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Education or Indoctrination? World War II Ideologies Under Leaders Hitler and Mussolini -
Education Systems and Propaganda Campaigns

Allison Hills

Honors Scholar Senior Thesis

DePauw University

April 10th, 2017

Disclaimer: Allison Hills is a senior undergraduate student at DePauw University in Greencastle, Indiana, majoring in History and double minoring in Education Studies and Political Science. All primary works have been previously translated, or not translated at all, limiting the parameters of the thesis. More works were available detailing Adolf Hitler than Benito Mussolini. The term “powerful leaders” refers to the combination of Adolf Hitler and Benito Mussolini.

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Many individuals helped me in my writing process, especially when recommending sources. Professor Jamie Stockton in the Education Studies department met with me weekly all year, acting as my sponsor for the thesis. The rest of my committee, Professor Pamela Propsom in the Psychology department and Professor Derek Ford in the Education Studies department, were both instrumental and met with me multiple times to read over and edit my thesis in addition to sending me sources for additional information. Professor Julia Bruggerman in the History department helped me narrow down my topic and give additional sources and questions to be answered in the thesis. Thank you all for your help and patience throughout the writing process!

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Abstract

This thesis analyses education as a potential force of indoctrination by looking at two powerful leaders during World War II: Adolf Hitler and Benito Mussolini. Following the abstract and acknowledgements, this thesis continues into the personal statement and positionality. Next, there is an intensive literature review, consisting of: a historical background before World War II, sections regarding psychology of education and leaders and followers. Then comes the purpose of the thesis, followed by the methods used to obtain data. After the background information, I go directly into talking about Adolf Hitler and Benito Mussolini using backgrounds from their countries to explain the political circumstances of their rise, and ending with information on their education systems, including both boys and girls. Lastly, I discuss some limitations of this thesis before finishing with my conclusion and propaganda sections.

Introduction

Malcom X (1964), a world renowned human rights activist, stated that “education is the passport to the future, for tomorrow belongs to those who prepare for today.” Malcolm X knew that whatever the future would bring, education would provide an idea of what the world would look like. Yet, this quote leaves room for both negative and positive interpretations. What would happen if education did not prepare the youth of today for a brighter tomorrow? What would the world look like then? This is the major question that powerful leaders, like Adolf Hitler and Benito Mussolini, strove to answer by using their systems of education and propaganda campaigns to create the future world they wished to see.

Education will fail if it cannot be accessed and supported by the majority, leaving the powerful leader’s uses of propaganda as the intersection between their ideals and what their masses can understand. Each powerful leader previously mentioned is able to appeal to their people’s emotions through propaganda, promoting the idea that propaganda can work. Yet, people who do not agree with the main narrative can be painted against the grain. Education shows how the structural ideals of the powerful leader and their party are established and socially reinforced through propaganda, detailing the powerful leader as beloved by the people. While the powerful leader earns the people’s trust, they are able to slowly turn their citizens into people at the state’s disposal through education and propaganda.

Personal Statement and Positionality

First approaching a thesis of this magnitude is intimidating, no matter how you look at it. Yet, because Honors Scholars are allowed to pick which topic they want to write about, the writing process went over smoothly. When thinking about possible topics, I immediately looked to History and Education, as those are my two main fields of interest and relate to my academic

background. World Wars are always times of turmoil for the entire globe, making them necessary to study from a historical and political perspective, but also causes the fields to be saturated with information. I chose to write on World War II and powerful leaders due to their influence in politics, interweaving education versus indoctrination with their personal politics and propaganda campaigns. When speaking of powerful leaders and their actions, the importance of education and propaganda often gets forgotten, taking a backseat to the bloodier deeds of the leaders. Education is acknowledged, as is the importance of propaganda, but they are not analyzed in the context of maintaining the leader's power or how they relate to one another.

After narrowing down my general topics and time frame, I had to pick which powerful leaders to analyze. World War II leaders prominent in shaping how the war would turn mainly existed in Europe, where the war was physically taking place. I chose to narrow my focus to study Hitler and Mussolini because they are most commonly associated with the term "dictator," even though I do not use this term to classify them as such. All of their regimes were backed by governments, yet they were known for being charismatic leaders, letting their people put a face and personality behind a movement. Germany and Italy were both important countries economically that affected Europe, spreading greater influence to Europe through their ideologies and leading by example. By choosing these two powerful leaders, I am able to showcase how their personal politics played into their education and propaganda campaigns, creating a narrative of how they were able to tailor their campaigns to maintain their personal power and their party's power.

When writing this thesis and going to narrow down the field, I had to make some concessions when writing. I wanted to create a new term that would encompass all powerful

leaders as having similar character traits. Yet, this was not possible. All leaders come to power in different ways because they all have different backgrounds.

I originally wished to write on three major leaders in Europe: Hitler, Stalin, and Mussolini. Yet, as my research advanced, I realized that Stalin did not technically fit the mold of my definition of a powerful European leader. Stalin was the leader of the Soviet Union, but the Great Depression did not hit the Soviet Union in the same way it hit Germany and Italy. Most works I found to draw information from Stalin were in contrast to Hitler, which only served to compare the two powerful leaders rather than having information on Stalin specific policy initiatives. This topic was of great interest to me, but because it was so vast, I had to cut down on whom I chose and what I wanted to talk about so I could go adequately in-depth for my analysis.

Before going in depth on my research, it is important to consider my positionality. When I use this term, I mean looking at my past academic background to discover potential biases in my work before continuing. As a History major and Political Science and Education Studies double minor, social and political history is mainly what I study. For these fields, I write and read multiple articles and works on a daily basis. As far as my personal background, I come from an upper middle class family and am female. All of these factors, as well as more, factor into how I relate to and look at my thesis topic.

Literature review.

The majority of my sources for this project come from Roy O. West Library at DePauw University. Online articles mentioned came from different databases, such as JSTOR and Academic Search Premier. All sources used, particularly primary sources, were not translated by me, but had been previously translated by another scholar. My thesis advisors, Professors Jamie Stockton, Pam Propsom, and Derek Ford gave me recommendations for books and articles that I

should look into. Also, many book and article recommendations came from Professor Julia Bruggerman, whose area of expertise falls in Europe and other powerful leaders.

When looking at the previous literature regarding the education systems of both powerful leaders, the field is mostly barren. Most information is tucked into larger books on the ideologies of both leaders. For my background research, I drew from Koon's work *Believe, Obey Fight* and Pine's work *Education in Nazi Germany*. Both works are fairly comprehensive, but did not discuss how propaganda and other institutions interacted with the field of education. They also only had, at most, one chapter discussing girl's education. While these works were written fairly recently, they still lack certain elements in order to completely understand the daily lives of students under each powerful leader and regime.

The primary source *Education for Death* by Gregor Ziemer serves as my main source for what education was like for boys and girls under Hitler and the Nazi Party. Ziemer was a reporter that had a letter, from "the founder and director of a foreign institution," and was allowed by the American Ambassador to enter different Nazi schools and organizations (Ziemer, 1941, p. 7). By using a letter and bribing certain Nazi officials, he was able to get a firsthand look at Nazi education as it was happening, writing down all of his experiences into the book. Even though this book is older, published in 1941, I never found other primary sources as useful, or similar in nature, to this work. Ziemer's book was instrumental in not only learning about what it was like for foreigners that wished to study the Nazi education system, but also the day to day lives of differently aged children living in Nazi Germany.

In contrast, much of what I use for my information on Mussolini comes directly from some of his speeches that were translated. When discussing Mussolini's education system, most sources were primary sources from Giovanni Gentile, who made the majority of the education

decisions for Fascist Italy. I relied heavily on some lectures that Gentile gave when he was a college professor. I was hoping to find a work similar to Ziemer's to draw on for Mussolini, but I was unable to do so. As a result, I drew from Mussolini's speeches, as well as the secondary work *Mussolini and Italian Fascism* by S. William Halperin. There is more secondary work in the Mussolini section due to translation issues and less saturation in the field regarding education systems in comparison to Hitler.

Looking to find political information on each powerful leader was easy, education information was the opposite. Education and propaganda are linked in multiple ways, but they are not the same thing, as most authors lump them together. Propaganda and education feed into one another, but education is a system that controls the youth. Propaganda controls a wider variety of people as well as reinforcing learning that was taught during school. It is imperative that authors recognize this change so that the narrative of education systems of powerful leaders does not fall to the wayside, in favor of propaganda.

Historical background pre world war II.

Before the start of World War II, which is when the two powerful leaders held power, the Great Depression of the 1930's caused a worldwide economic crisis. While defining a Great Depression can also be difficult, Robert J. Samuelson (2012) sums up the idea of a Great Depression simply as "a broad economic collapse that produces high unemployment from which there is no easy and obvious escape." The Great Depression hit many different areas of the world economies, mostly seen in the change in gold standards. These changes caused inflation, wage discrepancies, and other budgetary issues within and between trading countries. Yet, most of the Great Depression is blamed on those who had substantial credits, but did not use them correctly in their specific economies, mainly due to a lack of education and know-how on the part of the

consumer. The result of the Great Depression and collapse of markets caused people to place economic policies in the hands of the government, who would act as the main overseers of markets (Samuelson, 2012, p. 36). Through the Great Depression, governments of countries were able to gain more control over their economies through centralization of vital economic processes.

The results of the Great Depression were devastating for people around the world, showing how low the economy can go when left in the hands of the inexperienced. Due to the economic centralization, Spencer (1923) argues that a more direct path to strong and centralized leaderships were seen, specifically in the European countries. The people needed someone to look up to economically and someone who would keep them out of future World Wars, creating the need for a powerful, all-knowing leader. The people wanted peace after World War I, and the idea of a “tranquil” atmosphere between the international community gave rise to powerful leaders through one-man rule or one party rule (Spencer, 1923, p. 393). Thus, leaderships and the prevalence of major ruling powers became increasingly prevalent as the result of the Great Depression and the continuing economic fallout.

Education vs. indoctrination.

While creating a new term to describe two well-known leaders is a new step, definitions are equally as important when looking at their systems of education. The term indoctrination, as used in this paper, is defined as an “emotive concept to detonate a process regarded as manipulative and undesirable,” usually associated with “instilling, inculcating, moralizing, imposing, and brainwashing” (Wilcox, 1988, p. 249). In contrast, when using the term education, it is referring to the idea that “human education is a process of individual growth and development” where students and learners are “discovering, nourishing, and directing inherent

potentialities, but at every stage demanding increasing self-reliance and self-control” (United States Commissioner of Education). So, while indoctrinating has a negative connotation where people participating in the system are being used without their choice, education has a positive edge where the citizens in the school systems are learning how to learn so to speak: they are learning critical thinking skills so they themselves can learn how to interpret the world around them. If a leader indoctrinates their people, they are not teaching them to think on their own, whereas leaders that educate their people are teaching them how to form their own opinions about policies and other aspects of society.

A major text used in the classification of education vs. indoctrination, specifically in authoritarian regimes, is Joel Spring’s *Wheels in the Head: Education Philosophies of Authority, Freedom, and Culture from Confucianism to Human Rights*. In his work, Spring tries to “explore how governments use education to control and manage their populations and to examine forms of education that claim to free people from authoritarian control” (Spring, 2012, p. IX). While this work does not touch on Hitler or Mussolini, its insights on the elements of schooling and state control when discussing indoctrination versus education are essential when looking at any strong and central government’s influence on future generations. When concluding whether or not Hitler and Mussolini’s regimes were indoctrination or education, I will be drawing mainly from this text.

Psychology of education and age groups.

When looking at the education systems of powerful leaders, like Adolf Hitler and Benito Mussolini, discussing how education can interact with different age levels and personality traits of children to impact their later lives gives students insight on education processing. For the purpose of this thesis, preschool and kindergarten will be ages three through five, primary grades

will be grades one through three and ages six through eight, elementary grades will be four through five and ages nine to ten, middle school will be grades six through eight and ages eleven through thirteen, high school will be grades nine through twelve and ages fourteen through seventeen, and college and graduate levels will be anything eighteen and older (Biehler & Snowman, 2003, p. 75). Younger children who are more active and have less of an attention span are in a different developmental state than those older in high school or higher, who have completely matured physically and emotionally, making the separation by age and ability necessary. By using education or indoctrination differently at varying developmental stages in children's lives, leaders are able to shape how their people think. Educational psychology then becomes an important lens when looking at what level education or indoctrination systems were influenced by the political ideology and goals of the regime.

Preschool and kindergarten aged children exhibit more social behaviors with other students through an increased amount of group activity time. This is also the first time that psychologists see evidence of gender roles in children based on their activities (Biehler & Snowman, 2003, p. 76). Yet, the most important aspect of children at this age is their level of cognition: children are able to develop a theory of mind that causes them to be "aware of the difference between thinking about something and experiencing something in relation to others" (Biehler & Snowman, 2003, p. 76). So, children are aware that other children may think differently than they do, yet they are still greatly affected by parents, whether they are authoritative or passive. Children can easily learn new ideas, but their level of emotional control is not yet fully developed, so they cannot completely focus on these ideals all the time. Therefore, the influence of the parent and other adult figures plays an increasingly important role. During this age, the guidance by the parents and other adult figures in the children's lives

will shape how they see the world around them, making them vulnerable to multiple types of influence.

When children enter primary grades, they are expected to have more emotional control, yet they wish to please the teacher and understand more about the learning process due to their increased awareness. Specifically, children at this age realize that “learning and memory are caused by particular cognitive processes that are under their conscious control” (Beihler & Snowman, 2003, p. 85). They also need to have shorter tasks that are more split up so that they can retain their attention. Children at this age are starting to understand more about the ways that they learn, but they cannot yet access their full potential in schools.

Children in elementary grades can reason more and have an increased self-image. Cognitively, children at this age are able to think logically, but have not developed more than that (Beihler & Snowman, 2003, p. 89). This is also the age where groups form, and peer pressure is increasing used for conformity, which can compare and contrast to one’s own self image. They can remember simple memory items, but not more complex skills, meaning that they can rehash previously learned information (Beihler & Snowman, 2003, p. 90). Students at this age are able to perform basic memory tasks and build on those, but are still struggling with more philosophical issues in memory and more abstract concepts.

Upon entering middle school, students are able to connect to one another on a more emotional level due to an increased sense of reasoning. Yet, this is the age where “the desire to conform reaches a peak,” (Beihler & Snowman, 2003, p. 96) meaning it is incredibly important for powerful leaders and political regimes. When students feel the need to conform, peer pressure is very prevalent, so parent and teacher influence takes a backseat to the needs of those their age around them. Middle school is the age range where most students feel the most pressure and

need to join a particular group or ideology, making it an important age range for powerful leaders.

The last developmental stage when discussing teaching and learning happens in high school and beyond. During this stage, parents and other adults tend to “influence long range plans” whereas “peers are likely to influence immediate status” (Beihler & Snowman, 2003, p. 103) due to thinking about college, jobs, and other plans after finishing high school. When it comes to learning, they are able to have formal thoughts and conversations and abstract thoughts (Beichler & Snowman, 2003, p. 107). During and after high school, students are at their peak levels of maturity, therefore becoming useful in the regimes through political actions and positions.

When children are in younger developmental stages during education, the influence of the teacher, parents, family, and other adults become of paramount importance because the child will learn how to take in the world around them from those figures. Entering middle school age is when students will conform the most, feeling intense pressure to commit themselves to the societal norms, especially socially. Entering into high school and higher education, students have come to their peak maturity levels in cognition and can deal with more complicated thought processes that they know they can control, resulting in tracking into jobs or future education. Educating in each of these developmental stages is shown when the powerful leader and political regime allow their people to learn about what they wish to learn, teaching them the processes of how to think on a range of topics. Indoctrination at these different levels consists of teaching only what the powerful leader and political regime allow and wish to be spread into society, leaving out room for free thought and expression. In contrast, education consists of letting the teachers help the students when they want it, yet also having access to any range of materials if

they wish. By looking at the different developmental stages of children in education and age, scholars are able to more accurately describe if a system is indoctrination or education under a powerful leader or political regime.

Psychology of leaders and followers – the milgram experiment and replicating milgram.

Most people, when looking back on the many horrors of powerful leaders, wonder how the negative actions of a leader could be so widely followed, praised even. How could leaders wish to eradicate the Jewish people from the planet in order to create a perfect society? How was Stalin able to cut out all of his opposition through intimidation tactics? How could Mussolini pass Acerbo Law and change the Italian voting system so that his party could gain power? These questions, and more, stem from many different human motivations. Yet, one common element of the human condition that is majorly present: fear of what people today could do when presented with similar situations. To try and answer this basic question, scholars must look at the relationship between leaders and followers and how obedience plays a role in the power of the leader and the level of conviction the followers have to said leader. To gain more of a background on this unique interplay of power, let us look at the Stanley Milgram experiments that started in 1963.

Stanley Milgram, a psychology professor at Yale University, strove to better understand destructive obedience within human motivations. He believed that “an act that is carried out under commands is, psychologically, of a profoundly different character than an action that is spontaneous” (Milgram, 1963, p. xvii) and therefore cannot be left out of the larger narrative of social psychology because there is always a level of authority when living communally. While there may have only been one person that thought of each destructive idea, the thought could

only have been carried out if a large number of people obeyed the authority figure. Milgram sums up the importance of his research by stating that “obedience is the psychological mechanism that links individual action to political purpose, binding men to systems of authority” creating a cyclical aspect of power (Milgram, 1963, p. 371). Milgram’s idea of obedience and why people listen to those in authority is inexorably linked to education as it serves to refute or reinforce the ideas of the powerful leaders.

Milgram set up his experiments so that there were different purposes for each participant based on what they were told by the administrator of the test. For the “teachers,” the shock volts were clearly labeled on the machine that the subjects were using, next to words like “slight shock” all the way to “danger: severe shock” (Milgram, 1963, p. 372). The responses of the person being shocked, or the perceived victim, are the same for each person participating in the trial. The perceived victim of the experiment is given shocks based on how well the individual remembers a series of words that is read by the person that is shocking the “victim.” When the “victim” that is unseen starts to complain of pain from shocks is when obedience comes into play, as the person that is shocking the “victim” shows hesitation, but is spurred on by the experimenter. Those running the tests, who were those who ran the experiment, knew that they were testing obedience and pushed the “teachers” to administer larger shocks to the “victims.” The perceived victim behind the glass getting shocked knew of the real nature of the experiment, and was taken out of the room and replaced with an automated response once the “teacher” administered certain levels of shocks in order to standardize the procedure. The “teacher,” or the person that was reading the words, was the real test subject. Yet, the “teachers” involved in the study knew nothing of the background of the experiment. While this experiment was not without its problems, as all subjects were male and between the ages of twenty and fifty, it serves to

showcase how individuals react when they are commanded to do something by a legitimate authority figure, similar to how people under powerful leaders in Europe reacted after World War II.

The results from Milgram's experiment were staggering: most people continued administering the shocks even after the "victim" was heard to be in pain. The amount of people that continued administering shocks to the "victim" was much higher than Milgram and his fellow scientists had predicted (Milgram, 1963, p. 377). Even though those administering the shocks, the "teachers" in the study, had obvious and severe emotional reservations concerning their actions, they still complied with the authority figure. When the results of this experiment were first released to the public, there were many issues raised concerning the ethics of the experiment due to the severe emotional stress that was incurred by the participants that were administering the shocks, yet his experiments still revealed negative truths about human nature that most people did not want to believe would occur or were true.

The Milgram experiment has important psychological ramifications and links to learned behaviors over time from childhood: most people are taught that it is not acceptable morally to hurt another person (Milgram, 1963, p. 376). Yet, adult males from the experiment showed that people would be willing to go to farther lengths of causing physical pain to others if given the task by an authority figure. Based on the different prior knowledge of the participants and their role in the study is similar to the set up of Hitler's and Mussolini's regimes and the different levels of power and knowledge that the political officials had versus the average citizen. The experimenter would be the government, Mussolini and Hitler would be the experimenters, and the "teacher" would be those individuals who obey the leader to the fullest extents. If people were actually shocked as a result of the "teacher's" actions, then this group would represent

those who were discriminated against under the regimes of Hitler and Mussolini. The results from the Milgram Experiments speak to the levels of obedience to authority figures from average individuals, linking directly to the leaderships of Hitler and Mussolini.

The Milgram Experiments were conducted in 1963, which was a while ago, so there was a partial replication done at Santa Clara University by Jerry Burger in 2006 to see whether people have changed in their obedience to authority figures today. The experiment did have to change to protect the well-being of the participants due to the multiple ethical issues raised by the original Milgram Experiments in 1963. Burger fixed this by doing increased levels of screening for those participating, and making it clear beforehand that the participants could drop out at any time and still receive their money for participation in the experiment (Burger, 2006, p. 2). In this experiment, there were seventy adults of different genders, ethnicity, education, and a wider age range (Burger, 2006, p. 5). There were many similar aspects to the original Milgram Experiments, but one aspect that was notably changed were changing the highest level of voltage possible. Even so, the results were roughly the same for the two experiments, except they were slightly lower in Burger's version (Burger, 2006, p. 8). While Burger put more stipulations regarding the mental and physical health of those involved into his experiment to show that the individuals did not have to follow the directions of the authority figure, which should have made more people resist, this was not the case.

From both experiments, one aspect is clear: individuals typically underestimate the power of situational forces when explaining another person's behavior (Burger, 2006, p. 3). While most people do not want to believe they are capable of going against their morals, especially to the extent that they hurt other people, the power of a respected authority figure in combination with perceived peer pressure from situations proves this idea to be false. Individuals in both versions

of the Milgram Experiment were willing to comply with the authority figure's destructive orders because they were not in the position of power. In that situation, individuals released their power of decision making to those in charge because they seemed to know better due to their heir of authority, similar to Hitler and Mussolini's powerful regimes. Burger's experiment and subsequent results were significant because it expanded the demographics of participants and occurred modern day, making the results more staggering. There was no change in mindset, as was perceived by psychologists. Yet, an important aspect to point out when discussing the results from these experiments is that these both occurred in the United States, which means that the participants are from a democratic background. When drawing out the implications from this study and placing them in a European setting, with powerful leaders like Hitler and Mussolini, one needs to consider the mindsets of each of these different individuals due to the different mindsets. The results from both the Milgram Experiments and Burger's partial replication of the Milgram Experiments serves to showcase how obedience and authority figures can lead people to go against their morals and commit actions that are negative towards others, serving to display a psychological basis to explain manipulation of the masses.

Psychology and characteristics of powerful leaders.

People under the leadership of a major authority figure or governmental structure have a lot to lose if they do not obey. Likewise, powerful leaders need to use all tools they have in order to maintain a positive connection with their people. Due to the wide range of influence and power that the leader holds, people are often threatened or feel pressured to give into those ideals, even when they do not believe in them. There is an intriguing relationship between the leader and his people, a delicate balance between the leader's need to be listened to, and the people's need to belong with others.

Leaders first need to instill in their people a sense of trust in their leadership, and the main way that leaders can communicate this directly to their people is through their public speeches. Leaders in power need to tailor their speeches and ideas to fit the needs of their listeners and citizens. Just by being someone in an authority position in the government, leaders are backed by the social institutions, which lets them wield greater power (Myers, 2017, p. 204). While not all people will agree with their ideas, effective leaders are able to convince the majority. Their messages, often transmitted through the media, are meant to build trust with their people by doing two things: certifying their leadership through establishing dominance and portraying themselves as similar to their people, both ways used to form a connection. Their speeches and how they represent themselves act as mass political socialization. Even small aspects of in the words they use and the way they speak can contribute to mass socialization. A leader is only as strong as the forces that keep them in power, and that is their people. Therefore, a leader has to try and create a cohesive group in their people to best display their ideas to a greater population.

While what is said is important in their speeches and other forms of communication with their people, there are other bonds that can be formed through their appearance and mannerisms through different forms of media. These can range from physical appearance to personality traits and more. Ways that leaders can make themselves seem more attractive to their people is through physical attractiveness, which can help emotionally connect through perceived beauty, and by showcasing similarity, eventually leading to empathy and relations to the leader (Myers, 2017, p. 237). Leaders are the main communicators of what is going on inside and outside the country, taking on a role of trust and communication with their people. Therefore, character traits of lasting communication and maintaining emotional connections to their people is key in

preserving their power. Ways that leaders can continue their power is through promoting their achievements and their drive to advance their goals (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991, p. 49). In order for the leader to control and cultivate their power and influence, they need to distinguish themselves by having the physical and personality traits of a leader so they can gain the trust and admiration of their people, forming a lasting bond.

Through their physical traits and socialization, the most important aspect of a leader's influence is over other people, who are then able to spread their ideas throughout the population. There are two main types of influence that are well-known in social psychology: normative and informational. While a normative influence is based on a person's want to be accepted by others and fulfill their expectations, informational influence occurs when people are convinced by other's evidence to support ideals that affect their own reality, which is driven by the human need and desire to be accepted (Myers, 2017, p. 216). Leaders tend to use both types to directly influence their people's actions in their favor. While informational influence can be more strictly controlled through propaganda campaigns, normative influence is harder to predict because it is different for each individual. Normative influence is based on fear of social rejection from a group, making an individual socially isolated and shunned. As Meyers (2017) states, "brain scans show that group judgments differing from one's own activate a brain area that is also active when one feels the pain of bad betting decisions," meaning that people will more readily agree with decisions and viewpoints that they do not agree with in order to not feel ostracized through deviation from the norm. This instance is an example of normative influence because of the issue of acceptance. The need for people to fit in produces the ability for normative influence from a group, which often goes unnoticed by most people it affects, letting the leader exploit or manipulate the group. Leaders are aware that the images they release to the public to support

their ideology are important, but how people influence others in a group mentality and the need to fit in is often what drives people to adhere to ideology.

While leaders try to adapt their political strategies to their people, the people also comply with the leader. Even though not all people have the same attitude regarding the leader's ideals and beliefs, their behavior does not necessarily coincide with their beliefs because of different external forces (Myers, 2017, p. 125). These ideas of compliance versus acceptance also connect with the idea of normative versus informational social influence, all of which can be shown in the different stages of the Milgram Experiment. Some of these are physical threats to their safety, others are threats to their social status, and more. People can have internal beliefs that are different than their expressed attitudes. They are aware that they play a small role in a larger system, yet there is a need to conform to the dominant narrative that "affects not just acting as other people act; it is also being affected by how they act" (Myers, 2017, p. 192). There are multiple reasons why people need to conform to a specific ideology, yet when there is an authoritarian regime, citizens are more often worried about their physical safety, specifically through the increased use of the military and police presence in their everyday life. While one singular person can feel the need to conform to the leader's idea, whether or not they agree, it is the power of a group of people that reinforces the need to accept the ideas as their own.

When discussing motivations by leaders to control their population and how they can make themselves seem more legitimate, it is equally important to discuss the motives that individuals have when adopting the ideologies of the leader. Leaders can make themselves seem more attractive to their people through specific actions, yet it is often the influence of the group on other members of the group that convinces people to adhering to ideas, in addition to other external forces. Milgram's Experiment, in combination with different types of social influences,

form the psychological backgrounds of both leaders and groups that are needed when examining Hitler and Mussolini's regimes and governmental structures through education and propaganda campaigns.

Approaches to Teaching.

In order for scholars to put themselves in the mindset of studying education, a background in teaching and learning is essential. There are many different methods to teaching, and teachers must choose which method to teach and what information they wish to convey to their students. As a result, by looking at teaching methods when in each particular stage of education, it can be seen if a student is unable to think and express their thoughts freely. Teachers can not only influence the student through their behavior as a teacher, they can influence and restrict the behavior of the entire classroom through direct and indirect messages. For these reasons, it is necessary for any scholar looking at issues of education versus indoctrination to have a small background on teaching methods.

One of the most common teaching methods based on the behavioral theory is direct instruction. When referring to direct instruction, this concept is "that if the student has not learned, the teacher has not sufficiently taught" (Biehler & Snowman, 2003, p. 347). This approach puts the stress on the teacher to teach the students to learn, rather than on the students to learn for themselves with a little help from the teacher. There are many different stages involved in direct teaching, and they are defined as follows: orientation, presentation and structured, guided, or independent practice (Biehler & Snowman, 2003, p. 347). Through direct instruction and the behavioral approach to teaching and learning, teachers are seen as factual in everything they say, and the students will believe whatever they are told. The teacher is the main director in the classroom, taking a more authoritarian approach. While some debate the

effectiveness of direct instruction, it is the most common approach when teaching behavior, leading itself more towards an indoctrination style of education when discussing powerful leaders.

Another approach to teaching, called the facilitating meaningful and self-directed learning, deals with cognitive processes in how students process and learn information. This approach considers how much control over the cognitive processes of learning the student actually has based off of the information they are receiving from those around them. Teachers that use this approach must create clear goals for their student and class, get and maintain the attention of the students, organize classes based on meaningfulness, consider time when teaching material and memory, and practice what they preach (Biehler & Snowman, 2003, p. 356). The teacher is also more responsible, yet the students are given more opportunity to showcase how they learn so the teacher can make a plan that benefits them both. Teachers also consider multiple viewpoints on information, teaching them how to discuss difficult topics with the class in a way that helps them learn and attempt to put information into their long-term memory (Biehler & Snowman, 2003, p. 357). The cognitive approach to teaching when processing information also assumes that the teacher is correct in everything they say, leading to the teacher being an incredible force in the lives of the children. Due to the increased level of student responsibility from the cognitive approach to instruction, powerful leaders and regimes that use this type of instruction tend to fall under my definition of education.

The last approach to be discussed, the social approach to teach students how to learn from each other, deals with the ideas of peer pressure and group homogeneity in classrooms. This requires different reward structures for students and cooperative learning. While there is a level of independence given to the students, there is equal responsibility put on the rest of the class to

influence each other's behavior, which is to be led by adults and the teacher. The approach also assumes equal opportunities for success from each student based on their independence from the group (Biehler & Snowman, 2003, p. 372). Through the social approach to instruction, each student needs to showcase their learning in a larger group that can then accept them or deny them their social ability to be part of a homogenous group. Cooperative learning should evolve from different structures in place through the social approach, and the teacher is able to use this to show how working with small groups of children can benefit the larger group. Due to increased peer pressure and conformity in the social approach to instruction, this leans more towards my definition of indoctrination.

While there are more ways to study when learning approaches to instruction, such as the humanistic approach, those will not be relevant to this thesis due to their incredible student responsibility. Not all teachers use each of these approaches to instruction, and some may contain elements of all of them. Yet, it is easy to tell which teaching approaches lend themselves more to processes of education versus indoctrination. By looking at some areas of instruction that are clear from classrooms for powerful leaders, scholars are able to better define what education looks like on a micro level. Each specific approach is telling of the ways in which a powerful leader and political regime can influence education, leading to discussions on how the next generation will view the current leaders and ideology.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions.

While there is some information in this field of research, it is not enough to be considered adequate for understanding all the complexities of education and how systems interact with the fields of education and propaganda. Education is commonly looked at in a bare bones way, never analyzing the ways in which students and teachers can affect each other, and how these effects

can be seen later in life through careers, family decisions, and more. It is considered apart from all other aspects of society. Politics and economics are common areas of research for historians, yet social history has not become a more popular field until more recently, meaning the field of social history is less saturated. Therefore, this research is important because it fills a historical gap. As a result, I wished to look at the problems of the education systems under Hitler and Mussolini by using school set up, education for women, and propaganda.

Methods

The method used in this thesis is a historic qualitative approach. I gathered a list of primary and secondary sources, analyzed their meanings regarding education and propaganda, and formed a conclusion based off of this evidence. Research was gathered at DePauw University in Greencastle, Indiana. The thesis spanned one calendar year, starting in August of 2016 and ending in April of 2017. Sources used include speeches, posters, song lyrics, notebooks, academic journals, internet searches, and books. After gathering both primary and secondary sources, the thesis goes through a careful analysis of the material. When first starting the project, I had intended to write on three powerful leaders: Adolf Hitler, Jospef Stalin, and Benito Mussolini. As the project progressed, I chose to continue writing only on Adolf Hitler and Benito Mussolini due to lack of original sources.

Historical Research Methodology and Documents.

For these sections, I have used a mixture of primary and secondary sources. These include, but are not limited to: speeches, government orders, internet searches, and books. These next sections will go in depth on the education systems of Adolf Hitler and Benito Mussolini.

Hitler and Nazi Germany.

Introduction

Following the Great Depression, the bourgeois (people who lived in the city and had a “blue collar” job) political structure broke down where were no longer seen as legitimate in the eyes of the people (Bessel, 2004, p. 4). Specifically, Kurt Sontheimer (1996) argues that anti-democratic thought originating from the Great Depression left the Weimar Republic without support from those that were educated, and after being frustrated that they could not discuss their dissatisfaction with the political processes, were driven to Nazism without completely believing in the parties’ ideals. The German people wanted to bring about the collapse of the Weimar republic due to its inadequacies, and the only way they saw this occurring in the future was to put support behind the Nazi part, as it was the only political party that could potentially be powerful enough to complete their wish. The old political regime found in the Weimar Republic would never be strong enough to attract the youth, and post World War II, youth movements in Germany were booming in importance and prominence. While Hitler could have brought the Weimar Republic down through a military coop, he decided against this when he spent time in prison, meaning that he had to restart gaining power from his time away.

The Weimar Republic, Pre-Hitler and Nazism.

The Weimar Republic came about as “the product of complex and painful compromise, of defeats and mutual concessions” (Geary, 1993, p. 6). Building on the complex economic crisis from the last war, the Weimar Republic was the first governmental structure following the fall of the Wilhelmine Empire. The Weimar was not formed at an opportune time, it was seen as a “moment when the political and social system was already about to be tested to the limits,” basically setting itself up to fail (Geary, 1993, p. 6). It was founded under one basic opinion: The

Treaty of Versailles unjustly punished Germany, which was the only unifying ideology of the time. But, this was used to blame the Weimar Republic for the consequences of the First World War, causing incredibly political and social tension within Germany. There were many problems with the new Constitution due to a “lack of democratic consensus,” (Geary, 1993, p. 13) which did not help with the proliferation of ideas to the majority of the German population. In general, there were so many problems that piled on top of each other following World War I that caused the Weimar to fail very early on because of its instability as a respected political system. The end of the Weimar Republic did not ensure the majority of its disarmament agreements and debts that were to be paid to the Allies: The Weimar was not able to pay at all due to hyper-inflation, eventually worsened by the worldwide economic Depression. Yet, the Weimar is still important to study, as it showcases the circumstances that Hitler and the Nazi party came to power. It sets examples for different ways to deal with issues still around today, such as inflation, violence, and problems between the church and state. While the Weimar Republic was the last attempt at a governmental structure before Hitler came to power, the problems surrounding its inception caused it to fail early on.

These ideas represent responses to perceived threats to old structures, as well as addressing the inadequacy of states by adopting and stressing national values in policy. While the Nazi party had been around for a fair amount of time prior to its trajectory into the spotlight, the party wanted to cast themselves in a different light by getting voters that were ignored during the Weimar Republic: the middle class. There were multiple problems with the Weimar Republic, causing normal people to have imagined threats to their fundamental interests and a loss in the confidence of the government, yearning for a strong government and state that would listen to their interests (Geary, 1993, p. 27). The rise of Hitler and the Nazi party was seen as

almost inevitable, even though the Nazi party never earned all of the seats in the German Reichstag (which is done through proportional representation, meaning that whatever percent of the votes each party gets, they get the corresponding number of seats in parliament). Through recasting how they were showcased in the political arena, the middle class helped the Nazi party gain power.

Due to the absolute failure of the Weimar Republic, the people of Germany were expecting a completely revamped political agenda and ideology from Hitler and the Nazi party in order to bring Germany back to her former glory. To change the existing political system, Hitler had three main areas that stood out during the Nazi regime: notions of property, education, and manners in regards to the state and one's neighbors (Bessel, 1996, p. 24). He first started by getting rid of his political opponents after he was proclaimed Chancellor in January of 1933, a time when there were only three Nazi members in the cabinet. With such a wide variety of supporters for different parties, Hitler and the Nazi party had to take multiple steps to consolidate their power, and fast. He also was also to use the military and police form as an arm of the government to go against powerful leaders that did not like or agree with the Nazi party. Hitler's ideas were revolutionary in comparison to the previous Weimar Republic, although his consolidation of power in the time frame given would later prove to be incredibly dangerous.

The circumstances of the rise and fall of the Weimar Republic helped Hitler and other major Nazi party leaders see that the middle class was being ignored. The lack of confidence in the existing government led to a need for a powerful leader. This, in combination with the other internal issues and lack of cohesion in the Weimar Republic, allowed for Hitler's and the Nazi Party's rise in political, social, and economic power, which was maintained and backed up by the police and military forces. While Hitler was a powerful leader, the circumstances that

contributed to his rise in power worked in his favor, as the Weimar Republic was not strong enough to continue.

Hitler's Education Policies and Implementation.

Through his education system and his use of supreme power in politics, Hitler and the Nazi Party were able to create a new relationship between the nation and the individual. Unity was pushed to the extreme, portraying the idea that people had to be a part of the new movement because it was their destiny based on the idea of a common past and a common future. Yet, this future was based on race: the notion that one group of people was inherently superior to another. Hitler wanted to create a race of people that were all German only, racial diversity would only lead to unproductive members of society and will destroy the reputation and future of Germany. This created a culture that was not only anti-semitic, but also incredibly racist and visually based. Hitler was able to educate his people in the ways of the Nazi Party, letting their ideals about race and religion trickle down into the general population.

System of Education – Hitler's Youth Organizations and Educational Politics.

When most people think of Hitler and the Nazi Party's education systems, they automatically think that it was simply Nazi indoctrination of the masses. Hitler and the Nazi education system was used on a mass scale, but they were able to convince the people that the government was making education the best it could be, earning their trust. Because Germany did not have a Constitution outlining Hitler's power, it was difficult to see where the Nazi government's influence stopped and where Hitler's own influence started. Hitler's influence over his government, as well as the subsequent control that he held over his people through education specifically, presented itself politically as "an all-encompassing and joint less system of constitutional law which is admirably suited for serving the totalitarian ambitions of the regime"

(Loewenstein, 1941, p. 33). Hitler used his government so that everything stemmed from himself and the Nazi party, yet he did so without alerting the people that there was much change. Hitler and the Nazi Party were able to put all of the power back into the hands of the people by making decisions that are best for them. Therefore, people did not see Hitler as a horrible leader through education. When Hitler and the Nazi Party were in power, people saw Hitler as the solver of the problems of education from the Weimar Republic, and this made the German people grateful.

Hitler was able to get the trust of his people using his educational policies, but the education system under Adolf Hitler became increasingly regulated and internally motivated by the government. Hitler wrote in his memoir, *Mein Kampf*, about how the future of tomorrow belongs to the youth. As a result, the education system had one main goal: keep the youth of Germany loyal to the Nazi regime and Third Reich. Even if the German people did not see the power that Hitler and the Nazi Party were starting to quickly consolidate into the hands of the government, the education system under Hitler and the Nazi Party's rule became increasingly standardized and controlled.

Hitler and Nazi Education – School Set Up.

Around the time of World War II, the majority of children that were attending school were young boys, as it was believed that a girl's place was in the home. Because of this, Hitler was able to classify children, especially young boys, into age categorizations that differed in responsibility and glory for the state. When the young boys got older, they were classified by where they were deemed to fit into society, meaning what position or job they would have after schooling was completed. Out of all three leaders, Hitler's system of education was the most militaristic: most of the subjects taught to younger students had to do with physical combat situations and viewing Hitler as the savior of Germany. Hitler and the Nazi Party was able to set

up schooling so that students were intellectually categorized into jobs they would have later in life, allowing Nazi administrators and other higher-ups in the government to hand pick future leaders directly from schools.

In order to make this possible, Hitler put a lot of energy into elementary school children, as he believed that was the foundational phase. When asking a high-ranking Nazi leader when the Nazi Party first becomes interested in the German child, they responded “before it is conceived” (Ziemer, 1941, p. 25). Specifically, Hitler and the Nazi Party strove to drive home the ideals of the party while also simultaneously “eliminating all educational influences outside of the party” (Loewenstein, 1941, p. 202). Because elementary school students and younger were considered to be young and impressionable, Hitler and the Nazi Party wanted to start implementing Nazi ideology earlier so that it would be ingrained by the time boys got to upper level grades and schools. The concept of students being young and impressionable also interacts with the idea of the Hitler Youth, as most school-aged children boys strove to join clubs in order to prove their faith to the Furher and the state. Because Hitler and the Nazi Party wanted to ingrain their ideals into children as soon as they were able, they would continue to take those ideologies into society when they were older, setting an example for their children as well as the rest of society.

Nazi education started as early as nurseries, or Kindertagesstaedte, in German. The nurseries are described as places where working parents could drop their young children where they would be housed and safe, but the children would also “be taken by the hand and let to Hitler’s altar there to worship” (Ziemer, 1941, p. 47). Ziemer himself has visited many of these nurseries, and even described the physical structure of the buildings as having Nazi organization plainly evident, as the Nazi Party had paid for the construction of most buildings where the

nurseries were. These nurseries could be co-educational because the children were under the age of four; otherwise, education was segregated by gender. When Ziemer spoke to one of the Nazi nurses in charge, it was clear that the nurseries were only to be used for healthy children of Aryan descent. The nurses who worked at the nurseries were graduates of NSV schools where “they had received minute instruction in courses planned by the Party,” such as “strictest discipline, absolute obedience, and learning to revere the Führer as the savior of Germany” (Ziemer, 1941, p. 49). There were classes that each child could be a part of as well, in brightly colored rooms, but the expectation was still there: Hitler and the Nazi Party paid for these nurseries, so Nazi ideology only would be taught here. Ziemer describes his experience in the nurseries as Hitler “demanding the bodies and the souls of the German pre-school child” (Ziemer, 1941, p. 52). By educating at young ages through nurseries, Hitler and the Nazi Party were able to create an heir of expected education through only Nazi Party ideology, creating a more cohesive German identity.

Under Hitler and the Nazi Party, elementary school for Germans started at the age of six until roughly ten, called Pimpf in German. These programs interweave ideas from Hitler Youth organizations and clubs, creating a culture of school-aged boys under Hitler and Nazism. At this age, they are given a record book, or Leistungsbuch in German, to record their progress. Specifically, what would be recorded in this book were the following achievements: “military activities, marching, maneuvers, map making, spy work, trajectory angles, shooting, and military gymnastics” (Ziemer, 1941, p. 62). When they reach the age of ten, they have to take a test before they can continue into normal schooling and the Hitler youth programs. Ziemer (1941) describes passing and failing the test as “If he fails to be promoted, he is made to feel that he would be better off dead; if he does pass, he is told that he must be ready to die for Hitler.” From

ages six to ten, school-aged young boys were taught how to support Hitler and the Nazi Party through their actions, consisting mainly of activities that are prerequisites to men's formal military training.

The next stage of boy's education was entering into the Jungvolk stage after passing their exam, giving them more responsibility. During this phase, young boys were taught in classrooms, such as reading, geography, and history, and were between the ages of ten to fourteen. Most classes were lectures, there were no textbooks, opting to having an influential Nazi teacher that knew Nazi values well enough to teach them (Ziemer, 1941, p. 64). Specifically, the classes that Ziemer visited were making parallels between the power of the United States versus that of Germany: The United States was considered to be the weak enemy that would loose, whereas the Germans would be victorious because of Adolf Hitler (Ziemer, 1941, p. 71). The idea that the United States was the enemy was continued throughout the day, as school ended at one o'clock, but this is when Party activities started. During this time, the children were able to run errands for the Nazi Party, doing what the higher ups told them. In addition to these two main halves of their day, children of this age often played war games in the wilderness, using actual military tactics in these games. During this age, Hitler and the Nazi Party were able to reaffirm their faith, while still relating all formal elements of education back to the difference between the strong and the weak, or the Germans versus the United States and anyone else who was fighting against Germany.

From the ages of fourteen to eighteen, boys were entered into the Hitler Youth, acting as Hitler's army on command. While they were not seen as being members of the main army, they were important and used if Hitler needed more soldiers. By this age, members of Hitler Youth are "physically fit and equipped mentally and physically" for the struggles of war, in addition to

being educated in “Germanic culture, Party history, military geography, natural science, chemistry, mathematics, a foreign language, and further education in Hitler doctrines” (Ziemer, 1941, p. 145). They have gone through multiple exercises of marching, having the mental, physical, and education to take on serious war. During this phase, the Nazi Party tried to unify the group into a cohesive unit so they could be as effective on the battlefield as possible. Hitler Youth from all around the country would march together, staying at Hitler Youth Hostels along the way. Schooling started at eight in the morning and ended around one in the afternoon, followed by Party activities in the evening called the Hitler Youth activities (Ziemer, 1941, p. 154). The Hitler Youth was comprised of four branches “the HJ proper, the HJ marines, the HJ flyers, and the HJ motorized division” (Ziemer, 1941, p. 155). Yet, each of these branches required schooling with specific education in each individual category, a sort of special career training. During the boy’s time in the Hitler Youth and their activities, they are training to become part of the army, specifically mentally and physically based on their chosen army path.

After this level of education, boys could go to one of Hitler’s leadership schools, the most prestigious being the Hitler Leadership Schools followed by the Adolf Hitler Schools. Otherwise, they have a year of labor before they join the army. While in the army, they may petition to go to a year of school, mainly in the sciences, that is run by the Minister of Education (Ziemer, 1941, p. 170). Schooling in college has multiple short semesters so that men can devote more time to Party activities, leaving less than “twenty weeks of actual class instruction in the school year” (Ziemer, 1941, p. 171). Most lecture and seminar courses that were taught in Nazi Germany revolved around eugenics and race hierarchies, laws of Germany under the Nazi Party, and physical education. While there were some extracurricular activities, such as movies and sex with local girls, many men participated in dueling with time they had outside of party activities.

Dueling could either be academic or physical, although most was challenged physical prowess and strength with weapons (Ziemer, 1941, p. 188). Universities consisted of men that wished to enter high politically ranking jobs within the regime, using military tactics and courses on how to be a more devout Nazi.

All education is run by the Nazi Party, using Hitler as the humanistic image of the regime's ideals. This rigorous education for boys, from nursery age to college age, served to reinforce Nazi ideology that would then be transferred into the family unit to replicate when their children had children. Girls were educated, but very minimally, and attained greater notoriety and respect in society if they were mothers and bore their husband's strong Nazi children that were willing to die on the battlefield for Hitler. Hitler and the Nazi Party used education as a means to enforce loyalty to the state, the Furher, and Nazi Party ideals. They completed this through a system of strict, outlined and regimented schooling system in combination with immense social pressure to prove to everyone around you how good of a Nazi you can be, showcasing their power to other enemy countries, like the United States.

Girls Education Under Hitler.

Under Hitler and Nazi ideology, the education of girls in Germany was kept to a minimum. While Hitler saw the education of girls as something that should take place, he was not a proponent of their education. Women were educated, but mostly to child-bearers for Hitler's future children, belonging to the state.

Girls under the age of fourteen were all classified in one category for young girls, or Jungmaedel in German. During this time, the Nazi state was very interested in their physical health, as their main job was to be mothers of healthy Nazi children. When Ziemer interviewed Schulrat Pieper about the importance of women's education, Ziemer was told that "the Fuehrer

had decreed that their education was to be held down to the minimum. Girls must come to look upon the whole process of childbearing as their natural mission in life” (Ziemer, 1941, p. 84).

Girls under the Nazi state were supposed to be educated until a point, and then their main tasks were to become prepared to be married and have Hitler’s children, especially sons.

Yet, female children were educated in elementary schools, or *Grundschulen*, in German. Ziemer was instructed go and visit one of these schools, called *Schmargendorf*, located in Berlin. When visiting, he observed that “most of the day was devoted to the domestic science, eugenics, and physical education, but other classes were German, Dutch, Geography, History and Singing” (Ziemer, 1941, p. 85). In addition to these courses, there were courses on sex, studies of the races, occasionally arithmetic, and many courses in home economics, specifically regarding cooking and cleaning. School days went from Monday through Saturday, with evenings and weekends devoted to Nazi Party activities and formalized sports. The education received by Nazi women in elementary school was meant to teach them not to be soft, or to be more like the girl in the story *Eintopf Sonntag*, who would go around to homes in her surrounding area making sure everyone around her was a good Nazi (Ziemer, 1941, p. 88). From a young age, girls are taught to bear children, but also to be watchdogs for the Nazi Party, using them as spies to tell the difference between the supporters and opposers of the regime.

Even though these classes sound positive for young girls, they were also filled with hatred, especially for anyone that was not an Aryan German through racial undertones in each class. In one class that Ziemer visited, the Nazi teaching the young girls had “for twenty minutes, she told her girls the atrocity stories of pillage, rape, and murder penetrated by Polish soldiers in the Once-German Polish corridor. They were burning with hatred for the Poles when the class was dismissed” (Ziemer, 1941, p. 92). This was just one instance, yet in each piece of literature

given to the girls to read or look at, there were underlying tones of racism through propaganda campaigns led by Hitler and the Nazi Party. While the education system of women under the Nazi Party did not seem to be harmful to young girls, the hatred that they took away from the system and the necessary compliance to Nazi ideals was innately ingrained in their psyche.

Education during elementary school in the day was important, but it was party activities and athletic competitions at night that reinforced order in German society and loyalty to Hitler and the Nazi Party. Girls were said to have “no leisure time,” but at night, they would meet for Heimabende, or the Party home-evenings in German. Here, young women would “meet at their troop headquarters to discuss ideology, defense, and sex” (Ziemer, 1941, p. 96). Even on the weekends they had no free time, as this was devoted to “semi-military hikes” that would last the entire weekend (Ziemer, 1941, p. 96). During the weekends, German girls were physically exhausted during the hikes, much as the boys had, even though to a little lesser extent.

Next comes girls between the ages of fourteen to twenty-one, which were called the League of German Girls, or Bund Deutscher Maedel (BDM) in German. Here, there is no formalized system of education, as there was in elementary schools for German girls. They are in uniforms, but these serve to reinforce their main role in Nazi Germany: “to be the mothers of Hitler’s future soldiers” (Ziemer, 1941, p. 123). Some girls would live together when they were eighteen in camps, as part of their Land Jahr (Ziemer, 1941, p. 127). During their time in the camps, they were educated a bit in ideology and eugenics, but were mainly preparing foods in the mornings and doing sports in the afternoons to make sure they were physically fit to bear Hitler’s children. If women got pregnant when they were at the camps, they were allowed to “ask for special State attention” and were allowed to leave the camps to have their children (Ziemer, 1941, p. 128). While these camps were often located in close proximity to the boy’s schools, they

were not educated together because Hitler did not believe that women needed the same level of education as men. At this age, women were reared to be mothers of Hitler's children, solidifying their physical education through rigorous athletic activities, privileging the physical attributes of women over the potential capabilities of their minds.

While Hitler and the Nazi Party did not place as high of an importance on the education of women and young girls in German culture, girls were educated in primary school and camps to become physically-fit mothers of future Nazi soldiers that were conditioned to want to die for Hitler and the Nazi Party ideals. School during the day taught women about how to be a good Nazi woman and a mother, yet education at night and on the weekends through party activities was reserved to reaffirm their faith in Nazism. Education past elementary age were done in camps through physical education, making sure that each woman was physically fit to have children that would become soldiers that would live and die for Hitler and Nazi ideals. The education of young women under Hitler and the Nazi Party was devoted towards two ideas: women as child bearers of soldiers, and these soldiers would be willing to die for Hitler, as were their families.

Mussolini and Fascist Italy.

Ideals and Rise to Power

Prior to Mussolini's Fascist state, when he was growing up, Italy was under the government of Giovanni Giolitti, who ruled Italy over his deputies and senators. While Italy was not poor off under Giolitti's rule, he grew unpopular with the people because he would rig elections in order to stay in power. During Giolitti's rule, Mussolini was gaining notoriety as a leader and eloquent spokesman for the "revolutionary Socialists" during the Tripolitan War (Haplerin, 1964, p. 21). There was incredible violence and unrest in Italy during this time,

gaining more notoriety when Italy declared war. Due to the war, many people were in “emotional turmoil” because of mass “food shortages, lagging output, skyrocketing prices and mounting unemployment,” (Halperin, 1964, p. 28) all issues that the current government was largely ignoring. Mussolini knew that these circumstances could be used to move the people to his political ideology, the far Left. This was Mussolini’s chance to take the power that he had always longer for, and slowly but surely, he was able to do just that.

Yet, it is important to note that Mussolini’s Fascist ideology did not become a revolutionary movement overnight. He first voiced his approval for the Socialist party, before coming to critique how its representatives act in Parliament. Mussolini’s issues with the Socialist party, arguably the closest to his own political ideology of Fascism, were revealed in his earlier speeches where he poked holes in the fabric of the Socialist party and the Parliamentary system under Giolitti. He argued against universal suffrage, stating that it is only prolonging Giovanni’s rule, and that the Socialist party could be defined using three words “absenteeism, indifference and inaction” (Mussolini’s Speech on Italian Parliamentarism, July 8, 1912). He argued that the Socialist party would need to change their representative’s attitudes in Parliament and start fighting for their original ideals because their mass of followers had become “disillusioned” by their lack of actions taken in Parliament.

Yet, Mussolini does not completely break from the Socialist Party until October 18th, 1914 with his publication of the article “From Absolute Neutrality to Active and Operative Neutrality” where he berates the Socialists for their stances on war. Specifically, Mussolini states that “wars of defense cannot be differentiated from wars of conquest; the proletariat must in consequence unhesitantly oppose them all.” In addition, Mussolini continues by stating that the Socialists have had “partial” neutrality since the beginning of the conflict due to Italy being

“markedly hostile to Austria and Germany and correspondingly pro-French,” despite stating that they will “tolerate a vision of neutrality only.” Mussolini makes it clear in the last few lines that he has completely broken from the Socialist Party ideology, and tells other Socialists to do the same, when he says “Socialists of Italy, take heed: sometimes the “letter” destroys the “spirit.” Let us beware of saving the “letter” of the party if by so doing we destroy the “spirit” of socialism!” (Mussolini, October 18, 1914). Mussolini assesses the Socialist Party and decides to break from it due to the lack of action and hypocritical stances on war and how Italy should be run.

Founding of Fascism and Ideology.

Mussolini founded the first Fascist movement, known in Italian as the Fascio di combattimento, on March 23rd, 1919. On this day, he made two speeches, outlining the major goals of the new Fascist Party and eventual State. In these speeches, he argued that the Socialist Party “cannot lead to a movement of renovation and reconstruction.” He introduces the ideas of Fascism, commonly known as the Fasci in Italian, that are known as the “organs of creation and agitation that will descend into the streets to proclaim: “The right to the succession is ours, for we pushed the country into the war and led it to victory.” Mussolini’s two speeches urge the Italian people to pick up the mantra of Fascism by joining his followers, simultaneously creating a sense of national identity through the movement by successfully incorporating ideals from both the Left and Right sides.

Mussolini attracted the ideals of the workers by stating that he will give in to their demands so that they learn to “become accustomed to the responsibilities of management and to learn in consequence that it is not easy to operate a business successfully.” Economically, he stated that the Fascist movement “oppose intervention by the state whenever it is aimed at

throttling the creation of wealth,” but will also “fight against technical and moral backwardness” with the “slogan of economic democracy.” Politically, Mussolini states that the “senate must be abolished” calling it an “instrument of feudalism.” In addition, Fascism “demands universal suffrage for men and women, list voting on a regional basis, proportional representation,” and much of this will be accomplished through “new elections and a national assembly.” Through this, Mussolini’s political goals are to “organize occupational councils that will complement an authentically political system of representation” (Mussolini, March 23rd, 1919).

Mussolini creates a program for Fascism that can appeal to a wide variety of people in Italy because of its expansive goals and ideology, but he is critiqued for his program because it looks similar to Socialism. To this commentary, Mussolini assures followers and potential followers of Fascism that Fascism is fundamentally different from Socialism through the “spirit because it is based on the war and the victory. This enables us to face everything boldly” (Mussolini, March 23rd, 1919). Mussolini ends his speeches with a powerful line about the future of Italy under Fascism: “We are dynamic, not static; we want our rightful place, which must always be in the front line.”

Yet, Mussolini’s Fascist ideology was very young, and therefore did not have as large of a following as a secure and defined Socialism did. Mussolini needed a plan, and fast, if we were going to win any elections and get some Fascist leaders into the already existing government. For this, Mussolini had a three-fold strategy: “to entice workers away from the Socialist party by outbidding it; to press his courtship of the businessmen whose help he would continue to need; to woo all patriotic elements regardless of class by glorifying nationalism and aping D’Annunzio’s annexationist, chauvinist line” (Halperin, 1964, p. 31). Elections in 1919 did not fair well for the Fascist party, as not a single Fascist leader was elected into Parliament. Yet, strikes were

continuing, gaining the movement momentum for a larger social movement to take place.

Bankers paid Mussolini to lessen the strikes on their businesses, and politics were split between the Socialists, Liberals, and Populists. Mussolini was able to put himself in a financial position where Fascism could spread, and by using his followers to gain media attention through strikes, that is exactly what happened.

Mussolini had his first hold on major power when we created his own personal militia from the younger members of Fascist cells that started popping up in cities all over Italy. He used his followers to become violent, starting a regime in the winter of 1920-1921 that spread rapidly due to their ideals of counteracting the existing political structure (Halperin, 1964, p. 33). Other groups rapidly joined the masses of people, putting Mussolini at the top of national prestige and the figurehead of the entire movement. These results were shown in the elections of 1921, where the Fascists gained thirty-five seats in Parliament, signifying significant political gain while simultaneously taking ground away from the Socialists (Halperin, 1964, p. 34).

Mussolini did not form all of his different coalitions into the National Fascist Party until November 8th, 1921. Due to the large amount of followers gained, there were many different factions under different names, making these differences dangerous to Mussolini, who wanted to centralize his power. Mussolini argued in front of Congress to create the cohesive Fascist party from the existing group of followers by arguing that “mankind cannot be divided, the masses must be won over” and to stay “faithful to the animating principle of Fascism. This is our pledge: each day to love ever more deeply that adorable mother whose name is Italy” (Mussolini, Speech on November 8th, 1921). The official creed of the National Fascist Party was declared in December of 1921 and is as follows:

“The Nation is not merely the sum of the inhabitants of the country, nor is it merely an instrument of the parties within it, for carrying out their purposes, but an organism embracing an

indefinite series of generations in which each individual is but a transient element; and the supreme synthesis of all the possessions of the race, material and immaterial. The State is the legal embodiment of the Nation. Political institutions serve their purpose in so far as they afford expressions and guardianship of all that is of value to the Nation.” (The Programme of the National Fascist Party, December, 1921).
Congress voted in favor of Mussolini’s idea, and the Fascist party was created.

Mussolini was able to centralize his power through the National Fascist Party, but had to continue his own personal army of Fascists in order to maintain order within each sect. The status of his army, or as they were known the “black shirts,” grew as each Fascist party in different areas was required to “organize a squad of Fascist youths between the ages of fourteen and eighteen” that were to be “enrolled in black shirted vanguards” in each town (Halperin, 1964, p. 34). While Mussolini had now turned into a major political leader in the existing system, he still had not gained the political status he desired.

Mussolini’s full power was not instilled until after the famous March on Rome. Prior to this event, Mussolini gave a speech outlining his views on violence on September 20th, 1922 that set up ideology regarding the March on Rome. In this speech, he declared that there are two types of violence: “There is, to be sure, a form of violence that liberates but also one that chains. Whereas a certain kind of violence is moral, others are stupid and immoral.” Mussolini believes that the current Monarchy “has no reason whatsoever to oppose the Fascist revolution. If that happened, we would surely not be able to save it because the issue would become for us a matter of life and death” (Mussolini’s Speech, September 20th, 1922). In this speech, Mussolini argues that the Fascist revolution opposes senseless violence, but that violence can sometimes be necessary, precipitating the need for the March on Rome.

The March on Rome occurred shortly after Mussolini’s speech on October 24th, 1922. The March on Rome symbolized the rise of the laboring class and Mussolini’s need for more power, instituting a coup d’état against Giolitti and other powerful leaders, like Salandra.

Mussolini outlines the failures of the current Monarchy, as well as the reasons behind why the March on Rome was forced to occur. Mussolini argues that the “laboring masses” are being completely ignored, and this needs to be rectified because they are “a large part of the nation; they are necessary to the life of the nation in both peace and war.” Mussolini states that the Fascist party has done everything possible to maintain the peace, but at the same time, they cannot “sacrifice our rights or the interests and future of our nation. Peace with those who really want peace; but with those who are a danger to us and above all the nation, there can only be peace after victory!” (Mussolini’s Speech, October 24th, 1922). Mussolini’s followers were no longer interested in peace, they wished to take physical action against the government, and that is exactly what happened.

The March on Rome allowed Mussolini the entrance into government that he needed, but he did not start out by placing an entirely Fascist cabinet into the new government. He was able to do this over time, forming a coalition of power with those he trusted in positions of the highest authority. He slowly liquidated the police force, putting place his own personal army of Fascists. Mussolini was able to use his political and bureaucratic connections once in the government to slowly transform the existing Monarchy into a full-blown authoritarian government over time.

Mussolini’s System of Education – Policy Initiatives and the Gentile Reforms.

Mussolini took great pride and pains to revamp the education system in Italy to adhere to Fascist ideology. Mussolini did an interview about education, as well as other topics, with Edward Price Bell from the Chicago Daily News in 1924. In this interview, Mussolini told Bell (1924) that he believed himself to be a “liberator” that would help Italian Fascist education to “create in Italy an education in citizenship.” The existing school system did not meet the mark in multiple areas, and Mussolini had an uphill battle. Some major issues with education that

Mussolini had to deal with include mass rates of illiteracy, lack of follow through in local and rural areas in schooling, children that were sent into factories rather than to school, funding, and lack of unity. Mussolini had a severely divided system that needed to be completely revamped in order to work and unite people under one common goal: The Fascist doctrine and nationalism for the Italian state. When founding the National Fascist Party, Mussolini stated the aims of educational policy for Italy. The party platform states that:

“The aim of the school should be to train persons capable of ensuring the economic and political progress of the nation; of raising the moral and intellectual level of the workers and of providing for the constant renewal of the governing class by developing the best elements in all classes”
(The Programme of the National Fascist Party, December, 1921).

The platform continues to discuss how schools should be set up, describing how the culture of schooling will change Italy for the better. The National Fascist Party platform, in combination with Mussolini’s personal interview with Bell, showcased the increased changes that would occur in education under the Fascist regime.

Following true to this creed, primary and secondary education was provided for by the state and compulsory until the age of twelve under the Coppino Law passed on July 15th, 1877 (Schneider and Clough, 1929, p. 83). Mussolini realized that “schools were necessary” for Fascist “propaganda and that an illiterate population could only with great difficulty be made to comprehend the Fascist Revolution and the aims of the regime” (Schneider and Clough, 1929, p. 84). Yet, Mussolini soon changed this system to educate children under the Fascist doctrine for a longer amount of time through his subordinate, Giovanni Gentile.

Prior to being part of Mussolini’s cabinet, Gentile was an educator himself, a Professor of Philosophy at the University of Rome. In his lectures, he debates the connection between education, nationality, and unity, some of the most common principles found in the later Fascist

education doctrine. Many of the main ideas from these lectures can be found in the Gentile Reforms. Gentile describes nationality as consisting “not in context which may vary, but in the form which a certain context of human consciousness assumes when it is felt to constitute a nation’s character” (Gentile, 1922, p. 2). Schools are only national because they “transform science into culture, makes it over into an instrument with which to shape consciousness and conscience, and uses it as a tool for the men and for the training of citizens (Gentile, 1922, p. 7). He goes on in later lectures to describe the role of education in the personality of a country and its individual people, stating that having a great orator is necessary because “hundreds of individuals assemble to listen to the words of an orator” and that is one of the few times where all people there are living in the moment (Giovanni, 1922, p. 19). Lastly, when discussing the anatomy of education, Giovanni touches on what he calls to be the “two contradictory affirmations,” which are “that man as the object of education is and must be free, and that education denies a man freedom” (Giovanni, 1922, p. 40). Even prior to being tapped by Mussolini to lead the charge in Fascist education, Giovanni himself had considerable knowledge in the philosophy of education and how it relates to a state, and many of these lectures became the starting point for the Gentile Reforms.

Because Mussolini ruled through advisors, he named the first Minister of Public Instruction in October of 1922 to Giovanni Gentile, an Italian philosopher, who would later go on to hold other major positions in Mussolini’s Fascist government (Gregor, 2009, p. 2). Gentile, with help from Croce, who happened to have held a similar position in the prior government, were responsible for “initiating a reform in public instruction - the first organic reform of public education” since the Coppino and Casati Acts and Laws (Gregor, 2009, p. 2). These reforms were called the Gentile Reforms, and were put in place soon after they were written, in 1923.

The Gentile Reforms were put in place so that Fascist ideology could be disseminated through schools to students, raising a generation of loyal Fascists to Mussolini and the regime. The Gentile Reforms had many goals, but some major ones were to “raise the standard of culture required for both teachers and scholars in universities and schools, battling with illiteracy of a proportion of the people, and spreading opportunity for adult education” (Evans, 1933, p. 210). Major changes in education include that all education was now paid for and provided for by the state universally, and the number of compulsory years of education changed to age fourteen, meaning that there were eight required years of education.

The Gentile Reforms allowed Mussolini a power structure that he could manipulate, putting himself and Fascist ideology at top importance. Mussolini now had almost complete control over education, but he had to come up with a system to make sure that he maintained power while still making sure that the ideals were trickled down to the people. In order to accomplish this, he created a system of a superintendent: Italy was divided into nineteen districts and each had a sort of superintendent that was appointed by Mussolini himself (Schneider & Clough, 1929, p. 88). He also created two councils for education and discipline that resided in the capitol, also who were put into power and reported to Mussolini. One of these was just made for discipline of teachers, again showcasing the consolidation of power to Mussolini and the impact fear had on those in the education sphere. Mussolini even made teachers swear an oath of allegiance to him before school started, applying especially to professors involved in higher education. He also created inspectors that would go into each school district to make sure they were living up to his codes, and they were chosen through exams. Gentile Reforms were to be strictly enforced, but all information regarding the Gentile Reforms and those who were not following them were to come to those he put in power, who would come to him directly with any

and all issues surrounding implementation of Fascist ideals. Mussolini was able to rule through government in education, even if he was ruling by proxy through Giovanni Gentile and his reforms.

School Set Up.

Just as with Hitler, Mussolini had many different levels of education, split up mainly by age and gender of the students. Because schools are broken up into districts, there was an increased sense of dependency on the state. The Provincial Education Council was put in place in each of the sixty-nine provinces, consisting of “the prefect of the province, the chief inspector of the schools, ten councilors, and two ex officio members” (Zimmern & Agresti, 1920, p. 83). These were then governed by different Fascist leaders, who would report back to Gentile, going all the way up the hierarchical ladder to Mussolini himself.

Children started being educated in the ways of Fascism during elementary school, which starts at the age of three and ends at the age of ten. These ages are then separated into three different grades, each that take different amounts of time. During this age, the National Fascist Party stated that they wish to introduce a national sentiment into elementary schools so that it will make all students “suitable for the moral and physical training of Italian soldiers,” and for this to occur, there must be “rigid state control over the code of instruction, the choice of teachers and their teaching; especially in those communes that are under the control of anti-national parties” (The Programme of the National Fascist Party, December, 1921).

As a result, a rigorous class schedule and curriculum was set forth to help schools teachers and administrators more closely adhere to the National Socialist Party’s ideals. The classes consisted of the following: Religion for twelve hours per week, Singing, Drawing and Recitation for twenty-six hours per week, Reading and Writing for thirty hours per week,

Orthography for four hours per week, Arithmetic for twenty hours per week, Various recreative intellectual occupations for twenty one hours per week, Gardening, manual training, gymnastics, hygiene, and domestic training for forty seven hours per week, Natural and physical sciences for four hours per week, History and geography for eight hours per week, Civics and economics for two hours per week, and Professional work for eight hours per week over the course of their five years and some change in elementary school (Ministerial Order of November 11th, 1923).

From this school schedule and curriculum, it is clear that the most important aspects in elementary education are forming skills for the National Fascist Party to go into war when they are older, particularly regarding the intense amount of physical preparation in elementary school over written and oral skills. Mussolini and the National Fascist Party passed a decree in March of 1923, which prohibited the use of textbooks that had not been commissioned by the state. Therefore, only works that were used were prescreened by the state, making every subject the embodiment of the National Fascist Party's ideals. Life for children learning under Fascism in elementary schools was busy because they were in class the majority of the day, learning about the positive attributes of Fascism and how they can live their lives devoted to the National Fascist Party and their ideology.

Following elementary schools, students were shuffled into secondary schools, where they would be classified into technical or classical training programs, five in total. Most went to secondary schools, but some students took a test to opt out, going directly to higher education. Students that chose to attend secondary schools could not choose which type of school they wanted to attend unless they passed their entrance exams, which were taken at the age of eleven (Koon, 1985, p. 51). This meant that while there were less secondary schools available, there was a greater variety. One of the major differences in education before and during Mussolini and the

takeover of the National Fascist Party comes into place here, as “secondary schools and universities” become free, except “the control of the State over their programme of studies and the spirit of their teaching, and the State provision of preparatory military instruction, for the training of officers” (The Programme of the National Fascist Party, December, 1921). These same rules apply for each type of school, regardless of which program students are enrolled in. Secondary schools were attended for at least three years, where attendance was mandatory until the age of fourteen (Decree of December 31st, 1923). Even though they may go to different schools, there is special attention that is given to Roman history and Latin (Zimmern & Agresti, 1920, p. 105). Secondary schools were split up by program, and each one had a different length of time associated with the program, which would correspond to future courses of education or employment.

After secondary education, students can pursue their education in a university, but the length of time spent in this stage of schooling depended on which program of study the student wished to pursue. Because there are also entrance exams that are made to be more rigorous, there are less students attending universities than there were attending secondary schools. There are also state examinations that had to be passed in order for the students to get their degrees (Decree of September 30th, 1923). Most universities found that people would go to study Political Science and Philosophy (Zimmern & Agresti, 1920, p. 107). At the University of Perugia, here is an example of the decree given by the Fascist Faculty:

“the Faculty which has been created fulfils a great need of the regime. Fascism, having become national and having synthesized the historical character of Italian civilization, has need of a methodical study of its doctrine and its political, economic, and juridical institutions by the young men who enter administrative, syndicalist, or cooperative, diplomatic or colonial careers”
(Decree of October 23rd, 1927).

While some professors did not agree to Fascism, there were an equal amount that did.

While this was the set up of school life for children, Mussolini and the National Fascist Party did not forget the importance of teachers. People that wished to become teachers had to pass multiple rigorous test, with preference given to those who were decorated in war (Ministerial Decree of June 5th, 1924). After this, they would join the National Fascist Association of Primary School Teachers. There were similar organizations for different grade levels and schools. Looked up to as some of the most intellectual members of society, especially university professors, teachers were to be utilized as an example of what a good Fascist looked like. Yet, this was not always the case, and teachers that “did not conform were eliminated” (Decree of January 23rd, 1923, Law of December 24th, 1925, Circular of the Head of the Government, July 22nd, 1926, and Decree of January 13th, 1927). This does not mean they were killed; they were just forced to leave their teaching positions. Requirements were higher for elementary teachers and university professors, as they were considered to be the two most important roles and ages that needed the most guidance. Yet, when they were awarded their positions, they were given more autonomy in how they conduct their classes than teachers who taught elementary or secondary grades. Teachers had to prove to Mussolini and the National Fascist Party that they were worthy of having, and keeping, the important job of teaching the youth.

While secondary education and above was important and regulated under Mussolini and the National Fascist Party, elementary education was of primary importance to the regime. Secondary education gave students an outlet to decide which career they wanted to go into, yet they had to pass difficult exams at each stage. Entering university level education was left to the elite in academics, otherwise, students would enter life in society. Education under Mussolini

and the National Fascist Party was used to instill values of Fascism while simultaneously weeding out students that could not compete through rigorous exams.

Girls Education Under Mussolini.

Mussolini's ideals about what women should be were perfectly articulated in his speech to the Chamber of Fasci and Corporations on December 2nd, 1942. While this was mainly a speech regarding the status of Italy and the other powers during the war, he states that Italian women "are – and we can be proud to say it – fine examples of civil discipline and virtue. They are really the great and inexhaustible reserve of the moral strength of the nation" (Mussolini, Speech to the Chamber of Fasci and Corporations, 1942). Mussolini wished for women to prop up the rest of society, specifically through marriage and children, by setting the moral standards for society. As a result, women were educated much different under Fascist ideology than men were, but their education was innovative.

If girls wished to pursue their education past elementary school, they had two of the five choices available to boys: they could either enter a five year classical or scientific high school, or they could enter into a finishing school. Yet, most women did not receive an education past the same education as men in elementary school due to the rigorousness of upper level entrance exams, designed to let less people in. When women finished their schooling, they were reared to be mothers to children that would then go to war for Mussolini.

While women did have more opportunities for education under Mussolini, there education was still not equal to those of men. Women were seen as mother types that would make babies for the regime that would eventually go to war. There were not many sources on women's education under Mussolini. Girls were educated, but women were seen as needing to find someone to have children with, leading the household in child-rearing and being the moral

high ground in society. Women were given more opportunities, but the same results were still expected of them as most women during this time: they were to be mothers and teach their children to follow the ideals of Mussolini and the National Fascist Party.

Limitations.

Due to the lack of translated materials on each powerful leader, results are skewed to fit the documents that had previously been translated into English by others. In addition, while I had wanted to write on three powerful leaders, this including Stalin, I decided only to include Mussolini and Hitler. These were due to lack of primary sources that were translated as well as secondary works that tended to lump Hitler and Stalin together, creating a certain viewpoint that would not have worked in the thesis.

Findings and Discussion.

The following section will discuss my findings. It will answer the questions such as: did Mussolini and Hitler indoctrinate their people? How did propaganda play a role in education?

Hitler.

The following will be the results found from Adolf Hitler and the Nazi regime.

Hitler and Nazi Propaganda.

While Hitler and the Nazi Party were persuasive in their ideals, Germany is a large country with a considerable population, and it is hard to reach everyone through just simply education. Therefore, Hitler and the Nazi Party relied heavily on propaganda to reach the majority of the German population. To further ensure that their ideals were the only ones being shown to the public, every printed material, in addition to articles and other forms of media that were allowed to be printed, had to be declared “useful nourishment for the public mind” by the Ministry of Propaganda. Yet, propaganda is more than just physical posters. It can be seen in songs, saying,

books, speeches, and many other forms of media. These were all controlled by Hitler and the Nazi Party. Through different forms of propaganda, Hitler and the Nazi Party were able to further enforce loyalty to Nazi ideals that were being taught in schools, camps, and other forms of Nazi education in Germany.

One of the most well-known pieces of education propaganda is entitled “Youth Serves the Furher. All ten-year olds into the Hitler Youth” that was found in the German Federal Archives from 1940 (See Appendix A). This features a younger looking boy of Aryan descent, which you can tell from his striking blonde hair and blue eyes against the dark grey and black background. The boy’s expression is focused and stern, looking like he is about to carry out an important task for the state. Not to subtly in the background, there is an image of Adolf Hitler, who has a similar facial expression to the Aryan boy positioned below him. By placing Adolf Hitler where he is, at first glance, he seems to be less important than the boy. But, when looking at the poster further, the piece of propaganda is trying to elude to Hitler being the boy’s inspiration for everything he does. Adolf Hitler is always on the boy’s mind and in his every thought, dominating his entire existence. The poster is an allegory for what Hitler and the Nazi Party were trying to instill in their youth: Hitler is the savior, and the Nazi state is the only thing that boys should be aware of, learning how to protect it with their lives.

While the previous poster was more education-based, Hitler had to maintain his image among the people, which is shown in the poster entitled “Children, What Do You Know of the Furher?” which is an advertisement for a children’s book by S. Mongrenroth and M. Schmidt in 1937 (See Appendix B). This poster displays a happy looking Adolf Hitler holding a female child, surrounded by Nazi flags and two other Nazi children. Hitler is smiling, and it looks like the children surrounding him are in high spirits as well. The children seem to be of Aryan

descent. While the children do look happy, they also look thoughtful, especially the blonde boy who is facing the audience. While Hitler is generally portrayed in propaganda campaigns as stern and serious, he is smiling here because he understands that children need to be treated differently, especially the female child that he is holding. Hitler understands that he needs to spend time with children because of their importance, yet he treats them with the kind hand of a parent or guardian, as he is seen as the guardian and savior in Nazi Germany. This poster symbolizes the kindness of Hitler, showcasing his softer side when he is with children, while also seeming to inspire the children to be better Nazi's.

While propaganda posters were the most common modes of mass communication, mainly through newspapers and magazines, another major form of propaganda that is overlooked are the sayings and songs associated with Hitler and the Nazi Party's regime that children are mandated to recite. These can range anywhere from saying "Heil Hitler!" whenever in the presence of an authority figure, or something as small as songs sung in nurseries. Yet, one of the most important songs in the Nazi regime, especially for the younger students, can be found in the song lyrics of "Horst-Wessel-Lied," more commonly known as the Flag on High in English (See Appendix C). This song was known as the Hitler Youth anthem, and was to be sung at every major Party event. The lyrics translate from German into a tale of military men who are fighting under the swastika that is "full of hope." The song goes on to talk about how, because the soldiers are SA men, they should never break rank or go against their mission because they need to die a death with honor in order to be remembered as a good Nazi. While the lyrics are important and shed light on Nazi ideals, particularly for those in the military, the prevalence of this song and where it was sung is the most telling because it became Germany's national anthem. It was sung before every major function and in the beginning of the school day for all students, reinstating their pride and loyalty

to be a Nazi before the day even began. Songs were equally important to posters because tunes are catchy, meaning that songs can be disseminated more widely throughout the illiterate population or to those who are too young to know how to read.

These pieces of propaganda are just a few examples of the wide reach and depth of Hitler and Nazi Party propaganda during World War II. Propaganda was everywhere, from having a picture of Hitler in the nurseries to having books with Nazi sayings, after Hitler and the Nazi Party had picked which books were allowed to be in circulation. All of these pieces of propaganda, as well as the prevalence of other propaganda campaigns in general under Hitler and the Nazi Party, showcase Hitler trying to act as an ordinary citizen through his connections with children. Yet, these pieces also socially reinforce the need to create a homogeneous population that was all pro-Nazi ideology, especially using children so that the Nazi Party could continue having power in the future.

Hitler and the Nazi Party – Education or Indoctrination?

After researching Hitler's education systems and propaganda campaigns in Germany, it is easy to conclude that Hitler indoctrinated his people. My definition of education revolves around free thoughts and subjects, which does not coincide with the way Hitler and the Nazi Party set up their education system. Teachers under Hitler and the Nazi Party seemed to rely heavily on the social approach to teaching, which utilizes peer pressure and the need to conform to something greater than oneself to be accepted in the classroom, paralleling life in Nazi Germany for adults. Every aspect of life was regulated by the Nazi Party, especially in education for boys that were then tracked into potential jobs based on their test results. Indoctrination was not only inside the classroom, it was physically, emotionally and psychologically outside of the classroom when boys and girls turned older. School days were long, yet Nazi Party activities occurred every

weekend and after school events, with the occasion that school would be missed due to major party activities. Girls and women were educated specifically to be mothers for Hitler, which meant that their children would one day become future mothers and soldiers for the furher. Not only specific propaganda campaigns, but also the amount of them for anything regarding education or otherwise, proves that Hitler and the Nazi Party did not allow free thinking. Organizations were disallowed under the regime, books were banned, and people that did not abide by Nazi rule and power were killed for speaking out. Hitler and the Nazi regime started thinking about children and education before they were born, culminating in an all-inclusive indoctrination approach.

Mussolini.

Mussolini and the National Fascist Party's Propaganda.

While education systems were used to help promote the basic ideals behind Fascism, Mussolini heavily used propaganda to portray and maintain that environment. Mussolini's main assumption was that most people, especially the common people, were gullible enough to believe whatever he put forward on the mass scale. The majority of Mussolini's propaganda practices revolved around the idea that "Mussolini is always right," which was "stenciled on walls and wayside buildings" (Halperin, 1964, p. 47). While Fascism in and of itself was portrayed as the system that a utopian society would use, Mussolini used propaganda that was pro-Fascism and pro-Mussolini's ideas and personality as well. He used all modes of media: press, radio, and cinema, all which were under government control (Halperin, 1964, p. 48). Mussolini's main goal through this process was complete loyalty and conformity to his ideas, which also happened to adhere to the Fascist ideals of the state. Mussolini was said to effectively cut out the freedom of

expression by revamping most aspects of life in Italy, but he and the Fascist regime used propaganda campaigns to make their ideals synonymous with what the people wanted.

One of the most common areas where propaganda was used, specifically in education, was through the use of notebooks for school children. These images would be used on the front and back of all state-sanctioned notebooks, which school children were required to use. These notebooks would be used for each subject, this specific one is for French. This specific image showcases a young male in an Italian military uniform, but is also carrying a backpack (See Appendix D). Mussolini's main idea when educating children revolved around the military, training future soldiers to fight in the war. In the image, the young boy looks stern, but happy. The background of a blue sky and minimal clouds helps to create the atmosphere and feeling that all is going well in the young boy's life, and the world. These notebooks also contained famous quotes and Fascist cartoons on them, but all had the same hidden message: Fascism is everywhere and the education you are receiving is because of the state. Mussolini and the Fascist state used notebooks for each subject taught in schools as propaganda campaigns to teach young children, especially boys, to be warriors of the state because the Fascist Italian state has given them the gift of an education.

In addition to approved notebooks from the Textbook Commission and the Ministry of Popular Culture, Mussolini and the National Fascist Party were also able to utilize posters and play on gender roles to appeal to their people's morals and ideas about race. One of the most famous examples of this showcases a dark-skinned male is trying to rape a light-skinned woman (See Appendix E). Posters like these would be put up in major public places to reach the most amount of people as possible. Translated, the poster reads: Protect her! It could be your mother, your wife, your sister, your daughter! This particular poster creates a negative image of soldiers

from the United States, a common theme in Fascist and Nazi propaganda. Yet, the woman is clearly resisting, which represents not only that she does not want anything to do with the man that is holding her, but also simultaneously plays on the increased level of morals of Italian women. The white the woman is wearing and the fact that she is visually pushing away from the man puts her on the moral high ground, earning sympathy from those who look at the poster. Propaganda posters such as this one were incredibly common under Mussolini. Propaganda posters had the duality of painting gender, racial, and international relations, but could also be used to further instill Fascist values into the Italian people by defining what Fascism is not.

Another propaganda poster that illustrates Mussolini and Fascist ideals in relation to children and education showcases the need for Fascism to dominate the people's thoughts in relation to other ideologies and religions. This is an image of a young child crying, surrounded by menacing looking hands reaching at them (See Appendix F). Translated, the poster simply says defend. The child is highlighted in Italian colors, signifying him to be of Italian descent, while also insinuating that the child is pure. While they may be hard to see in the picture if it is not blown up, there are symbols on each of the sleeves of the hands, representing Communism, Judaism, and Freemasonry. These are three of the worst ideologies and religions to adhere to if you are a devoted Fascist, like most Italians should be according to Mussolini and the National Fascist Party. The child seems to be in pain, screaming and crying are evident from his facial expression and the way his hair is flying around the picture. Because the picture background is black, the child and hands that are hurting the child pop even more off the page. By using an innocent child, this poster plays on the morals of the Italian people, as people always feel worse when anything bad happens to children because of their age and inexperience in life. In response, whoever is hurting this child becomes even more looked down upon and vilified. This

propaganda poster not only plays on the importance of children and morals of the Italian people, it also showcases the enemies of Italy, almost all of them in one picture that can easily be recognized among the general population.

Blatant uses of propaganda were not the only method of persuasion used by the National Socialist Party. There had to be a picture of Mussolini in every classroom, and the emblem of Fascism had to be “worked into every new educational building” (Schneider & Clough, 1929, p. 101). A Higher Commissioner for the Press was instituted in 1929 in order to censor the media, only displaying Fascist messages or other hidden ideals that the National Fascist Party approved ahead of time. Mussolini also played constant radio programs that were pro-Fascist, as was every other aspect of the media during World War II. By looking at Mussolini’s propaganda campaigns, mainly relating to children and education, we can see that the National Fascist Party is playing on the morals of the Italian people to show them who their enemies are and how they should feel and react whenever those enemies come too close to home: join the army and fight for those who cannot.

Mussolini and the National Fascist Party – Education or Indoctrination?

While Mussolini’s system of education and propaganda were utilized, similarly to Hitler’s, Mussolini had less of each of the two. Education did not start before elementary school, students receiving secondary education had more school choice, scholarships were made available so that not only the elite could attend specific types of schools, and private schools were allowed and encouraged. Mussolini allowed religion to be taught in schools, something that could be disastrous to his power, and even encouraged Catholic private schools. Yet, he was still able to maintain his power by putting further legal and curriculum stipulations on private schools. Professors in higher education were not often removed, and were even kept in their

positions for their scholarship, despite the fact that they may have openly disliked the regime. Mussolini and the National Fascist Party also educated girls more seriously, even though not every option of secondary and higher education was not open to them. Yet, the prevalence of censorship by Mussolini and the National Fascist Party negates the main definition of education: to be able to think freely, which means the freedom to study whatever you wish.

Further Research.

When suggesting further research, I would look at women's education under both Hitler and Mussolini. In general, women's history has only become a popular field recently, and I did not find much information from either powerful leader regarding specifics on how they educated women. In addition, many sources that could have been used were not yet translated, which is another area that can help out future scholars writing on these topics.

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Appendix:

A.



B.



C.

Horst Wessel

Horst Wessel, 1927

Well-known soldiers song



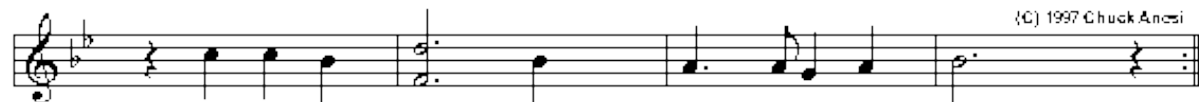
1. Die Fahne hoch	die Reihen fest geschlossen
2. Die Straße frei	den braunen Batallionen
3. Zum letzen Mal	wird nun Appell geblasen
4. Die Fahne hoch	die Reihen fest geschlossen



S. A. marschiert	mit	ruhig festem	Schritt
Die Straße frei	dem	Sturmabteilungsmann	
Zum Kampfe steh'n	wir	alle schon bereit	
S. A. marschiert	mit	ruhig festem	Schritt



Kam'raden die	Rotfront	und	Reaktion	erschossen
Es schau'n auf's	Hakenkreuz	voll	Hoffnung	schon Millionen
Bald flattern	Hitler-fahnen	Über	allen	Straßen
Kam'raden die	Rotfront	und	Reaktion	erschossen



Marschier'n im Geist	in	unsern Reihen	mit
Der Tag für	Freiheit	und für Brot	bricht an
Die Knechtschaft	dauert	nur mehr	kurze Zeit
Marschier'n im Geist	in	unsern Reihen	mit

(C) 1997 Chuck Anesi

D.



E.



F.

