

General Research + misc.

Opusculum in Vienna
1905-1910

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RESEARCH



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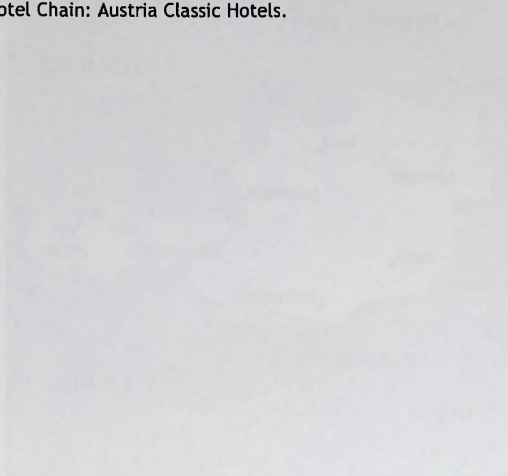
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Three Moors

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1, 5 Mill, blacksmith, Alots + noise
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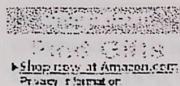
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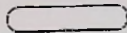
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The Columbia Encyclopedia, Sixth Edition. 2001-05.

Franco-Prussian War

or **Franco-German War**, 1870–71, conflict between France and Prussia that signaled the rise of German military power and imperialism. It was provoked by Otto von Bismarck (the Prussian chancellor) as part of his plan to create a unified German Empire.

Causes

The emergence of Prussia as the leading German power and the increasing unification of the German states were viewed with apprehension by Napoleon III after the Prussian victory in the Austro-Prussian War of 1866. Bismarck, at the same time, deliberately encouraged the growing rift between Prussia and France in order to bring the states of S Germany into a national union. He made sure of Russian and Italian neutrality and counted—correctly—on British neutrality. War preparations were pushed on both sides, with remarkable inefficiency in France and with astounding thoroughness in Prussia.

The immediate pretext for war presented itself when the throne of Spain was offered to a prince of the house of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, a branch of the ruling house of Prussia. The offer, at first accepted on Bismarck's advice, was rejected (July 12) after a strong French protest. But the aggressive French foreign minister, the duc de Gramont, insisted on further Prussian assurances, which King William I of Prussia (later Emperor William I) refused. Bismarck, by publishing the famous Ems dispatch, inflamed French feeling, and on July 19, France declared war.

The Course of the War

Partly because they believed France the aggressor, the states of S Germany enthusiastically joined the North German Confederation—just as Bismarck had hoped. The military conduct of the war was, for the Germans, in the hands of Helmuth Karl

Prig name for Adolphe

Bernhard von Moltke, a military genius. On the French side, Napoleon III took active command, but it soon devolved on Marshal Bazaine.

On Aug. 4, 1870, the Germans crossed the border into Alsace. They defeated the French at Wissembourg, pushed the French under Marshal MacMahon to Châlons-en-Champagne, and forced a wedge between MacMahon's forces and those of Bazaine, centered on Metz. Bazaine, attempting to join MacMahon, was defeated at Vionville (Aug. 16) and Gravelotte (Aug. 18) and returned to Metz. The Germans began their march on Paris, and on Sept. 1 the attempt of Napoleon III and MacMahon to rescue Bazaine led to disaster at Sedan. The emperor and 100,000 of his men were captured.

When the news of Sedan reached Paris a bloodless revolution occurred. Napoleon was deposed, and a provisional government of national defense was formed under General Trochu, Léon Gambetta, and Jules Favre. Paris was surrounded by the Germans on Sept. 19, and a grueling siege began. Gambetta escaped from Paris in a balloon to organize resistance in the provinces. Faidherbe made a gallant stand on the Loire, Chanzy in the north, and Bourbaki in the east, but the surrender (Oct. 27) of Bazaine, with a garrison of 180,000 men, made such resistance useless. Paris, however, held out until Jan. 28, 1871, suffering several months of famine. Though Bismarck and Adolphe Thiers signed an armistice on the same day, the fortress of Belfort resisted until Feb. 16.

Sept 18
Jan 28
4 mo.
10 days

Results of the War

In the war's aftermath, Thiers was named chief of the executive power in France, and provision was made for the election of a French national assembly, which met at Bordeaux. The assembly accepted (Mar. 1) the preliminary peace agreement, which was formalized in the Treaty of Frankfurt (ratified May 21, 1871). France agreed to pay an indemnity of \$1 billion within three years—an indemnity fully paid before the term expired. Alsace, except the Territory of Belfort, and a large part of Lorraine were ceded to Germany, which on Jan. 18, 1871, in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles had been proclaimed an empire under William I.

Paris refused to disarm and to submit to the Thiers regime, and the Commune of Paris was formed. The French troops loyal to Thiers began the second siege of Paris (Apr.–May, 1871). After the cruel suppression of the commune, peace returned to France.

Besides establishing the Third French Republic and the German Empire, the Franco-Prussian War had other far-reaching effects. Desire for revenge guided French policy for the following half-century. Prussian militarism had triumphed and laid the groundwork for German imperialistic ventures. The Papal States, no longer protected by Napoleon III, were annexed by Italy, which thus completed its unification. These and other effects were links in the chain of causes that set off World War I.

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Second Boer War

from Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia.

The **Second Boer War**, also known as the **South African War**, was fought from 11 October 1899 until 31 May 1902. The war was fought between the British Empire and the two independent Boer republics of the Orange Free State and the South African Republic (Transvaal Republic). After a protracted hard-fought war, the two independent republics lost and were absorbed into the British Empire.

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10/11/99
5/31/02
2 years, 2 mo

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Background

With the discovery of gold in Transvaal, thousands of British settlers streamed over the border from the Cape Colony. The city of Johannesburg sprang up as a shanty town nearly overnight as the uitlanders poured in and settled near the mines. The uitlanders rapidly outnumbered the Boers on the Rand, but remained a minority in the Transvaal as a whole. The Afrikaners, nervous and resentful of the uitlanders' presence, denied them voting rights and taxed the gold industry heavily. In response, there was pressure from the uitlanders and the British mine owners to overthrow the Boer government. In 1895, Cecil Rhodes sponsored a failed coup d'état backed by an armed incursion, the Jameson Raid.

The failure to gain improved rights for Britons was used to justify a major military buildup in the Cape, since several key British colonial leaders favoured annexation of the Boer republics. These included the Cape Colony governor Sir Alfred Milner, British Colonial Secretary Joseph Chamberlain and mining syndicate owners (nicknamed the *gold bugs*) such as Alfred Beit, Barney Barnato and Lionel Phillips. Confident that the Boers would be quickly defeated, they attempted to precipitate a war.

President Martinus Steyn of the Orange Free State invited Milner and Kruger to attend a conference in Bloemfontein which started on 30 May 1899, but negotiations quickly broke down. In September 1899, Chamberlain sent an ultimatum demanding full equality for British citizens resident in Transvaal.

Kruger, sure that war was inevitable, simultaneously issued his own ultimatum prior to receiving Chamberlain's. This gave the British 48 hours to withdraw all their troops from the border of Transvaal otherwise the Transvaal, allied with the Orange Free State, would be at war with them.

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First phase: The Boer offensive of October to December 1899

War was declared on 12 October 1899 and the Boers struck first by invading Cape Colony and Natal Colony between October 1899 and January 1900. This was followed by some early Afrikaner military successes against General Redvers Buller. The Boers were able to besiege the towns of Ladysmith, Mafeking (defended by troops headed by Robert Baden-Powell), and Kimberley.

Siege life took its toll on both the defending soldiers and the civilians in the cities of Mafeking, Ladysmith, and Kimberley as food began to grow scarce after a few weeks. In Mafeking, Sol Plaatje wrote, "I saw horseflesh for the first time being treated as a human foodstuff." The cities under siege also dealt with constant artillery bombardment, making the streets a dangerous place. Near the end of the siege of Kimberley, it was expected that the Boers would intensify their bombardment, so a notice was displayed encouraging people to go down into the mines for protection. The townspeople panicked, and people flowed into the mineshafts constantly for a 12-hour period. Although the bombardment never came, this did nothing to diminish the distress of the civilians.

The middle of December proved difficult for the British army. In a period known as Black Week (10-15 December 1899), the British suffered a series of devastating losses at Magersfontein, Stormberg, and Colenso. At the Battle of Stormberg on December 10, British General Sir William Gatacre, who was in command of 3,000 troops to beat off Boer raids in Cape Colony, tried to recapture a railway junction about 50 miles south of the Orange River. But Gatacre chose to assault the Orange State Boer positions surmounting a precipitous rock face in which he lost 135 killed and wounded, as well as two guns and over 600 troops captured. At the Battle of Magersfontein on December 11, 14,000 British troops, under the command of Paul Sanford Methuen, 3rd Baron Methuen, attempted to fight their way to relieve Kimberly. The Boer commanders Koos de la Rey and Piet Cronje, devised a plan to dig trenches in an unconventional place to fool the British and to give his riflemen a greater firing range. His plan worked. The British were decisively defeated, suffering the loss of 120 British soldiers killed and 690 wounded, which prevented them from relieving Kimberley and Mafeking. But the nadir of the Black Week was the Battle of Colenso on December 15 where 21,000 British troops, under the command of Redvers Buller, attempted to cross the Tugela River to relieve Ladysmith where 8,000 Transvaal Boers, under the command of Louis Botha, were waiting for them. Through a combination of artillery and accurate rifle fire, the Boers beat off all British attempts to cross the river. The British had a further 1,127 casualties and worse still, during the retreat, the British were forced to abandon 10 artillery pieces which the Boers captured after the battle having suffered fewer than 40 casualties.



Boer guerrillas during the Second Boer War

Second phase: The British offensive of January to September 1900

The British suffered further defeats in their attempts to relieve Ladysmith at the Battle of Spion Kop of 19 to 24 January 1900, where Redvers Buller again attempted to cross the Tugela west of Colenso and was defeated again by Louis Botha after a hard-fought battle for a prominent hill feature which resulted in a further 1,000 British casualties and nearly 300 Boer casualties. Buller attacked Botha again on February 5 at Val Krantz and was again defeated.

It was not until reinforcements arrived on 14 February 1900 that British troops commanded by Lord Roberts could launch counter-offensives to relieve the garrisons. Kimberly was relieved on February 15 by a cavalry division under General John French. At the Battle of Paardeberg on 18 February to 27 February 1900, Lord Roberts finally defeated the Boers and was able to force the surrender of General Piet Cronje where he and 4,000 of his men were captured, which further weakened the Boer fighting force and led the way for the Relief of Ladysmith the following day. The Relief of Mafeking on 18 May 1900 provoked riotous

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_Boer_War

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celebrations in England. The British then advanced into the two republics, capturing the capital of the Orange Free State, Bloemfontein on March 13 and the Transvaal capital, Pretoria, on June 5.

A introduction to the first
British observers believed the war to be all but over after the capture of the two capital cities. However, the Boers met at a new capital, Kroonstad, and planned a guerrilla campaign to hit the British supply and communication lines. The first engagement of this new form of warfare was at Sanna's Post on March 31 where 500 Boers under the command of Christian De Wet attacked Bloemfontein waterworks about 23 miles east of the city, and ambushed a heavily escorted convoy which resulted in 155 British casualties and with seven guns, 117 wagons and 428 British troops captured. One of the last formal battles was at Diamond Hill on June 11-12, where Lord Roberts attempted to drive the remnants of the Boer field army beyond striking distance of Pretoria. Although Roberts drove off the Boers from the hill, the Boer commander, Louis Botha, did not regard it as a defeat, for he inflicted more casualties on the British (totalling 162 men) while suffering around 50 casualties. This battle ended formal military operations and set the stage for the new phase of the war.



The Relief of Ladysmith. Sir George White greets Major Hubert Gough on 28 February. Painting by John Henry Frederick Bacon (1868-1914)

Third phase: Guerrilla war of September 1900 to May 1902 - *Real school*

11 yrs 5 mo to 12 + 1 mo.
By September 1900 the British were in control of both Republics, except for the northern part of Transvaal. They however found that they only controlled the ground their columns physically occupied. As soon as the columns left a town or district, British control of that area faded away. The huge territory of the Republics made it impossible for the 250 000 British troops to control it effectively. The vast distances between the columns allowed the Boer commandos considerable freedom to move about. The Boer commanders also decided to adopt a guerrilla style of warfare. The commandos were sent to their own districts with the order to act against the British there whenever possible. Their strategy was to do as much damage to the enemy as possible, and then to move off and vanish when enemy reinforcements arrived. The Boer commandos in the Western Transvaal were very active after September 1901. Several battles of importance were fought here between September 1901 and March 1902. At Moedwil on 30 September 1901 and again at Driefontein on 24 October Gen. De la Rey's forces attacked the British but were forced to withdraw after the British offered strong resistance.

AA is 12 yrs 5 mo - start of third year of Real School
A time of relative quiet descended thereafter on the western Transvaal. February 1902 saw the next major battle in that region. On 5 February De la Rey attacked a British column at Ysterspruit near Wolmaranstad. De la Rey succeeded in capturing the column and a large amount of ammunition – enough to last his commando a long time.

The Boer attacks prompted Lord Methuen, the British's second in command after Lord Kitchener, to move his column from 'ryburg to Klerksdorp to deal with De la Rey. On the morning of 7 March 1902 the Boers attacked the rear guard of Methuen's moving column at Tweebosch. In the confusion that soon reigned in British ranks, Methuen was wounded and captured by the Boers. The battle of Tweebosch was one of the De la Rey's finest victories.

The Boer victories in the west led to stronger action by the British. In the second half of March 1902 large British reinforcements were sent to the Western Transvaal. The opportunity the British waited for arose on 11 April 1902 at Rooiwal, where the combined forces of Gens. Grenfell, Kekewich and Von Donop came into contact with the forces of Gen. Kemp. The British soldiers were superbly positioned on the mountain side and mowed down the Boers charging on horseback over a large distance, eating them back with heavy casualties.

This was the end of the war in the Western Transvaal and also the last major battle of the Anglo-Boer War.

The concentration camps

Art. decided that that is why the Boers were defeated

These had originally been set up for refugees whose farms had been destroyed by the British "Scorched Earth" policy Burning down all Boer homesteads and farms. However, following Kitchener's new policy, many women and children were forcibly moved to prevent the Boers from resupplying at their homes and more camps were built and converted to prisons. This relatively new idea was essentially humane in its planning in London but ultimately proved brutal due to its lack of proper implementation. This was not the first appearance of concentration camps. The Spanish had used them in the Third Cuban War of independence that later led to the Spanish-American War, and the United States used them to devastate guerrilla forces during the Philippine American War. But the concentration camp system of the British was on a much larger scale.

There were a total of 45 tented camps built for Boer internees and 64 for black African ones. Of the 28,000 Boer men captured prisoners of war 25,630 were sent overseas. So, most Boers remaining in the local camps were women and children, but the native African ones held large numbers of men as well. Even when forcibly removed from Boer areas, the black Africans were considered to be hostile to the British, and provided a paid labour force.

The conditions in the camps were very unhealthy and the food rations were meagre. Women and children of menfolk who were still fighting were given smaller rations than others. The poor diet and inadequate hygiene led to endemic contagious diseases such as measles, typhoid and dysentery. Coupled with a shortage of medical facilities, this led to large numbers of deaths — a report after the war concluded that 27,927 Boers (of whom 22,074 were children under 16) and 14,154 black Africans had died of starvation, disease and exposure in the concentration camps. In all, about 25% of the Boer inmates and 12% of the black Africans died (although recent research suggests that the black African deaths were underestimated and may have actually been around 20,000).

Edoof broaden this

A delegate of the South African Women and Children's Distress Fund, Emily Hobhouse, did much to publicise the distress of the inmates on her return to Britain after visiting some of the camps in the Orange Free State. Her fifteen-page report caused uproar, and led to a government commission, the Fawcett Commission, visiting camps from August to December 1901 which confirmed her report. They were highly critical of the running of the camps and made numerous recommendations, for example improvements in diet and provision of proper medical facilities. By February 1902 the annual death-rate dropped to 6.9 percent and eventually to 2 percent.

POWs sent overseas

almost 13

The first sizable batch of Boer prisoners of war taken by the British consisted of those captured at the battle of Elandslaagte on October 21, 1899. [1] (<http://www.anglo-boer.co.za/boerpow.html>) At first many were put on ships. But as numbers grew, the British decided they didn't want them kept locally. The capture of 400 POWs in February 1900 was a key event, which made the British realise they could not accommodate all POWs in South Africa. [2] (<http://www.boerwarsociety.org/Interests.cfm>) The British feared they could be freed by sympathetic locals. They already had trouble supplying their own troops in South Africa, and didn't want the added burden of sending supplies for the POWs. Britain therefore chose to send many POWs overseas.

The first overseas (off African mainland) camps were opened in Saint Helena, which ultimately received about 5000 POWs. About 5000 POWs were sent to Ceylon (Sri Lanka). Other POWs were sent to Bermuda and India. Some POWs were even sent outside the British Empire, with 1443 [3] (<http://www.boerwarsociety.org/Picture.cfm?Page=Outline&ID=38>) Boers (mostly POWs) sent to Portugal. [4] (<http://www.boerwarsociety.org/Interests.cfm>)

A.H. ponder the problems of the victor,

The end of the war

In all, the war had cost around 75,000 lives — 22,000 British soldiers (7,792 battle casualties, the rest through disease), 6,000-10,000 Boer soldiers, 20,000-28,000 Boer civilians and perhaps 20,000 black Africans. The last of the Boers surrendered in May 1902 and the war ended with the Treaty of Vereeniging in the same month. But the Boers were given £3,000,000 in compensation and were promised eventual self-government, and the Union of South Africa was established in 1910. The treaty ended the existence of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State as Boer republics and placed them within the British Empire.

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_Boer_War

The Boers referred to the two wars as the *Freedom Wars*. Those Boers who wanted to continue the fight were known as "*bitter-enders*" (or *irreconcilables*) and at the end of the war a number like Deneys Reitz chose exile rather than sign an undertaking that they would abide by the peace terms. Over the following decade many returned to South Africa and never signed the undertaking. Some like Reitz eventually reconciled themselves to the new *status quo*, but others waited for a suitable opportunity to restart the old quarrel. At the start of World War I the bitter-enders and their allies took part in a revolt known as the Maritz Rebellion. Those Boers who now formed the South African government, along with their English speaking allies, quickly suppressed the revolt. Compared to the fate of leading Irish rebels of the Easter Rising in 1916, the leading Boer rebels in the Maritz Rebellion got off lightly with terms of imprisonment of six and seven years and heavy fines. Two years later they were released from prison, as Louis Botha recognised the value of reconciliation. After this, the bitter-enders concentrated on working within the constitutional system and built up the National Party which would come to dominate the politics of South Africa from the late 1940s until the early 1990s, when the apartheid system they had constructed also fell.

During the conflict, 78 Victoria Crosses (VC) — the highest and most prestigious award in the British armed forces for bravery in the face of the enemy — were awarded to British and Colonial soldiers. See List of Boer War Victoria Cross recipients.

Effect of the war on domestic British politics

The war highlighted the dangers of Britain's policy of non-alignment and deepened her isolation. The 1900 UK general election, also known as the "Khaki election", was called by the Prime Minister, Lord Salisbury, on the back of recent British victories. There was much jingoistic enthusiasm for the war at this point among the ordinary people, resulting in a victory for the Conservative government.

However, public support quickly waned as it became apparent that the war would not be easy and it dragged on partially contributing to the Conservative's spectacular defeat in 1906. There was public outrage at the use of scorched earth tactics — the burning of Boer homesteads, for example — and the conditions in the concentration camps. It also became apparent that there were serious problems with public health: up to 40% of recruits were unfit for military service, suffering from medical problems such as rickets and other poverty-related illnesses. This came at a time of increasing concern for the state of the poor in Britain.

All shifts to a sense of overseas involvement
The use of Chinese labour, known as *Coolies*, after the war by the governor of the new crown colonies, Lord Milner, also caused much revulsion in the UK. Workers were often kept in appalling conditions, received only a small wage and were forbidden to socialise with the local population — this led to further public shock at the resulting homosexual acts between those forbidden the services of prostitutes. Some believe the Chinese slavery issue can be seen as the climax of public antipathy with the war.

of a nation
Many Irish nationalists sympathised with the Boers, seeing them as a people oppressed by British imperialism, much like themselves. Irish miners already in the Transvaal at the start of the war formed the nucleus of two Irish commandos and small groups of Irish volunteers went to South Africa to fight with the Boers — this despite the fact that there were many Irish troops fighting with the British army^[1]. In England, the "Pro-Boer" campaign expanded^[2], with writers often idealizing the Boer society

Commonwealth involvement

The vast majority of troops fighting for the United Kingdom, came from the UK or South Africa. However, in the Second Boer War (South Africa War) a number did come from other parts of the Empire. These countries had their own internal disputes over whether they should remain tied to the United Kingdom, or have full independence, which carried over into the debate over whether they should send forces to assist the United Kingdom. Though not fully independent on foreign affairs, these countries did have local say over how much support to provide, and the manner it would be provided in. Ultimately, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand all chose to send volunteers to aid the United Kingdom, but did not send them in sufficient size and speed to be critical in the final outcome.

Australia

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_Boer_War

See also History of the Australian Army

The Commonwealth of Australia was not formed from the six Australian colonies until 1 January 1901, so the Boer War was the first war in which the Commonwealth of Australia fought. As part of the British Empire prior to federation the Australian colonies also offered troops for the war in South Africa. In all 16,175 Australians served in contingents raised by the six colonies and the Commonwealth. About 4,000 men served more than one contingent. 267 died from disease and slightly less, 251 died in action or from wounds sustained in battle, a further 43 men were reported missing. A small number of Australians are known to have fought on the Boer side. [5] (<http://www.awm.gov.au/atwar/boer.htm>)

The Australian climate and geography were far closer to that of South Africa than the towns and cities of Britain where most of the British troops originated, so Australians were perceived by the British authorities as better suited to the conditions in South Africa than many of the British troops and a particularly useful adjunct to the British regular forces.

The Australians served mostly as "mounted rifles" in units formed in each colony. Some contingents fought in the second phase of the war when the British counter attack captured the Boer capitals. Later contingents fought in the guerrilla war phase. They were valued for the ability to be able to match the speed and agility of the Boer commandos on the veldt and were often used as a quick response reserves sent to areas where the more sedate British infantry units often in Blockhouses reported contact with the Boers. Some of these troops formed the kernel of the Australian Lighthorsemen regiments later sent to the Middle East in World War I.

In Australia at the start of the war sympathy lay with the imperial cause, but as the war dragged on the Australian public started to become disenchanted, in part because the sufferings of Boer civilians became known through newspaper reports on the well publicised conviction and execution of Lieutenants Breaker Morant and Handcock in 1902.

Canada

At first Canadian Prime Minister Wilfrid Laurier tried to keep Canada out of the war. [6] (<http://www.vac-icc.gc.ca/general/sub.cfm?source=feature/100africa>) The Canadian Government was divided between those, primarily French Canadians, who wished to stay out of the war and others, primarily English Canadians, who wanted to join with Britain in her fight. In the end, Canada agreed to support the British by providing volunteers, equipment and transportation to South Africa. Britain would be responsible for paying the troops and returning them to Canada at the end of their service. The Boer War marked the first occasion in which large contingents of Canadian troops served abroad.

The Battle of Paardeburg in February 1900 represented the second time Canadian Troops saw battle abroad (although there was a long tradition of Canadian service in the British Army and Royal Navy), the first being the Canadian involvement in the Nile Expedition of 1884-85.

Ultimately, over 8,600 Canadians volunteered to fight in the South African War. However, not all saw action since many landed in South Africa after the hostilities ended while others performed garrison duty in Halifax, Nova Scotia so that their British counterparts could join at the front. Approximately 277 Canadians died in the South Africa War, 89 men were killed in action, 135 died of disease, the remainder of accident or injury; and 252 were wounded.

New Zealand

When the Second Boer War seemed imminent, New Zealand offered its support. [7] (<http://www.nzhistory.net.nz/Gallery/SAW/hist.html>) On 28 September 1899 Prime Minister Richard Seddon asked Parliament to approve the offer to the imperial government of a contingent of mounted rifles and the raising of such a force if the offer were accepted. The British position in the dispute with the Transvaal was 'moderate and righteous', he maintained. He stressed the 'crimson tie' of Empire which bound New Zealand to the Mother-country and the importance of a strong British Empire for the colony's security.

In many ways the South African war set the pattern for New Zealand's later involvement in the two World Wars. Specially raised (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_Boer_War)

units, consisting mainly of volunteers, were despatched overseas to serve with forces from elsewhere in the British Empire. The success enjoyed by the New Zealand troops fostered the idea that New Zealanders were naturally good soldiers, who required only a modicum of training to perform creditably.

See also

- First Boer War
- History of South Africa
- History of Cape Colony from 1870 to 1899

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External links

- Boer War Chronology World History Databasc (<http://www.badley.info/history/Boer-War.gencral.html>)
- War Museum of the Boer Republics. Anglo Boer War Museum (<http://www.anglo-boer.co.za/>) (accessed 24 December 2003)
- National UK Archives site (<http://www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/pathways/census/events/britain7.htm>)
- Battlefields in KwaZulu Natal (<http://www.drakensberg-tourism.com/battlefields.html>)
- The Canadian Letters and Images Project of Canadian war experience, pre-1914 (<http://web.mala.bc.ca/davies/letters.images/collection/pages/pre-1914.htm>)
- A Handbook of the Boer War (<http://www.gutenberg.org/etext/15699>) by Gale and Polden, Limited, from Project Gutenberg
- The Record of a Regiment of the Line (<http://www.gutenberg.org/etext/15972>), by M. Jacson, from Project Gutenberg

Notes

- ¹ ^ "Although some 30,000 Irishmen served in the British Army, which was led by an Irish General, Lord Frederick Roberts, who had been Commander of Chief of British Forces in Ireland prior to his transfer to South Africa, the sympathies of many of their compatriots lay firmly with the Boers. Nationalist-controlled local authorities passed pro-Boer resolutions and there were proposals to confer civic honours on Boer leader, Paul Kruger." (Irish Ambassador Daniel Mulhall written (<http://www.promuda-prodigy.com/archives/000083.html>) for *History Ireland*, 2004.)
- ² ^ Lloyd George and Keir Hardie were members of the Stop the War Committee. (See the founder's biography: William T. Stead's (<http://www.attackingthediabol.co.uk/worksabout/baaims.php>) .) Many British authors gave their "Pro-Boer" opinions in British press, such as G. K. Chesterton's writing to 1905 — see Rice University Chesterton's poetry analysis

(<http://www.cs.rice.edu/~ssiyer/minstrels/poems/228.html>)

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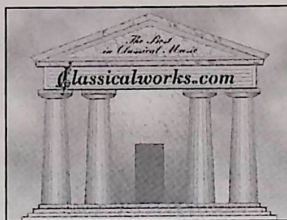
Categories: Boer War | Guerrilla wars

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Year	Event
1901	Richard Strauss: "Feuersnot," opera, Dresden
1901	Stanford: "Much Ado about Nothing," opera, London
1901	Dvorák: "Rusalka," opera, Prague
1901	Fliet: "Cockade," overture, Opus 40
1901	Ravel: "Jeux d'eau"
1901	Rachmaninoff: Piano Concerto No. 2
1901	Bruckner: Symphony No. 6 (posth.)
1901	Verdi dies
1901	Edmund Rubbra, English composer, born
1901	Werner Eick, German composer, born
1901	Fanny Leo Slezak joins the Vienna Opera
1901	Ragtime starts to become a distinct form in US
1901	Wigners Hall, London, opened
1902	Elgar composes the first of "Pomp and Circumstance" marches (last in 1930)
1902	Debussy: "Pelléas et Mélisande," opera, Paris
1902	Edward Gennan: "Merrie England," operetta, London
1902	Frederick Dellius: "Appalachia"
1902	William Walton, English composer born
1902	Leo Blum: "Das War Ich," comic opera, Dresden
1902	Lehar: "Der Rastelbinder," operetta, Vienna
	Chabrier: "Le Bourgeois de Notre Dame," opera, Monte Carlo

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_Boer_War

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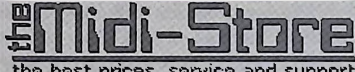
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1902	Lehar: "Der Rastelbinder," operetta, Vienna
1902	Massenet: "Le Jongleur de Notre Dame," opera, Monte Carlo

1902	Sibelius: Symphony No. 2
1902	Enrico Caruso makes his first phonograph recording
1903	Delius: "Sea Drift"
1903	Bruckner: Symphony No. 9, Vienna (posth.)
1903	Oscar Hammerstein builds the Manhattan Opera House, New York
1903	Hugo Wolf dies
1903	Lennox Berkeley, English composer, born
1903	Edmund Eysler: "Bruder Straubinger," operetta, Vienna
1903	Boris Blacher, German composer, born
1903	Juan Manen: "Giovanna di Napoli," Spanish opera
1903	Ermanno Wolf-Ferrari: "Le Donne curiose," opera, Munich
1903	D'Albert: "Tiefland," opera, Prague
1903	Elgar: "The Apostles," oratorio, Birmingham
1903	First recording of an opera: Verdi's "Ernani"
1904	G.M. Balanchine and Anton Dolin, choreographers, born
1904	Anton Dvorak dies
1904	Delius: "Koanga," opera, Elberfeld
1904	Puccini: "Madame Butterfly," opera, Milan
1904	Richard Strauss: "Sinfonia Domestica," New York
1904	Luigi Dallapiccola, Italian composer, born
1904	First transmission of music at Graz, Austria
1904	London Symphony Orchestra gives its first concert
1904	Victor Herbert: "Mille. Modeste," operetta, New York
1904	Leos Janacek: "Jenufa," opera, Brno
1905	Theodore Thomas, German American conductor, dies
1905	Serge Lifar, Russian choreographer, born
1905	Michael Tippett, English composer, born
1905	Debussy: "Le Mer," Paris
1905	Franz Lehar: "The Merry Widow," operetta, Vienna

1905	Richard Strauss:" Salome," opera, Dresden
1905	"Zenobia," by L.A. Coerne becomes the first American opera to be produced in Europe (Bremen)
1905	Albert Schweitzer: "J.S. Bach"
1905	Sir Thomas Beecham makes his debut as conductor in London
1905	Victor Herbert:"The Red Mill," operetta, New York
1906	John K. Paine, American musicologist and music teacher, dies
1906	Massenet:"Ariane," opera, Paris
1906	Ethel Smith:"The Wreckers," opera, Leipzig
1906	Mozart Festival begins in Salzburg
1906	Dmitri Shostakovich, Russian composer, born
1906	Ermanno Wolf-Ferrari:"I quattro rusteghi"("The School for Fathers"), comic opera, Munich
1906	Max von Schillings:"Moloch," opera, Dresden
1906	Elgar:"The Kingdom," oratorio, Birmingham
1906	Geraldine Farrar makes American debut
1906	First program of voice and music broadcast in the US by R.A. Fessenden
1907	Joseph Joachim, German violinist, dies
1907	Edvard Grieg dies
1907	Delius:"A Village Romeo and Juliet," opera, Berlin
1907	Paul Cukas:"Ariane et Barbe bleue," opera, Paris
1907	Oskar Strauss:"A Waltz Dream," operetta, Vienna
1907	Leo Fall:"The Dollar Princess," operetta, Vienna
1907	Franz Lehar: "The Merry Widow," opera, New York
1907	Gustav Mahler: Symphony No. 8 in E-flat major ("The Symphony of a Thousand") <i>Mahler is Jewish.</i>
1907	The first "Ziegfeld Follies," staged in New York
1908	James Rider Randall, American song writer ("Maryland, My Maryland") dies
1908	Bela Bartok: String Quartet No. 1

1908	Elgar: Symphony No.1 in A-flat, Opus 55
1908	Rimsky-Korsakov dies
1908	Herbert von Karajan, Austrian conductor, born
1908	Eleven year old, E. W. Korngold writes his first stage work, the ballet "The Snowman" (first produced in 1910)
1908	Oliver Messiaen, French composer, born
1908	Sarasate, Spanish violinist, dies
1908	Oskar Straus: "The Chocolate Soldier," operetta, Vienna
1908	Leo Fall: "The Girl in the Train," operetta, Vienna
1909	Robert Helpmann, British-Australian ballet dancer and choreographer, born
1909	Delius: "A Mass for Life"
1909	Richard Strauss: "Elektra," opera, Dresden
1909	Rimsky-Korsakov: "The Golden Cockerel" (posth.)
1909	Gustav Mahler: Symphony No. 9
1909	R. Vaughan Williams: "Fantasia on a Theme of Tallis"
1909	Sergei Diaghilev presents his "Ballet Russe" for the first time in Paris
1909	Arnold Schonberg: "Three Piano Pieces," Opus 11
1909	Wolf-Ferrari: "Il Segreto di Susanna," comic opera, Munich
1909	Franz Lehar: "The Count of Luxemburg," operetta, Vienna
1910	Mily Balakirev, Russian compose, founder of the "Great Five" group, dies
1910	Franz Xaver Haberl, German musical scholar, dies
1910	Elgar: Concerto for Violin in B Minor, Opus 61, London
1910	Puccini: "La Fanciulla de West," ("The Girl of the Golden West"), opera, New York
1910	R. Vaughan Williams: "Sea Symphony"
1910	Stravinsky: "The Firebird," ballet, Paris
1910	Thomas Beecham's first opera season at Covent Garden, London

1910	Alban Berg: "String Quartet," Opus 3			
1910	Busoni:"Fantasia Contrpuntistica" for orchestra			
1910	Jean Gilbert:"Die keusche Susanne," operetta			
1910	Massenet: "Don Quichotte," opera, Monte Carlo			
1910	The South American tango gains immense popularity in Europe and the US			
1910	Franz Lehar: "Gypsy Love," operetta, Vienna			
1910	Victor Herbert: "Naughty Marietta," American operetta, New York			
<u>History of Music</u>	<u>Links</u>	<u>Portrait Gallery</u>	<u>Glossary of Musical Terms</u>	<u>Classical Midi Connection</u>

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A publication of the National Dissemination Center for Children with Disabilities

Mental Retardation

Fact Sheet 8 (FS8)
January 2004
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PDF version

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Matthew's Story

Matt is 15 years old. Because Matt has mental retardation, he has been receiving special education services since elementary school. These services have helped him tremendously, because they are designed to fit his special learning needs. Last year he started high school. He, his family, and the school took a good hard look at what he wants to do when secondary school is over. Does he want more education? A job? Does he have the skills he needs to live on his own?

Answering these questions has helped Matt and the school plan for the future. He's always been interested in the outdoors, in plants, and especially in trees. He knows all the tree names and can recognize them by their leaves and bark. So this year he's learning about jobs like forestry, landscaping, and grounds maintenance. Next year he hopes to get a part-time job. He's learning to use public transportation, so he'll be able to get to and from the job. Having mental retardation makes it harder for Matt to learn new things. He needs things to be very concrete. But he's determined. He wants to work outside, maybe in the park service or in a greenhouse, and he's getting ready!

4 Check this

What is Mental Retardation?

Mental retardation is a term used when a person has certain limitations in mental functioning and in skills such as communicating, taking care of him or herself, and social skills. These limitations will cause a child to learn and develop more slowly than a typical child. Children with mental retardation may take longer to learn to speak, walk, and take care of their personal needs such as dressing or eating. They are likely to have trouble learning in school. They will learn, but it will take them longer. There may be some things they cannot learn.

4 Check this

Klara's work

What Causes Mental Retardation?

Doctors have found many causes of mental retardation. The most common are:

- *Genetic conditions.* Sometimes mental retardation is caused by abnormal genes inherited from parents, errors when genes combine, or other reasons. Examples of genetic conditions are Down syndrome, fragile X syndrome, and phenylketonuria (PKU).
- *Problems during pregnancy.* Mental retardation can result when the baby does not develop inside the mother properly. For example, there may be a problem with the way the baby's cells divide as it grows. A woman who drinks alcohol or gets an infection like rubella during pregnancy may also have a baby with mental retardation.
- *Problems at birth.* If a baby has problems during labor and birth, such as not getting enough oxygen, he or she may have mental retardation.
- *Health problems.* Diseases like whooping cough, the measles, or meningitis can cause mental retardation. Mental retardation can also be caused by extreme malnutrition (not eating right), not getting enough medical care, or by being exposed to poisons like lead or mercury.

Mental retardation is not a disease. You can't catch mental retardation from anyone. Mental retardation is also not a type of mental illness, like depression. There is no cure for mental retardation. However, most children with mental retardation can learn to do many things. It just takes them more time and effort than other children.

How is Mental Retardation Diagnosed?

Mental retardation is diagnosed by looking at two main things. These are:

- the ability of a person's brain to learn, think, solve problems, and make sense of the world (called IQ or intellectual functioning); and
- whether the person has the skills he or she needs to live independently (called adaptive behavior, or adaptive functioning).

Intellectual functioning, or IQ, is usually measured by a test called an IQ test. The average score is 100. People scoring below 70 to 75 are thought to have mental retardation. To measure adaptive behavior, professionals look at what a child can do in comparison to other children of his or her age. Certain skills are important to adaptive behavior. These are:

- daily living skills, such as getting dressed, going to the bathroom, and feeding one's self;

- communication skills, such as understanding what is said and being able to answer;
- social skills with peers, family members, adults, and others.

To diagnose mental retardation, professionals look at the person's mental abilities (IQ) and his or her adaptive skills. Both of these are highlighted in the definition of mental retardation provided between the lines below. This definition comes from the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). The IDEA is the federal law that guides how schools provide early intervention and special education and related services to children with disabilities.

Providing services to help individuals with mental retardation has led to a new understanding of how we define mental retardation. After the initial diagnosis of mental retardation is made, we look at a person's strengths and weaknesses. We also look at how much support or help the person needs to get along at home, in school, and in the community. This approach gives a realistic picture of each individual. It also recognizes that the "picture" can change. As the person grows and learns, his or her ability to get along in the world grows as well.

IDEA's Definition of "Mental Retardation"

Our nation's special education law, the IDEA, defines mental retardation as . . .

"... significantly subaverage general intellectual functioning, existing concurrently with deficits in adaptive behavior and manifested during the developmental period, that adversely affects a child's educational performance." [34 Code of Federal Regulations §300.7(c)(6)]

How Common is Mental Retardation?

As many as 3 out of every 100 people in the country have mental retardation (The Arc, 2001). Nearly 613,000 children ages 6 to 21 have some level of mental retardation and need special education in school (*Twenty-fourth Annual Report to Congress*, U.S. Department of Education, 2002). In fact, 1 out of every 10 children who need special education has some form of mental retardation.

What Are the Signs of Mental Retardation?

There are many signs of mental retardation. For example, children with mental retardation may:

- sit up, crawl, or walk later than other children;
- learn to talk later, or have trouble speaking,
- find it hard to remember things,
- not understand how to pay for things,
- have trouble understanding social rules,
- have trouble seeing the consequences of their actions,
- have trouble solving problems, and/or
- have trouble thinking logically.

About 87% of people with mental retardation will only be a little slower than average in learning new information and skills. When they are children, their limitations may not be obvious. They may not even be diagnosed as having mental retardation until they get to school. As they become adults, many people with mild retardation can live independently. Other people may not even consider them as having mental retardation.

The remaining 13% of people with mental retardation score below 50 on IQ tests. These people will have more difficulty in school, at home, and in the community. A person with more severe retardation will need more intensive support his or her entire life. Every child with mental retardation is able to learn, develop, and grow. With help, all children with mental retardation can live a satisfying life.

A. Back to the

What About School?

A child with mental retardation can do well in school but is likely to need individualized help. Fortunately, states are responsible for meeting the educational needs of children with disabilities.

For children up to age three, services are provided through an early intervention system. Staff work with the child's family to develop what is known as an Individualized Family Services Plan, or IFSP. The IFSP will describe the child's unique needs. It also describes the services the child will receive to address those needs. The IFSP will emphasize the unique needs of the family, so that parents and other family members will know how to help their young child with mental retardation. Early intervention services may be provided on a sliding-fee basis, meaning that the costs to the family will depend upon their income. In some states, early intervention services may be at no cost to parents.

For eligible school-aged children (including preschoolers), special education and related services are made available through the school system. School staff will work with the child's parents to develop an Individualized Education Program, or IEP. The IEP is similar to an IFSP. It describes the child's unique needs and the services that have been designed to meet those needs. Special education and related services are provided at no cost to parents.

Many children with mental retardation need help with adaptive skills, which are skills needed

to live, work, and play in the community. Teachers and parents can help a child work on these skills at both school and home. Some of these skills include:

- communicating with others;
- taking care of personal needs (dressing, bathing, going to the bathroom);
- health and safety;
- home living (helping to set the table, cleaning the house, or cooking dinner);
- social skills (manners, knowing the rules of conversation, getting along in a group, playing a game);
- reading, writing, and basic math; and
- as they get older, skills that will help them in the workplace.

Supports or changes in the classroom (called adaptations) help most students with mental retardation. Some common changes that help students with mental retardation are listed below under "Tips for Teachers." The resources below also include ways to help children with mental retardation.

▲ Back to top

Tips for Parents

- Learn about mental retardation. The more you know, the more you can help yourself and your child. See the list of resources and organizations at the end of this publication.
- Encourage independence in your child. For example, help your child learn daily care skills, such as dressing, feeding him or herself, using the bathroom, and grooming.
- Give your child chores. Keep her age, attention span, and abilities in mind. Break down jobs into smaller steps. For example, if your child's job is to set the table, first ask her to get the right number of napkins. Then have her put one at each family member's place at the table. Do the same with the utensils, going one at a time. Tell her what to do, step by step, until the job is done. Demonstrate how to do the job. Help her when she needs assistance. Give your child frequent feedback. Praise your child when he or she does well. Build your child's abilities.
- Find out what skills your child is learning at school. Find ways for your child to apply those skills at home. For example, if the teacher is going over a lesson about money, take your child to the supermarket with you. Help him count out the money to pay for your groceries. Help him count the change.
- Find opportunities in your community for social activities, such as scouts, recreation center activities, sports, and so on. These will help your child build social skills as well as to have fun.
- Talk to other parents whose children have mental retardation. Parents can share practical advice and emotional support. Call NICHCY (1.800.695.0285) and ask how to find a parent group near you.

- Meet with the school and develop an educational plan to address your child's needs. Keep in touch with your child's teachers. Offer support. Find out how you can support your child's school learning at home.

4. Tips for Teachers

Tips for Teachers

- Learn as much as you can about mental retardation. The organizations listed at the end of this publication will help you identify specific techniques and strategies to support the student educationally. We've also listed some strategies below.
- Recognize that you can make an enormous difference in this student's life! Find out what the student's strengths and interests are, and emphasize them. Create opportunities for success.
- If you are not part of the student's Individualized Education Program (IEP) team, ask for a copy of his or her IEP. The student's educational goals will be listed there, as well as the services and classroom accommodations he or she is to receive. Talk to specialists in your school (e.g., special educators), as necessary. They can help you identify effective methods of teaching this student, ways to adapt the curriculum, and how to address the student's IEP goals in your classroom.
- Be as concrete as possible. Demonstrate what you mean rather than just giving verbal directions. Rather than just relating new information verbally, show a picture. And rather than just showing a picture, provide the student with hands-on materials and experiences and the opportunity to try things out.
- Break longer, new tasks into small steps. Demonstrate the steps. Have the student do the steps, one at a time. Provide assistance, as necessary.
- Give the student immediate feedback.
- Teach the student life skills such as daily living, social skills, and occupational awareness and exploration, as appropriate. Involve the student in group activities or clubs.
- Work together with the student's parents and other school personnel to create and implement an educational plan tailored to meet the student's needs. Regularly share information about how the student is doing at school and at home.

5. Resources

Resources

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A. Training

Organizations

The Arc of the United States
1010 Wayne Avenue, Suite 650
Silver Spring, MD 20910
301.565.3842
Info@thearc.org E-mail
www.thearc.org Web
www.TheArcPub.com Web (Publications)

American Association on Mental Retardation (AAMR)
444 North Capitol Street NW, Suite 846
Washington, DC 20001-1512
202.387.1968; 800.424.3688 (outside DC)
www.aamr.org Web

Division on Developmental Disabilities
The Council for Exceptional Children
1110 North Glebe Road, Suite 300
Arlington, VA 22201-5704
888.232.7733; 703.620.3660
866.915.5000 TTY
cec@cec.sped.org E-mail
www.ciddcec.org Web

A. Bookings

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Harvard Medical School

Down Syndrome

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What Is It?

Down syndrome is a disorder caused by an abnormality of the chromosomes — the pieces of DNA containing the blueprint for the human body. Normally a person has two copies of each chromosome, but a person with Down syndrome has three copies of chromosome 21. The condition also is called trisomy 21. In a few cases, the extra copy is attached to another chromosome (translocation), or found in only some of the person's cells (mosaicism). The extra DNA produces the physical and mental characteristics of Down syndrome, which include a small head that is flattened in the back; slanted eyes; extra skin folds at the corners of the eyes; small ears, nose and mouth; short stature; small hands and feet; and some degree of mental disability. Between 3,000 and 5,000 children with Down syndrome are born each year in the United States.

Symptoms

In addition to the characteristic physical features and decreased mental abilities, other health problems frequently are seen in people with Down syndrome. These include:

- Hearing deficits
- Heart problems
- Intestinal abnormalities
- Eye problems
- Low levels of thyroid hormone
- Skeletal problems such as joint instability
- Poor weight gain in infants

People with Down syndrome develop leukemia more often than those without the disorder, and they are more likely to develop infections, problems with the immune system, skin disorders and seizures.

Infants with Down syndrome usually develop more slowly than other children of the same age, although a wide variation is seen. Language development is typically much slower, as is motor development. For example, most toddlers walk between 12 and 14 months of age, but toddlers with Down syndrome walk between 15 and 36 months.

Diagnosis

Down syndrome frequently is suspected at birth based on physical appearance. The diagnosis usually is confirmed by a blood test to examine the chromosomes. Additional testing may be done, including chest X-rays, echocardiography and an electrocardiogram, to check for heart problems. Sometimes X-ray studies of the gastrointestinal tract are done as well.

In some cases, Down syndrome is suspected during pregnancy from the results of a blood test that measures the levels

of three chemicals (a "triple-screen" test) in a pregnant woman's blood. If these results are abnormal, further tests can be done to help diagnose Down syndrome.

Expected Duration

Down syndrome continues throughout life.

Prevention

There is no way to prevent Down syndrome. However, the chance of having a child with Down syndrome increases as the age of the mother increases. Older mothers usually are offered additional screening tests to detect Down syndrome in the fetus. Some researchers have suggested that an older father also increases the risk.

Parents who already have a child with Down syndrome are more likely to have another child with the same problem in future pregnancies. Genetic testing can help to determine the amount of risk.

Treatment

There is no treatment to reverse the genetic abnormality that causes Down syndrome. However, many of the associated medical and developmental conditions can be treated, enhancing the person's quality of life, improving the child's development, and increasing his or her life expectancy.

Many health care professionals may be involved in assessing and planning the course of treatment for a child with Down syndrome. Surgery may be required for cardiac or gastrointestinal problems.

Physical therapy and integrated special education services help children with Down syndrome to make the most of their abilities and reach their potential. Children with Down syndrome usually respond very well to sensory stimulation, exercises to help their muscle control, and activities to help their mental development. School helps children with Down syndrome to learn social, academic and physical skills that may allow them to attain a very high level of functioning and independence.

When To Call A Professional

Most cases of Down syndrome are detected early in life. Call your doctor if you suspect that your child has Down syndrome that has not been diagnosed or if you have questions about your risk of having a child with Down syndrome.

Prognosis

The outlook for a person with Down syndrome varies with the accompanying medical and developmental conditions. The outlook continues to improve, as educators and health care professionals recognize the importance of early interventions to promote both health and development. Advances in medical treatments have greatly improved the life expectancy for people with Down syndrome, with the majority living past age 55.

Additional Info

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Watches

Pocket watches predate wristwatches by centuries.

Even though the very first existed in the 1500s, before 1750 they were rare, custom-made items. They became more numerous from 1700-1850 but were still strictly custom work.

Burger-Abel

After 1850, however, pocket watches were mass-produced, with 1860-1920 becoming known as the "golden age" of pocket watches. They were available in all price ranges, everything from very plain, cheap, versions used by all but the very poor, to extremely expensive gold items for the rich. By 1920, one horological historian notes, wristwatches were "unfortunately" squeezing out pocket watches in popularity.

Wrist Watches

As early as the 1880s, the German Imperial Navy were issued "wristwatches" that were nothing more than pocket-watches held in rather clumsy leather wrist straps. Indeed, the first wristwatches seem to have been home-made by soldiers on the battlefield who found pocketwatches too cumbersome.

During the second Boer War, the British soldiers made their own "wristwatches" and gained an edge over the Boers by being able to coordinate their attacks with precision.

Still, in 1900, "wristlets"—i.e., wristwatches—were only manufactured in small ladies' models, and it was considered they could never be accurate—or anything except fashion accessories for rich women.

However, by 1906, many mfgs. were making pocket-watches with lugs soldered to their cases, the better to accommodate wrist straps.

Wrist-watches came into their own during WWI. Although they were only pocket-watches with straps, when the British soldiers came home wearing their "trench watches," the "real men don't wear wrist watches" argument vanished forever, and manufacturers then started serious work on wristwatches. By 1935, 65% of all the watches exported from Switzerland were wristwatches.