)
post-revisionist school	historians who came after the revisionists, writing with records opened on both sides

1. What the wars left behind

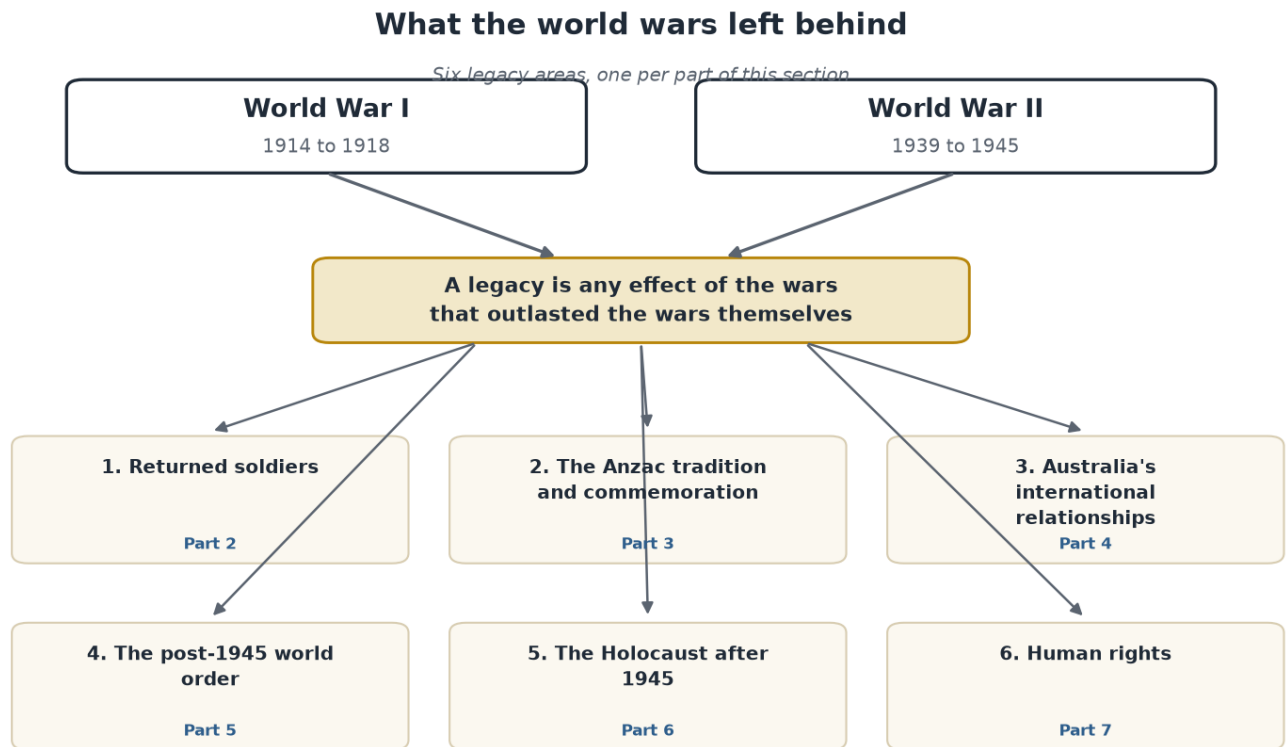
The fighting of World War I ended on 11 November 1918. The fighting of World War II ended in 1945. But neither war ended when the guns stopped. Each war left things behind: damaged bodies and minds, new organisations, changed friendships between nations, new laws about how people must be treated, and stories Australians still tell about themselves.

What a past event leaves behind is called its **legacy**. The Victorian Curriculum uses this word but does not define it, so this section states its frame plainly: here, a **legacy** is any effect of the wars that outlasted the wars themselves — an organisation, a relationship between countries, a law, a memorial, a memory, or an idea. Legacies are contested in a second way too: historians genuinely disagree about which effects count as legacies, how important they were, and whether they were good. You will meet those disagreements in every part of this section.

Two more words need the same care. A historical **interpretation** is a historian's answer to a question about the past, built from evidence. Two historians can study the same evidence and reach different answers — because they ask different questions, weigh evidence differently, or write at different times. A **debate**, here, is a disagreement between serious historians — not a quarrel, and not a matter of one side being clever and the other being silly.

And the rule for handling debates is the one used throughout this book: **steelman** — state the opposing view in the strongest form its own supporters would recognise, and only then judge it. Every debate in this section shows both sides at full strength. Your tasks are marked on the quality of your reasoning — defined terms, real evidence, stated limits — not on which side you end up on.

Figure 1 maps the section. The two wars sit at the top; the six legacy areas below are the six parts that follow.



A diagram of the two world wars at the top, with arrows down to six legacy areas: returned soldiers, the Anzac tradition and commemoration, Australia's international relationships, the post-1945 world order, the Holocaust after 1945, and human rights

Figure 1 — The six legacy areas of this section.

2. Coming home: the wars' legacy for returned soldiers

The numbers first, because everything else hangs on them. In World War I, 416,809 Australians enlisted; more than 330,000 served overseas; more than 60,000 died and more than 155,000 were wounded. In World War II, about one million Australians served and about 40,000 died. Those figures come from the Australian War Memorial, and the memorial itself — opened in Canberra on 11 November 1941, while the second war was still being fought — is one of the legacies you are studying in this section.

The men and women who came home brought the wars home with them. Figure 2 sets out the five areas of impact named in the curriculum.

Five ways war affected returned soldiers

Each card names its impact and gives a dated example

Trauma of body and mind	Finding work	Land	Recognition Service	pensions Health care and
- wounds, damaged lungs, and wounds that never healed - shell shock named in 1915 by Dr Charles Samuel Myers - now known as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)	- preference in hiring was promised to returned soldiers - work was hard to find in the 1930s slump	- soldier settlement schemes gave farmland to returned soldiers - Victoria's Discharged Soldiers' Settlement Act 1917 - about 25,000 settlers across Australia	- honour boards in schools and town halls - memorials in nearly every town - Anzac Day from 1916	- Australian Soldiers' Repatriation Act 1917 - pensions, hospitals, training and help finding work - the department was renamed in 1974 and still runs today

The numbers behind the cards: World War I - 416,809 joined the forces, more than 330,000 served overseas, more than 60,000 died, more than 155,000 were wounded. World War II - about one million served, about 40,000 died (Australian War Memorial).

Five cards showing how war affected returned soldiers: physical and psychological trauma including shell shock; finding work; land through soldier settlement schemes; service recognition; and health care and pensions, each with dated examples

Figure 2 — Five ways war affected returned soldiers, with dated examples.

Trauma of body and mind. Many returned soldiers lived with missing limbs, damaged lungs from gas attacks, and wounds that never fully healed. The mind was wounded too. Some men came home shaking, unable to sleep, unable to speak or walk, though they had no visible wound. In World War I, doctors called this **shell shock**. The word first appeared in a medical journal in 1915, in an article by the British doctor Charles Samuel Myers. At first many assumed the symptoms came from physical damage to the brain. Slowly, doctors came to see shell shock as a wound of the mind caused by what the men had been through. Today the same pattern is recognised as **post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)** — a lasting state of distress after terrible experiences. The name changed; the wound did not.

Repatriation. The government work of helping returned soldiers rebuild civilian life is called **repatriation**. In 1917 the Commonwealth passed the *Australian Soldiers' Repatriation Act*, which set up the Repatriation Department. It paid **pensions** (regular payments) to men who could no longer work, ran hospitals and rehabilitation, trained men for new trades, and helped them find jobs. It was renamed the Department of Veterans' Affairs in 1974 and still exists today. Repatriation is one of the longest-running legacies of the world wars in Australia: it is a system that was built in 1917 and has never stopped.

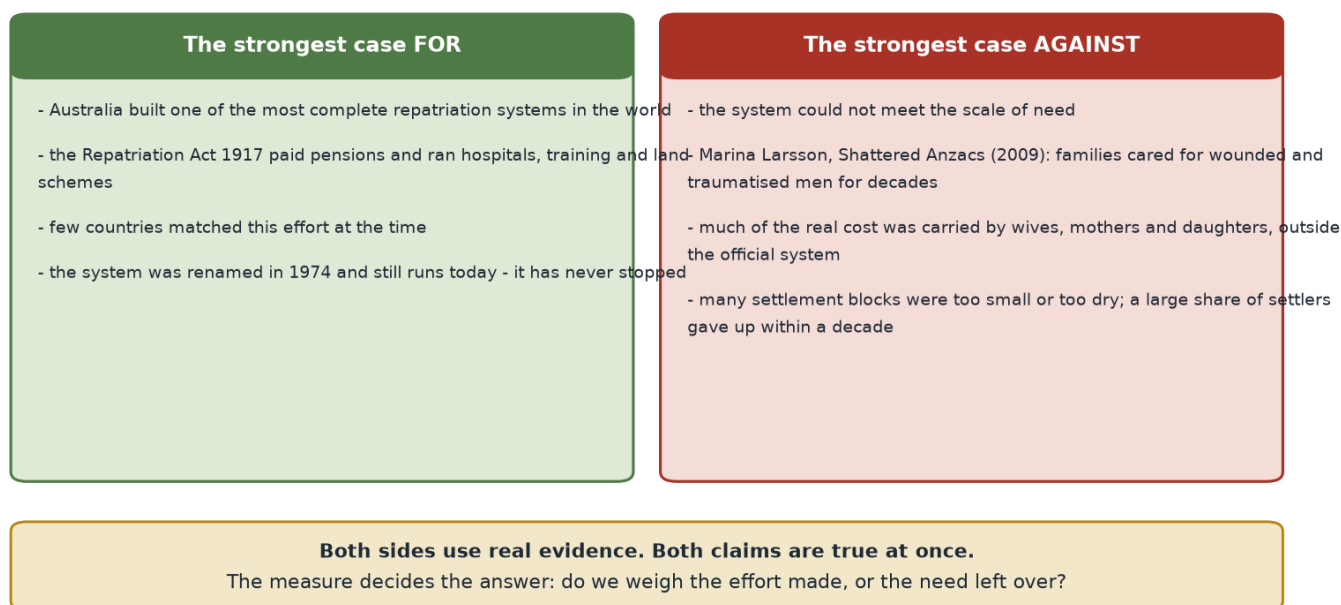
Land. After World War I, governments also gave returned soldiers farmland through **soldier settlement schemes**. Victoria's scheme began with the *Discharged Soldiers' Settlement Act 1917*, and the other states ran similar programs. Across Australia, about 25,000 returned soldiers took up blocks of land. For some, it was the fresh start they had been promised. For many others the blocks were too small or too dry, the debts were heavy, and the 1930s drought and depression finished them off. A large share of soldier settlers gave up their blocks within a decade.

Work and recognition. Governments promised returned soldiers preference in hiring, and many employers honoured that promise — but when unemployment rose in the 1930s, returned soldiers found work hard to get like everyone else. Recognition took other forms: honour boards in schools and town halls, memorials in nearly every town, and Anzac Day itself (part 3).

Worked inquiry 1 — a debate with two strong sides. Historians disagree about how well Australia looked after its returned soldiers, and this disagreement is a good first example of the section's rule. Figure 3 sets both positions out at full strength.

Was repatriation enough?

Worked inquiry 1 - both sides at full strength



Two columns setting out the strongest case on each side of the repatriation debate: on one side, that Australia built one of the most complete repatriation systems in the world; on the other, that the system could not meet the scale of need and families carried the cost

Figure 3 — The repatriation debate, steelmanned on both sides.

Notice how each side uses real evidence. On one side: a system created in 1917 — pensions, hospitals, training, land — that few countries matched at the time. On the other side, the historian Marina Larsson, in her book *Shattered Anzacs* (2009), studied the lives of the families who cared for wounded and traumatised returned soldiers for decades, and argued that much of the real cost was carried by wives, mothers and daughters, outside the official system altogether. Both claims are true at once. That is what makes this a real debate rather than a mistake: the question — *was repatriation enough?* — has no single answer, because “enough” can be measured against the effort made or against the need left over. When you answer, say which measure you are using.

3. The Anzac tradition: ideals, commemoration and the historians’ debate

Anzac began as a shortened form of a longer name — the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps, the force that landed at Gallipoli on 25 April 1915 (section 3C). Within a year the word had grown into something bigger: a set of ideas about what those soldiers were like, and what they proved about Australia. Those ideas are called **the Anzac legend**.

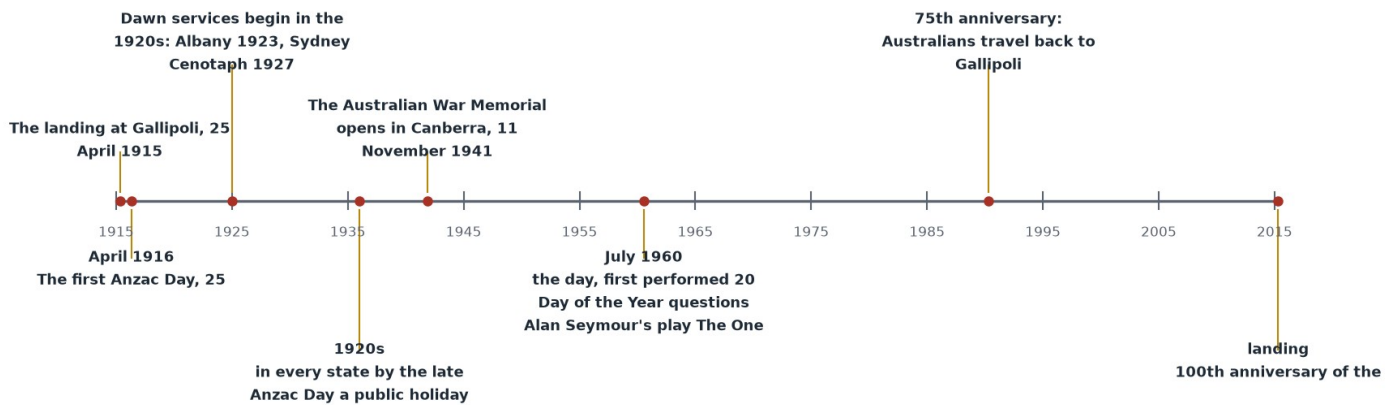
The word *legend* should make you careful. In this section, **the Anzac legend** is used in the sense given to it by C.E.W. Bean — Australia’s official World War I correspondent and later its official war historian — who wrote the idea down and spread it. Other definitions exist: some historians reject the legend entirely, and you will meet their views below. The frame matters, because the debate of this part is largely a debate about Bean’s idea itself.

The ideals. Bean edited *The Anzac Book* at Gallipoli in late 1915 — a book of writing and drawing by the soldiers themselves, published in 1916 — and he spent the next thirty years writing Australia’s official history of the war. His summary of what Anzac meant is the source you will study in part 9. The ideals he named — courage, mateship, endurance, resourcefulness, never giving in — became the standard list. Connected to them was a bigger claim: that Australia, a nation only fourteen years old in 1914, had proved itself and truly been “born” at Gallipoli.

How World War I is commemorated. To **commemorate** is to remember something publicly and with respect. Figure 4 traces the main Australian form of that remembering: Anzac Day.

Anzac Day: a century of commemoration

Public acts of remembering, 1915 to 2015



Anzac Day is one of Australia's biggest days of commemoration, with services in hundreds of towns and at Gallipoli itself.

*A timeline of Anzac Day commemoration from 1915 to 2015: the landing, the first Anzac Day in 1916, early dawn services in the 1920s, the opening of the Australian War Memorial in 1941, the play *The One Day of the Year* in 1960, the 75th anniversary in 1990 when Australians travelled back to Gallipoli, and the 100th anniversary in 2015*

Figure 4 — How Australia has commemorated World War I, 1915–2015.

The first Anzac Day was held on 25 April 1916, a year after the landing. By the 1920s every state had made it a public holiday. **Dawn services** — early-morning ceremonies held at war memorials — began in the 1920s: Albany in Western Australia holds an early one from 1923, and the first widely recorded official dawn service was held at the Sydney Cenotaph in 1927. Marches, wreath-laying and two minutes' silence became the day's shape. Today Anzac Day is one of Australia's biggest days of commemoration, with services in hundreds of towns and at Gallipoli itself.

Why it is commemorated. The reasons have stayed largely the same: to honour the dead, to give meaning to the loss their families carried, and to hand the story to the next generation. The memorials matter here too. The historian Ken Inglis called them Australia's **sacred places** — the title of his 1998 book *Sacred Places: War Memorials in the Australian Landscape* — and counted them into the thousands, one in almost every town.

The historians' debate. The Anzac legend has been argued about for as long as it has existed, and the curriculum asks you to track how historians' views have changed over time. Figure 5 sets out four dated positions.

The historians' debate over the Anzac legend

Who, and when	Four positions, in order of time Their view	Their evidence
C.E.W. Bean, 1916 to 1946	Built the legend: named the ideals of Anzac and wrote them into Australia's story of itself	The Anzac Book (1916), written at Gallipoli; Anzac to Amiens (1946)
Alan Seymour, 1960	Questioned how the day is kept: the legend can hide what war really costs	the play <i>The One Day of the Year</i> , first performed in Adelaide, 20 July 1960
Ken Inglis, 1998	Studied the commemoration as history: read the war memorials as sacred places	<i>Sacred Places: War Memorials in the Australian Landscape</i> (1998)
Marilyn Lake and Henry Reynolds, with Mark McKenna and Joy Damousi, 2010	Challenged the legend's place: a military defeat is crowding out the rest of Australian history	<i>What's Wrong with Anzac? The Militarisation of Australian History</i> (2010)

The debate moves: building the legend, then questioning it, then studying it, then challenging its place.

A table of four dated positions on the Anzac legend: C.E.W. Bean from 1916 to 1946, Alan Seymour's play in 1960, Ken Inglis in 1998, and Marilyn Lake and Henry Reynolds with colleagues in 2010, each with their view and their evidence

Figure 5 — Four positions on the Anzac legend, in order of time.

Read down the table and notice the pattern: the debate moves from *building* the legend (Bean), to *questioning* how it is kept (Seymour), to *studying* the commemoration closely as history (Inglis), to *challenging* the legend's place in national life (Lake, Reynolds and their colleagues). Now the steelman, both sides:

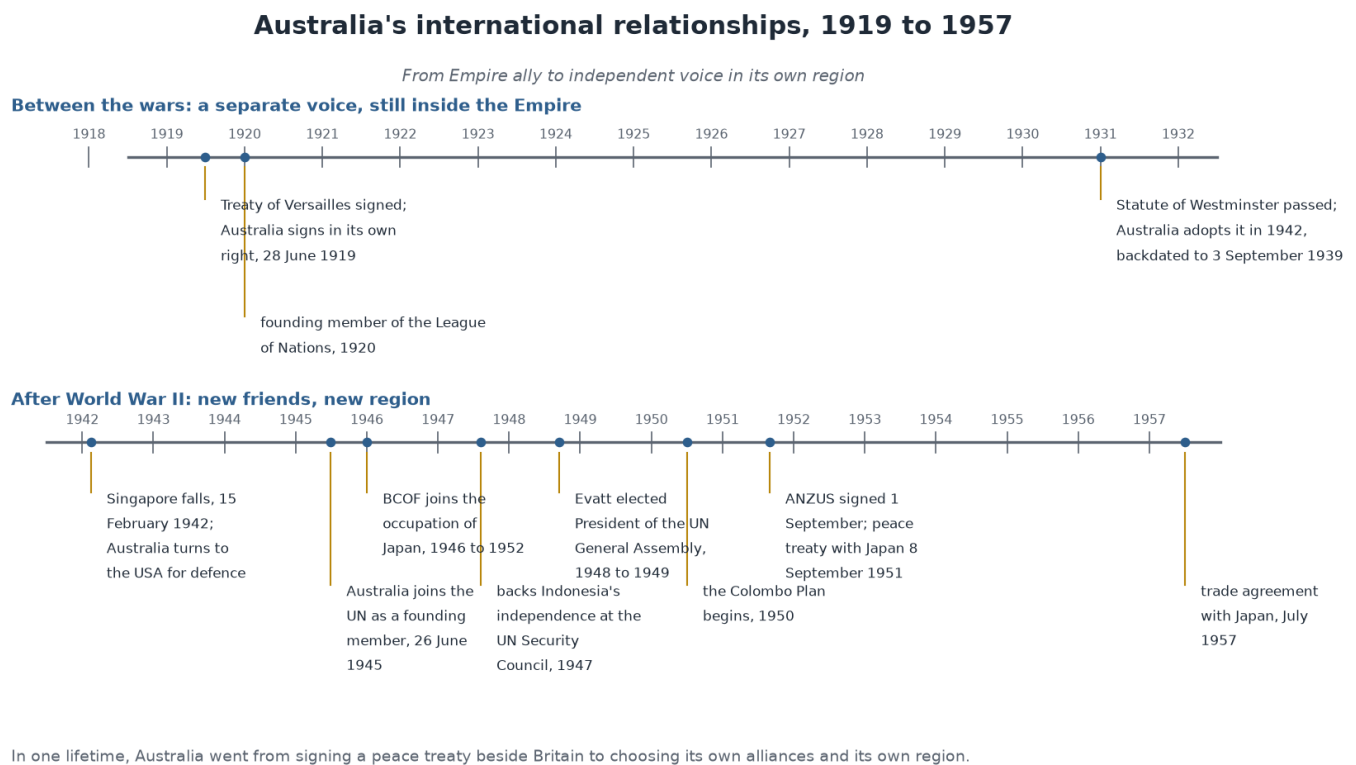
The strongest case for the legend and its commemoration: Anzac Day grew from below — towns, schools, families and returned soldiers built it — and it still draws crowds without being forced. A commemoration that survives one hundred years of free choice is telling us something real about what Australians value: courage under pressure, mateship, sticking to the job.

The strongest case against: the legend is based on a military defeat at Gallipoli, and it celebrates war as the birthplace of a nation founded by migrants and by law. Lake, Reynolds, McKenna and Damousi argued in *What's Wrong with Anzac?* (2010) that the legend has been pushed to the centre of Australian history, crowding out everything else the nation has done.

Both positions are serious. Your job in the tasks below is not to pick a team but to show you understand what each side is claiming, what evidence each uses, and where each is strongest.

4. Changing friendships: the wars and Australia's international relationships

The wars also changed who Australia relied on, and who relied on Australia. Figure 6 puts the main steps in order.



A timeline of Australia's international relationships from 1919 to 1957: signing the Treaty of Versailles, the League of Nations, the Statute of Westminster, the turn to the USA in 1942, founding the United Nations, the occupation of Japan, supporting Indonesian independence, ANZUS, the peace treaty with Japan, the Colombo Plan and the trade agreement with Japan

Figure 6 — Australia's international relationships, 1919–1957.

World War I: a separate voice. Australia entered the war in 1914 as part of the British Empire. By the time the war ended, its sacrifice had earned it a separate seat at the table: Australia signed the Treaty of Versailles in its own right on 28 June 1919, with Prime Minister Billy Hughes pressing Australian interests hard, and it became a founding member of the League of Nations in 1920. The new nation was beginning to speak for itself — though still inside the Empire.

Between the wars: legal independence on paper. In 1931 the British parliament passed the *Statute of Westminster*, which said that Australia and the other self-governing British lands were free to make their own laws, and British law would no longer overrule them. Australia did not adopt the statute until 1942, when war made the point urgent; the adoption was backdated to 3 September 1939, the day Australia entered World War II. The date itself is an argument: a nation that backdates its legal independence to the first day of its war effort is telling you how the war changed its view of itself.

World War II: the turn to the United States. In December 1941 Japan entered the war; on 15 February 1942 Singapore fell, with about 15,000 Australians taken prisoner (section 3C). Britain could not defend Australia; the United States could. Prime Minister John Curtin said so publicly — his words of 27 December 1941 are studied in section 3C — and in 1942 Australian forces in the Pacific came under the command of the American General Douglas MacArthur. In 1951 the new friendship was sealed in writing: the **ANZUS** treaty, an alliance between Australia, New Zealand and the United States, which remains the foundation of Australia's defence today.

From enemy to partner: Japan. The war's end did not mean the end of the story with Japan. From 1946 to 1952 Allied forces occupied and rebuilt Japan — the period historians call the **occupation** — and Australia took part through the British Commonwealth Occupation Force. Australia signed the peace treaty with Japan in San Francisco

on 8 September 1951, and in 1957 the two countries signed a trade agreement. Within a generation Japan had become one of Australia's biggest trading partners. Enemies became customers, then friends.

Asia and the United Nations. Two more shifts belong on the record. In 1947 Australia took Indonesia's side of its independence dispute with the Netherlands to the United Nations Security Council — one of the new body's first real tests, and early proof that Australia was turning to its own region. And the United Nations itself is Australian history: Australia was a founding member in 1945, and the Australian minister H.V. Evatt was elected President of the UN General Assembly in 1948–1949. The Colombo Plan, launched in 1950, sent Australian aid and education to Asian countries and built habits of cooperation that lasted decades.

Worked inquiry 2 — evaluating significance. Here is the .E03 question: *how significant was World War II for Australia's international relationships?* The debate is about where the change really happened:

The strongest case for 1942 as the turning point: the fall of Singapore broke the belief that Britain would always protect Australia; within months Australia's defence rested on the United States; ANZUS in 1951 wrote the change into a treaty that still stands. On the evidence of alliances, the turn was sharp and permanent.

The strongest case for slow change: Australia kept its trade, its migration preferences and most of its culture tied to Britain well into the 1960s — historians such as Stuart Macintyre note that the British connection stayed emotionally and economically central long after the security tie had moved. On that reading, "the turn" looks sharper in hindsight than it felt at the time.

Both cases rest on true facts; they differ in which evidence they weigh — military dependence or daily life. The historian Stuart Macintyre's summary of the period holds both: Australia turned to the United States for security while staying close to Britain in almost everything else. A good answer states the measure it is using, exactly as in the repatriation debate.

5. What did World War II leave behind? Five legacies, five debates

World War II reshaped the world's furniture. Figure 7 names the five legacies the curriculum points to; the rest of this part takes each one in turn.

Five legacies of World War II

Each card carries the debate question the historians still argue

Nations 1. The United	and rebuilding 2. Occupation	crimes trials 3. The war	4. The Cold War	Decolonisation 5.
founded 1945; Charter signed 26 June 1945 by 51 nations, including Australia	Germany zoned, two German states by 1949; Japan occupied to 1952, new constitution 1947	Nuremberg, November 1945 to October 1946; Tokyo, May 1946 to November 1948, Sir William Webb presiding	Churchill's iron curtain speech, March 1946; the Truman pledge, 1947	India and Pakistan free, August 1947; Indonesia recognised, December 1949
Does it work?	Whose peace?	Whose justice?	Who caused it?	What replaced empire?

Short-term or long-term? Intended or not? These are the questions Section 8B teaches; here you meet them in the debates.

Five cards for the legacies of World War II: first the United Nations; then the rebuilding of occupied Germany and Japan; the war crimes trials; the Cold War; and decolonisation, each with a date and the debate question attached to it

Figure 7 — Five legacies of World War II, each with its debate.

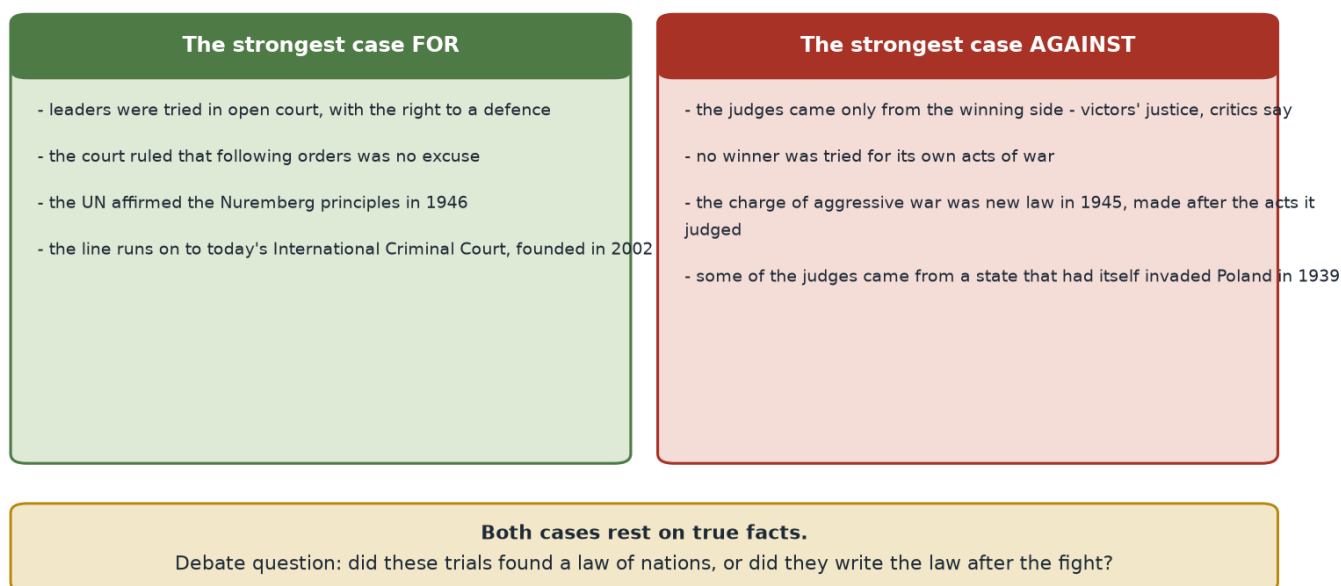
1. The United Nations (1945). The League of Nations had failed to stop the slide into war, so in 1945 the victors built a new world body: the United Nations, founded by 51 nations, including Australia. Its Charter was signed on 26 June 1945. The UN still stands, and its greatest written statement — the declaration you will study in part 7 — was one of its first acts.

2. Occupation and rebuilding. Defeated Germany and Japan were occupied and rebuilt by the winners. Germany was split into occupation zones run by the USA, Britain, France and the USSR — and by 1949 that split had hardened into two Germanies, one allied to each superpower. Japan was occupied under American command until 1952, with a new constitution in 1947; as you have seen, Australia took part through the British Commonwealth Occupation Force, and the two countries rebuilt a peaceful relationship afterwards.

3. The war crimes trials. The Allies also put leading Nazis on trial. The Nuremberg trials ran from November 1945 to October 1946; the Tokyo tribunal, which tried Japan's wartime leaders, ran from May 1946 to November 1948 with the Australian judge Sir William Webb as its president. Australia also ran its own military trials of suspected Japanese war criminals across the Pacific. The debate about these trials is one of the biggest in modern history, and Figure 8 steelmans it.

The war crimes trials: a beginning, or winners' law?

Nuremberg 1945 to 1946 - Tokyo 1946 to 1948, Sir William Webb presiding



Two columns setting out the strongest case on each side of the war crimes trials debate: on one side, a foundation of international criminal law; on the other, victors' justice

Figure 8 — The war crimes trials debate, steelmanned.

The UN General Assembly affirmed the principles of the Nuremberg trials in 1946, and the line runs forward to today's International Criminal Court, established in 2002. Whether that line proves the trials' greatness or only their influence is itself part of the debate.

4. The Cold War. Almost as soon as World War II ended, its victors fell out. The **Cold War** — the long rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union, fought by every means short of open war between them — was shaped by the war's ending: armies faced each other across a divided Europe, and both sides now had enormous power. In March 1946 Winston Churchill said an "iron curtain" had come down across Europe; by 1947 the United States had pledged to resist Soviet expansion. Historians have argued ever since about who or what caused it. Their arguments have settled into three schools, and the schools have standard names. Historians writing as the split opened, who blamed one side for starting it, are often called the **orthodox** school. Historians who came later and rewrote that

account are called the **revisionist** school — to revise means to think again. Historians who came after them, writing with records opened on both sides, are called the **post-revisionist** school. Figure 9 gives one named historian for each school.

Three interpretations of the Cold War's origins

Not the facts changed between schools, but which facts were weighed, and when each historian wrote

The orthodox view	The revisionist view	The post-revisionist view
Soviet expansion caused the Cold War; the West had to respond in defence of free countries. Who put it forward: writing as the split opened, late 1940s to 1950s The evidence it weighs: weighs: Soviet actions in Eastern Europe; the iron curtain speech, March 1946	American money and power pushed the split open; both sides built the Cold War together. Who put it forward: William Appleman Williams, <i>The Tragedy of American Diplomacy</i>, 1959 The evidence it weighs: weighs: American economic policy; the use of money and trade as weapons	Neither side wanted the Cold War; fear, and errors on both sides, drove it. Who put it forward: John Lewis Gaddis, <i>The United States and the Origins of the Cold War</i>, 1972 The evidence it weighs: weighs: records opened on both sides; how each side read the other's fear

A skill from Section 7F: ask not only what a historian says, but when they wrote and what they chose to weigh.

Three cards for the main historical interpretations of the Cold War’s origins: the orthodox view, the revisionist view with William Appleman Williams in 1959, and the post-revisionist view with John Lewis Gaddis in 1972, each with the evidence it weighs

Figure 9 — Three interpretations of the Cold War’s origins.

Notice what changed between the schools: not the facts, but which facts were weighed, and when the historians wrote. The revisionists wrote when American power was at its height and could be questioned; the post-revisionists wrote when archives on both sides began to open. That is how interpretations move over time — a skill section 7F teaches in full.

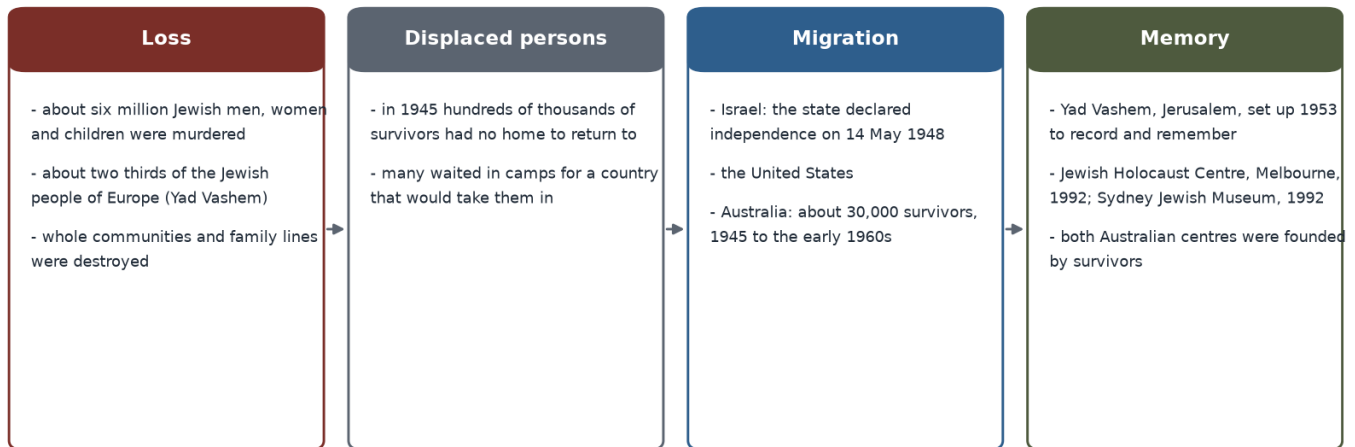
5. Decolonisation. Decolonisation — the process by which colonies became independent nations — sped up sharply after 1945. The war had weakened Britain, France and the Netherlands, and strengthened independence movements across Asia and Africa. India and Pakistan became free in August 1947; Indonesia proclaimed its independence in 1945 and won Dutch recognition in December 1949 — with Australia’s support at the UN, as you saw above. Within two decades, dozens of new nations existed that had not existed in 1939. Many of them, as part 7 shows, wrote the language of the new human rights declaration into their own constitutions.

6. The Holocaust after 1945: loss, migration and memory

Sections 4A–4C taught the Holocaust itself — its causes, its phases and its victims. This part asks a different question: what did the Holocaust leave behind for the Jewish people after the war? Handle it with the care the subject deserves. Figure 10 sets out the four steps this part follows: loss, displacement, migration, memory.

The Holocaust after 1945: loss, displacement, migration, memory

What the murder of six million people left behind for the Jewish people after the war



What a society chooses to remember, and when it becomes ready to listen, is itself history.

Four panels in order: loss, about six million Jewish men, women and children murdered; displaced persons in 1945 waiting for a country to take them in; migration to Israel, the United States and Australia; and memory, Yad Vashem and the two Australian Holocaust centres founded by survivors

Figure 10 — The Holocaust after 1945: loss, displacement, migration, memory.

The scale of the loss. About six million Jewish men, women and children were murdered — about two-thirds of the Jewish people of Europe, as recorded by Yad Vashem, the World Holocaust Remembrance Center. Whole communities, whole languages of daily life, whole family lines were destroyed. Almost every survivor had lost family members; many had lost everyone.

Displaced. In 1945 hundreds of thousands of Jewish survivors were **displaced persons** — people forced from their homes with nowhere to return to. Many could not go back: their homes had been taken, their towns destroyed, and in some places the hatred that had driven them out was still there. They waited in camps for countries that would take them in.

Migration. Three destinations mattered most. The state of Israel declared independence on 14 May 1948, and many survivors made their way there. Others migrated to the United States. And a significant number came to Australia: roughly 30,000 Holocaust survivors settled here between 1945 and the early 1960s, which nearly doubled the size of Australia's small pre-war Jewish community. Melbourne and Sydney became home to two of the largest communities of survivors in the world.

Memory. Coming to terms with that scale of loss took decades. Many survivors found that people did not want to hear their stories in the early post-war years; public memory grew slowly. Institutions took on the work of remembering.

Yad Vashem was established in Jerusalem in 1953, by law of the new Israeli parliament, to record, study and remember the Holocaust. In Australia, survivors themselves built the main institutions: the Jewish Holocaust Centre in Melbourne and the Sydney Jewish Museum both opened in 1992, and both were founded by survivors. Today these centres collect survivors' recorded testimony, teach the history, and stand as the answer of memory to destruction.

The interpretation point for this section: what a society chooses to remember — and when it becomes ready to listen — is itself history. The gap between 1945 and 1992 in Australia is part of the Holocaust's legacy, not a gap in it.

7. "All human beings are born free and equal": the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

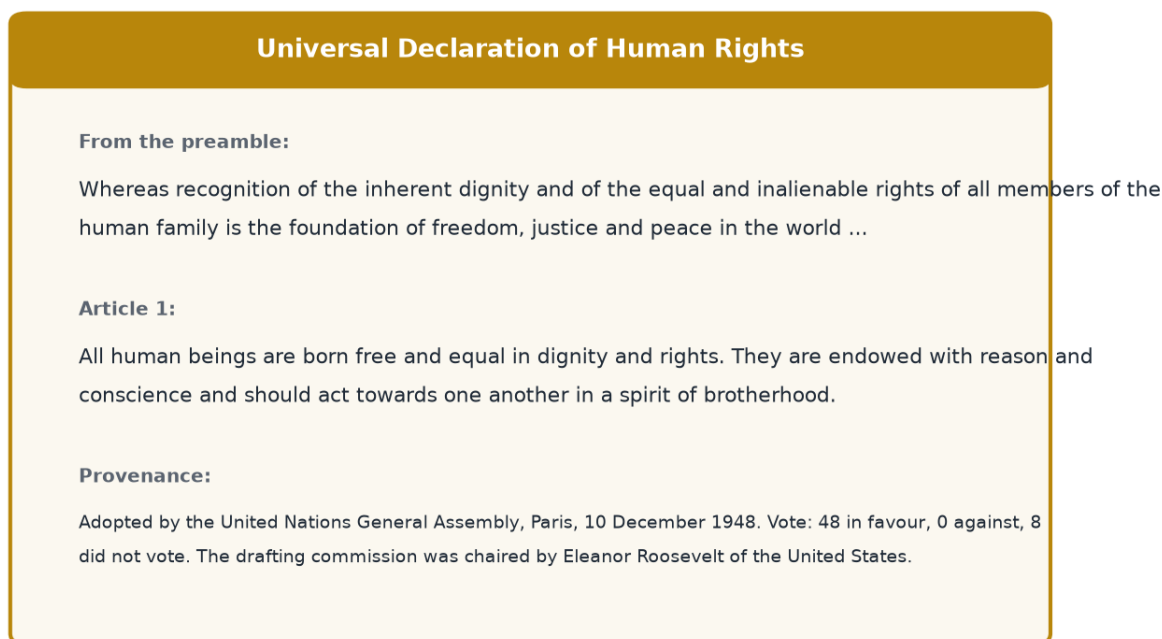
The world wars and the Holocaust forced a question onto the world's agenda: are there rights that every person holds, no matter what government they live under? In 1945 the new United Nations began the work of answering it. A

commission chaired by Eleanor Roosevelt of the United States drafted a declaration, and on 10 December 1948 the UN General Assembly, meeting in Paris, adopted the **Universal Declaration of Human Rights**: 48 countries voted in favour, none against, and 8 did not vote.

Figure 11 reproduces two extracts from the document itself — a **primary source**, made at the time by the people inside the events.

A primary source: the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Two extracts from the document adopted in Paris, 10 December 1948



One day earlier, on 9 December 1948, the same General Assembly adopted the Genocide Convention.

A framed reproduction of extracts from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights: the first lines of the preamble and the full text of Article 1, with a provenance line giving the place and date of adoption

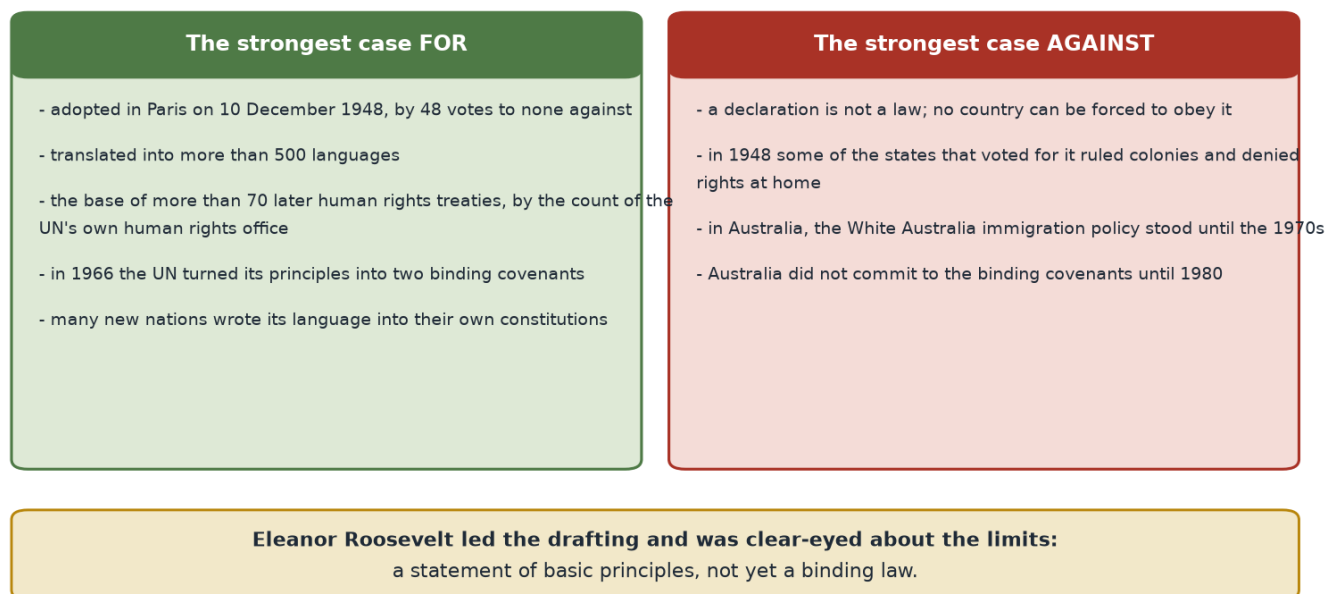
Figure 11 — The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948.

One day before the declaration was adopted, on 9 December 1948, the same General Assembly adopted the Genocide Convention — the treaty that gave **genocide** (defined in section 4A) its legal definition and made it a crime under international law. Read together, the two documents of December 1948 are the world's direct written answer to the Holocaust.

The debate. The curriculum asks you to debate the significance of the declaration as a legacy of the Holocaust and of World War II. Figure 12 steelmans both sides.

How significant is the Universal Declaration of Human Rights?

The debate over a legacy of the Holocaust and of World War II



Two columns setting out the strongest case on each side of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights debate: on one side, the foundation of the modern human rights system; on the other, a promise without enforcement

Figure 12 — The Universal Declaration of Human Rights debate, steelmanned.

The “significant” side has hard facts: the declaration is the foundation of more than 70 later human rights treaties (by the count of the UN’s own human rights office), it has been translated into over 500 languages, and in 1966 the UN turned its principles into two binding **covenants** — formal treaties nations can sign and be held to. The critics’ side has equally hard facts: a declaration is not a law; the countries that voted for it in 1948 included empires that ruled colonies and states that denied rights at home — in Australia, the White Australia immigration policy stood until the 1970s — and Australia itself did not ratify the binding covenants until 1980. Eleanor Roosevelt, who led the drafting, was clear-eyed about the limits: she told the General Assembly that the declaration was a statement of basic principles, not yet a binding law.

Worked inquiry 2 — a model evaluation. Figure 13 shows a model paragraph answering the debate question, colour-coded move by move: claim, evidence, explanation, counter, judgement. Steal its moves, not its facts — your tasks below use other legacies.

A model evaluation, move by move

The question: how significant is the Universal Declaration of Human Rights assessed as a legacy of the Holocaust and of World War II?

CLAIM	The Universal Declaration of Human Rights is the clearest written legacy of the Holocaust and of World War II.
EVIDENCE	The General Assembly adopted it in Paris on 10 December 1948, one day after the Genocide Convention, and it has since inspired more than 70 human rights treaties.
EXPLANATION	The wars and the Holocaust showed what can happen when a state may treat people however it likes. The declaration answered by naming rights that belong to every person, under any government.
COUNTER	Critics answer that it is not a binding law, and that Australia did not commit to the covenants until 1980.
JUDGEMENT	Even so, every later human rights treaty builds on it, so its significance as a starting point stands.

Steal the moves, not the facts: claim - evidence - explanation - counter - judgement.

A colour-coded model paragraph evaluating the Universal Declaration of Human Rights assessed as a legacy of the Holocaust and of World War II, labelled by move: claim, evidence, explanation, counter and judgement

Figure 13 — A model evaluation of the declaration as a legacy.

Section 6B teaches the declaration's full story — its origins, its significance and Australia's involvement — in depth. Here it stands where the sub-strand places it: as the world wars' most deliberate attempt to build a better rulebook out of what the wars had shown.

8. Practice tasks

Scaffolded tasks — work with the supports provided.

1. **Match the legacy.** Copy the table and match each legacy to its part of this section and to the war it came mainly from. One row is done for you.

Legacy	Part	War
the Repatriation Department	2	both, founded 1917
the Anzac legend		
ANZUS		
the International Criminal Court's ancestry		
Yad Vashem and Australia's Holocaust centres		
the Universal Declaration of Human Rights		

2. **Order the friendships.** Using Figure 6, order these from earliest to latest: the Treaty of Versailles signed by Australia; the Statute of Westminster adopted by Australia; the fall of Singapore; the founding of the United Nations; ANZUS; the Australia–Japan trade agreement. Which two events are only three years apart?

3. **Read the cards.** From Figure 2: (a) in what year did the word “shell shock” first appear in a medical journal, and who wrote the article? (b) which Act set up the Repatriation Department? (c) about how many returned soldiers took up land through soldier settlement schemes? (d) True or false, and fix the false ones: (i) the Department of Veterans’ Affairs began under that name in 1917; (ii) the Australian War Memorial opened in 1941.
4. **Match the historian.** Match each name — C.E.W. Bean, Alan Seymour, Ken Inglis, Marilyn Lake and Henry Reynolds (with colleagues) — to its position in Figure 5, and add the year each position was put forward.
5. **Read the Cold War schools.** From Figure 9: (a) which school of interpretation puts most responsibility on Soviet expansion? (b) which historian wrote in 1959, and what did his view add that the first view did not have? (c) what new evidence did the post-revisionist historians use that the others did not?
6. **Questions for the source.** Using only the provenance line on Figure 11, write answers to: who adopted the document, where, and when? How did the member states vote?

Unscaffolded tasks — no supports; build your answer from scratch.

7. **Evaluate a legacy.** Choose one legacy from Figure 7. In one paragraph of 4–6 sentences, evaluate its significance, using at least two dated facts from this section and stating whether its effects were short-term, long-term or both.
8. **The steelman task.** “The Anzac legend is a force for good in Australian life.” Write the strongest case for this statement, then the strongest case against it, then give your own judgement with the evidence that decided you. Both cases must use real referents from part 3.
9. **Judge a debate.** “Australia looked after its returned soldiers well after the world wars.” Using Figure 3 and part 2, write one paragraph that weighs both sides and reaches a judgement. State which measure of “well” you are using — the effort made, or the need left over.
10. **Compare legacies.** “The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was a more important legacy of World War II than the United Nations.” Discuss. Your answer should give the strongest evidence for each legacy, say what standard of “important” you are using, and end with a judgement. (Hint: section 8C’s criteria — importance, profundity (depth of effect), quantity, durability and relevance — are available to you.)

9. Source-based inquiry

Read this primary source, then answer the questions below it.

“Anzac stood, and still stands, for reckless valour in a good cause; for initiative, inventiveness, improvisation; for fidelity, comradeship, endurance, and against odds — for never-give-in.”

— C.E.W. Bean, *Anzac to Amiens* (Canberra: Australian War Memorial, 1946), p. 594. Bean was Australia’s official World War I correspondent from 1914 and its official war historian; this book is his one-volume history of the war, written for the general public thirty years after the landing he describes.

1. **Formulate:** write two historical questions this source could help you answer.
2. **Infer:** what does the source tell you about how Bean wanted Australians to remember the war? Quote one phrase from the source in your answer.
3. **Context:** Bean wrote this sentence in 1946, not 1916. What was different about the world — and about Australia’s experience of war — by the time he wrote it, and why might that matter for a summary of what Anzac “still stands” for?
4. **Perspective:** whose view of the war is in this source, and whose might be missing? Use part 2 to help you think about whose war was hardest to celebrate.
5. **Evaluate:** compare this source with the 2010 position in Figure 5. Is Bean’s sentence more useful as evidence of *what Anzac was like* or of *how Australians wanted to remember it*? Explain your choice, and name one other source that could test your answer.

What to look for

Score student work against the band achievement standard (Level 9–10): students analyse the features, content and context of sources; identify the perspectives that individuals and groups held; connect short- and long-term causes with intended and unintended consequences; and judge historical significance by criteria. Expected responses below are a guide, not a script. Per *CONTESTED_TERMS* Rule 5, mark the reasoning — terms defined, assumptions surfaced, both sides steelmanned, evidence cited, limits acknowledged — never the conclusion reached. If a student raises excluded First Nations material (for example, the treatment of First Nations returned soldiers), redirect to the front-of-book note; do not develop it (D3).

- **Returned soldiers (part 2, .E01 partial):** student can name the five impact areas with dated evidence (shell shock term in 1915 via Charles Samuel Myers; *Australian Soldiers' Repatriation Act* 1917; *Discharged Soldiers' Settlement Act* 1917; about 25,000 soldier settlers; AWM opened 11 November 1941). Answers must stay within the §2A referents — if a student asks about the excluded strand, note that it is recorded in §2A and move on.
- **Repatriation debate (worked inquiry 1):** the two measures are named (effort made vs need left over); Marina Larsson, *Shattered Anzacs* (2009) is the named counter-evidence; a good answer says which measure it uses.
- **Anzac (part 3, .E02):** ideals traced to Bean (*The Anzac Book* 1916; *Anzac to Amiens* 1946); commemoration facts correct (first Anzac Day 1916; public holiday in all states by the 1920s; Albany 1923 and Sydney Cenotaph 1927 dawn services; AWM 1941); the four positions in Figure 5 placed in order and the shift described (building → questioning → studying → challenging); both steelmans present, with Lake, Reynolds, McKenna and Damousi (2010) and Inglis (1998) attributed.
- **International relationships (part 4, .E03):** correct order is Versailles (28 June 1919) → League of Nations (1920) → Statute of Westminster (1931; adopted by Australia 1942, backdated to 3 September 1939) → Singapore (15 February 1942) → UN founding (1945) → BCOF occupation of Japan (1946–1952) → Indonesia at the UN (1947) → Evatt as GA President (1948–49) → Colombo Plan (1950) → ANZUS and the San Francisco peace treaty (1951) → Japan trade agreement (1957). Evaluations must state which measure they use (alliances vs daily life) and meet the slow-change case fairly.
- **World War II legacies (part 5, .E04):** all five legacies named with dates (UN 1945; occupation — Germany zoned, two states by 1949; Japan under occupation to 1952, constitution 1947; Nuremberg November 1945 – October 1946; Tokyo May 1946 – November 1948, Sir William Webb president; Cold War — Churchill March 1946; decolonisation — India and Pakistan 1947, Indonesia recognised 1949). The three Cold War schools are distinguished by *which evidence they weigh*, and Williams (1959) and Gaddis (1972) are correctly attributed.
- **Holocaust after 1945 (part 6, .E05):** the tone is appropriate; six million and “two-thirds of European Jewry” attributed to Yad Vashem; Israel 14 May 1948; roughly 30,000 survivors to Australia by the early 1960s; Yad Vashem 1953; Jewish Holocaust Centre (Melbourne) and Sydney Jewish Museum both 1992, both survivor-founded. The memory lag (1945–1992) is treated as part of the legacy.
- **UDHR (part 7, .E06):** adoption facts correct (10 December 1948, Paris; 48–0–8; Roosevelt chair); the Genocide Convention of 9 December 1948 correctly paired with it; both sides of Figure 12 steelmanned with real facts (70+ treaties, 500+ languages, the 1966 covenants vs non-binding status, colonial rule in 1948, Australia's 1980 ratification); the model paragraph shows claim–evidence–explanation–counter–judgement.
- **Source inquiry (part 9):** questions are genuinely historical; the inference quotes the source; the context answer notices the 1946 vantage point (Bean writing after a second world war, summarising the first); the perspective answer names the missing — the wounded, the traumatised, the dead and their families — without drifting into excluded content; the evaluation distinguishes evidence of experience from evidence of memory and names a test source (a diary, a pension file, a repatriation hospital record).

Cross-links to skills sections: reading historical sources for purpose, features, content, context (7C); evaluating the value of sources as evidence (7D); analysing perspectives, beliefs, values and attitudes from sources (7E); evaluating historical interpretations and debates (7F — this section is 7F's main content partner); sorting causes and consequences by time span and intention (8B); evaluating historical significance (8C — used in tasks 7 and 10); constructing sustained historical interpretations and arguments (8D). Forward link: the UDHR in depth is section 6B (VC2HH10K37).

Sources for this section. All figures are original artifacts drawn for this book from the values stated here (SOURCE_USE Rule 3). Quotations and real-world data carry the following source lines; web collections were retrieved 2026-08-25.

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- *Australian Soldiers’ Repatriation Act 1917* (Commonwealth) and *Discharged Soldiers’ Settlement Act 1917* (Victoria) — original statutes; National Archives of Australia and Public Record Office Victoria.
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- Marina Larsson, *Shattered Anzacs: Living with the Scars of War* (Sydney: University of New South Wales Press, 2009) — families’ care for returned soldiers and the limits of official repatriation.
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