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A Chairde,

The second level subject of history covers a broad range of periods and events. It places demands on both teachers and students that can often eliminate opportunities to enjoy history. However, perhaps more importantly, such demands can prevent students from looking at history, their history, with a critical eye and asking questions about the perspectives that support the narratives presented to them.

The archival collections held at the James Hardiman Library offer students opportunities to engage with sources that are closely related to the region within which they live. The design of Breaking the SEAL encourages students to ask questions not permitted within the examination process and allows them room to explore these questions through to their natural conclusions while at the same time completing an important Leaving Certificate assessment module in a way that is personally relevant.

The students who participated in Breaking the SEAL this year engaged with the programme with energy, enthusiasm and, most importantly, critical eyes. It was quite clear that they left the programme with new perspectives and it is most certain that we learned quite a lot too.

I would like to thank all of the students and their teachers for their engagement with the programme and wish all of the students who participated in this programme the very best for the future.

Dr. Paul Flynn
Breaking the SEAL - Programme Director
Foreword

A Chairde,

It is my pleasure to congratulate all students on their completion of the ‘Breaking the S.E.A.L. project at NUI Galway. At the heart of education, any level, is a spirit of enquiry and curiosity – to seek an answer to a question. Access to the right information and asking the right questions in our studies leads us inevitably to turn to our libraries.

The Archives service of the James Hardiman Library is a repository of unique archival collections dating from the 15th century to present day. It documents and preserves records from parchment to manuscript, from photographs to maps as well as born-digital and electronic records, creating an archive of life and culture of the west of Ireland and beyond.

This project, a partnership between the Hardiman Library and the School of Education, proudly made these unique records fully available to research for Leaving Certificate research projects, engaging a whole new audience with primary sources. It has been our goal to create a dynamic learning experience for our students, to engage them with a new thinking about history, to learn through encountering the archive, to handle and touch artefacts of the past and to consider our place in the world today by understanding where we have come from – our shared history.

I’d like to pay special tribute to all teachers of the respective schools for dedicated such time and energy to this project. Your commitment to the project and by engaging your students has made this all possible.

It has been a pleasure to be Co-Director of the ‘Breaking the S.E.A.L.’ project and offer sincere congratulations to all students.

__________________
Mr. Barry Houlihan
Breaking the SEAL - Programme Director
Nixon and the Watergate Scandal

Author: Callum Clogher, 5th Year Student, Coláiste Mhuire Ballygar

On August 9th, 1974, Richard Nixon became the first American president to resign from office. The controversy that lead to this event caused national hysteria and unprecedented distrust in the American government. Five men were arrested after breaking into the office of the Democratic National Committee in the Watergate Hotel in Washington in the early hours of June 7th, 1972. They were found to be trying to steal confidential documents and planting various recording devices in an apparent attempt to spy on the Democratic Party. (Alfred E. Lewis, The Austin American, 1972). The burglary became politically suspicious when two of the arrested were found to be members of Nixon’s Committee to Re-elect the President (C.R.E.E.P), and they had been tasked with illegal activities. Even though there was suspicion of some sort of presidential interference, Nixon swore that he had nothing to do with the burglary, and won the 1972 election in a landslide victory, 60.7% to Nixon against 39.3% to George McGovern of the Democratic Party. (https://www.britannica.com/topic/United-States-Presidential-ElectionResults-1788863)

It became obvious that some sort of cover up was taking place; shortly after the break in Nixon arranged hundreds of thousands of dollars in “hush money” to be given to the men arrested. Nixon then tried to arrange a CIA obstruction of the FBI’s investigation on the scandal, he told them to say “they should call the FBI in and say … don’t go any further into this case” (Smoking-Gun Tape Transcript). Around this time, seven people were indicted for involvement in the scandal and were put on trial. Slowly, the suspects began to crack under the pressure. Many White House aides eventually testified confirming Nixon’s involvement. Alexander Butterfield revealed that Nixon had implemented a series of taping devices throughout the White House.

This was a turning point in the trial; if the prosecutors could obtain these tapes they should be able to find evidence of the president’s guilt. Nixon refused to hand over the tapes; he argued that his executive privilege allowed him to retain the audio. His uncooperative behaviour raised suspicion even more, but the court persisted. (MacKenzie, John P., New York Times, July 25, 1974).

Under pressure and fearing defeat, Nixon fired Independent Investigator Cox. Soon after, many officials from the Justice Department left in protest to Cox’s firing, now known as the Saturday Night Massacre. Eventually, Nixon agreed to surrender an edited version of the tapes, hoping that the compromise would please the prosecution. In July 1974, in a Supreme Court ruling, Nixon was forced to hand over the tapes. (Herbers, John, Washington Post, April 30th 1974) The tapes gave confirmation that Nixon had attempted to cover up ties to the break in. A charge of impeachment was filed against Nixon on the grounds of abuse of power, contempt of Congress and obstruction of justice. Disgraced, Nixon decided to resign from office rather than be impeached. Gerald Ford, his successor, gave him a presidential pardon, saying that “someone must write the end to it.”

The Watergate Scandal’s hugely widened the credibility gap, causing Americans to detest an imperial presidency. The case, and specifically the Smoking Gun Tapes, showed that even the president couldn’t be trusted. Nixon had lied to his lawyers, the court and the nation, and his shameful resignation made him one of the most disliked presidents in US history.
Harlem Hell fighters

Author: Joseph Farrell, 5th Year Student, Coláiste Mhuire Ballygar

The research topic I have chosen is the American 369th infantry division, also known as the Harlem Hellfighters. The men were mostly from Harlem, and they were given the added name Hellfighters by the Germans after they saw how fierce they fought in battle. I wanted to do this topic because I wanted to show how far these men were willing to go for their rights.

The Harlem Hellfighters were an army unit which consisted entirely of African-American fighters during World War 1. At this time in history, African-American soldiers were unheard of due to the racial segregation still in effect during the years of World War 1 (1914-1918) what’s even more surprising was that although there was still extreme racism towards the African-American fighters they volunteered to go to war. Once they were accepted to join, they were all assigned to the same infantry division, 369th, under a white officer named Colonel William Hayward. (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eEuoAl1elLU)

They hoped by going to war and fighting with their fellow Americans they would somehow change America’s perspective of black Americans. This did not work straight away as they were still discriminated against while in uniform and were given labour jobs and not allowed to fight. They were eventually allowed to fight but were assigned to fight along with the French who at the time where not concerned with racial segregation and would take any help they could get from the allied forces. Their uniforms and weapons were exchanged for French equivalents while under their command. (http://www.anb.org/view/10.1093/anb/9780198606697.001.0001/anb-9780198606697-e2001908;jsessionid=EC7B4CC700FFDA9E94443F01FE3E0F26)

The most famous story about the 369th division that demonstrates their determination is of Henry Johnson and Needham Roberts. Johnson and Roberts were on sentry duty during the night of 15 May 1918. At around 1 a.m. a German sniper opened up from a bush. Johnson heard the Germans cutting the wire that protected his post, so he sent Roberts, to alert their troops. Johnson lobbed a grenade and the enemy began firing, so he recalled Roberts. Roberts was soon incapacitated by a German grenade. While under intense enemy fire and despite receiving significant wounds, Johnson mounted a brave retaliation resulting in several enemy casualties. When his fellow Soldier was badly wounded, Johnson prevented him from being taken prisoner by German forces. Roberts could not stand but he sat upright and passed grenades to Johnson. Johnson advanced from his position to engage an enemy soldier in hand-to-hand combat. The fight had lasted about one hour. Johnson and Roberts were taken to a French hospital. Johnson had wounds to his left arm, back, feet, and face, most of them from knives and bayonets. “There wasn’t anything so fine about it,” he philosophized. “Just fought for my life. A rabbit would have done that.” (https://www.army.mil/medalofhonor/johnson/)

With daylight the Americans found four dead Germans on the battlefield and evidence of perhaps as many as thirty-two more involved in the fight. The Germans are said to have thereafter designated African American troops the “blood-thirsty black men.” The French dubbed them “hell-fighters”; the 369th would henceforth be known as the “Harlem Hellfighters.” They spent the most amount of time on the front line than any other division and suffered the most amount of losses but never gave up and were famously known to never have lost an inch of ground.
35th Battalion at Jadotville

Author: Sarah Maloney, 5th Year Student, Coláiste Mhuire Ballygar

A company of the 35th battalion gathered in Athlone Barracks to leave for Jadotville after having spent few months training. They were called upon by the United Nations as peace keepers between the Conganese and Katangan people. The Katangan’s wanted independence from the Congo, due to Belgian propaganda.

This small force of 155 soldiers was transferred to Jadotville where they began their peacekeeping mission. They all swore an oath not to fire unless fired upon. They spent days digging trenches and relaxing as they were not expected to fight. “The Irish army was a virgin” meaning that they had never fought in a war before and they did not plan to either. (Power, Declan, The Siege at Jadotville, 2005) It is worth noting that most of these soldiers aged between 17 and 20 and had received an inadequate amount of training. The men wondered as to why they were not given a hero’s welcome to Jadotville. Signs such as “A Company go home” were displayed all over the village. It would become clear that men were ill equipped to face the oncoming battle. (Power, Declan, The Siege at Jadotville, 2005) On the 9th of September 1961 Belgian mercenaries, sent to fight for the katangans and spread propaganda, surrounded the Irish army and over powered them with 3000 to 155. The Irish soldiers kept to their promise and did not fire the first shot. After all they were “soldiering for peace” (Whelan, Michael, The Battle of Jadotville; Irish Soldiers in Combat, 2006). A battle ensued following the mercenaries firing the first shot and all the men darted for cover in the trenches. The Irish men were only armed with light personal weapons and a small number of Vickers machine guns. Besides their lack of weaponry, shortage of food and water supplies the Irish were prepared to fight to the end. “We will hold out until our last bullet is spent” (Power, Declan, The Siege at Jadotville, 2005). Consequently, they spent 4 hard days fighting off the mercenary army who came in fleets of hundreds at a time. After four solid days of fighting Sergeant P. Quinlan asked the mercenaries for a cease fire after having completely running out of supplies. The Katangan army was reduced from 3000 to 2000 men, 300 of which had been killed (Roche, Barry, https://www.irishtimes.com/news/ireland-news/we-literally-would-all-have-died-in-jadotville-but-for-him-1.3273241, 2017). Miraculously, the Irish army left with no casualties. It was possibly one of the hardest battles ever to be fought by the men.

It is admirable that, this small battalion fought against all the odds, withstanding the pressure of the Katangan army. In October, following the battle, the Irish soldiers were imprisoned camp in Kolwezi. Subject to beatings, fearing for their lives, they slept in horrible conditions for days until Pat Quinlan negotiated their release. They were prisoners for 6/7 weeks before finally being released. When the men returned to Ireland, they were not allowed to talk about their time overseas and what they had experienced. It was unjust that the men were not allowed to talk about their time overseas as they had surrendered. Finally, in 2017 the men were recognised as the true heroes they were and were presented with medals. Unfortunately, some of the men did not live to get their moment of pride.
Clifden Community School
Emperor Nero

Author: Aimee Gordon, 5th Year Student, Clifden Community School

Nero is one of the most infamous of Rome’s emperors. Nero ruled from 54AD until he committed suicide 14 years later. He is mostly known for political murders, the persecution of Christians and his passion for music.

Nero was born on December 15th 37CE. Nero’s father died 40CE and Nero was raised by his mother Julia Agrippina, who was the great granddaughter of Emperor Augutus. Agrippina became the incestuous wife of her uncle after poisoning her second husband. She persuaded her new husband, Emperor Claudius, to name Nero as his successor, over the rightful claim of Claudius’s own son, Britannicus and to marry his daughter Octavia to Nero. When Claudius died, Agrippina had Nero proclaimed Emperor by the Praetorian Guard. The Roman Empire had been left in the hands of a boy that hadn’t even yet turned 17.

Agrippina hoped to control the government so she had Narcissus eliminated immediately as he always opposed her aims. Nero’s old Tutor, Lucius Annaeus Seneca, and Burrus encouraged Nero to be independent of his mother, resulting in a growing hostility between them. Agrippina was soon forced to retire so Burrus and Seneca were effective rulers of the empire. Nero’s biographers cite only of the acts of generosity on his account (Britannica.com). His government forbade contests involving bloodshed in the circus, banned capital punishment, reduced taxes, and gave permission to slaves to bring civil complaints against cruel and unjust masters. Between the years of 54 and 62, there were no incidents of murder during Nero’s reign. Instead of competitions in gladiatorial combat, Nero inaugurated competitions in poetry, theatre and athletics.

On July 18th 64AD, the Great Fire Of Rome broke out and destroyed most of the city. It is not confirmed but many suspected that Nero started the fire and played the lyre while his people suffered and his city burned (BBC.com/history). Despite the rumours, he still used the fire to further his political agenda. The fire started in the slums of a district south of Palatine Hill. The area’s homes burned very quickly and the fire spread north, driven by high winds. The fire ended up raging out of control for nearly three days. Three of Rome’s 14 districts were completely wiped out and only four districts were unaffected by the tragic conflagration. Hundreds of people died in the fire. There are a few reasons why history blames Nero for the fire, Nero did not like the appearance and aesthetics of the city and he used the devastation of the fire in order to change it and introduce new building codes throughout the city. Nero also used the fire to villainize on the growing population and influence of Christians in Rome. He arrested, tortured and executed hundreds of Christians on the accusation that they had something to do with the fire (History hit.com/ History.com).

Nero committed suicide on June 9th 68AD after he was tried in absentia and sentenced to death as a public enemy.
Plan W: Irish Neutrality During World War 2

Author: Dylan O’Malley, 5th Year Student, Clifden Community School

World War 2, 1939-1945, is one of the biggest historical events in modern history. Throughout the 6 years, the island of Ireland, under de Valera’s guidance, maintained a policy of neutrality. This policy that de Valera managed to keep, could have been broken had events played out differently. In June 1940, British Intelligence had intercepted German messages that a plan to invade Ireland, known as Operation Green, was being discussed. The Germans wanted to invade Ireland as they thought it would expose Britain’s western flank. Blitzkrieg attacks could have been executed from both Ireland and France, which would undoubtedly lead to Britain’s demise. To combat Operation Green, the British sought to open discussions with Ireland about abandoning their neutrality policy.

In October 1939, the British Government were already anxious about Ireland declaring neutrality. Winston Churchill pointed out that the Irish ports were indispensable to British security. It is ironic to think that Britain were actually in control of their ports only one year prior in 1938, before de Valera requested they be under Irish control. The British were particularly interested in the Berehaven port in County Cork. John Maffey, Irish ambassador for Britain, was tasked with asking de Valera for the use of the port. On October 21st 1939, de Valera rejected the request. There was a possibility that an angry Winston Churchill might suggest that the ports should be taken by force (T. Ryle Dwyer, Behind the Green Curtain, pg 31). The British government didn’t want to start another conflict. David Gray, US ambassador to Ireland, sent a telegraph to Washington saying that “any attempt by Churchill to negotiate for the ports will be hopeless. He has the choice between seizing them and paying the price in bloodshed and certain hostility and doing without” (Dwyer, pg 117). The British refused to give up. On May 24th 1940, talks began on Plan W, a controlled British invasion on Ireland.

British Lieutenant Colonel Dudley Clarke was told by Irish General Daniel McKenna that British troops would not be allowed into the south of Ireland before a German invasion. This was from the first preliminary talks. Talks were dealt another blow after German defence analysts published a 77 page survey of Ireland with detailed information on the shape of the land with photographs (Clair Wills, The Neutral Island, pg 85). Operation Green involved landing from Brest to coastal points between Wexford and Dungarvan. It would be difficult for British troops from the North to attack the Germans in Waterford as they would need permission from Dublin to cross the border. In June 1940, Minister for Health in Britain, Malcolm MacDonald, proposed a Joint Defence Council to deal with security both in the South and in the North. He offered Irish unity (subject to Northern consent) in exchange for air and naval facilities and Irish participation in the war (Wills, pg 86). de Valera saw the offer of Irish unity as nothing more than a “pious hope” and an empty promise. He vowed to “defend the country’s rights in regard to the ports against any attacker” (Dwyer, pg 114). In reality, the plan to secure the country with British troops was as likely to cause German retaliation as ensure Ireland’s protection.
Guy Fawkes
Author: Emily Nee, 5th Year Student, Clifden Community School

Guy Fawkes was born April in York 1570 Died: 31st January in Westminster London

Remembered for: Conspiring against James 1st and 6th and planning to blow up the House of Lords.

Family: Fawkes’s father Edward worked for the Church of England Edward died when Fawkes was a child and his mother re-married a man called Dionins [Denis] Painbridge, who was Catholic. (Nick Holland ‘The last day of Guy Fawkes page 55) Life: The Exact date of Fawkes birth is unknown, however in those times the child was born three days after they were born so Fawkes was born on the 13th, There are records showing that he was baptised on 16th April 1570 at St. Michael’s Church in York.[N.Holland ‘The Real Guy Fawkes page 6] and [https://www.historyextra.com] Despite it being a crime to be a catholic during Elizabeth 1st’s reign, Guy converted to Catholicism during his teenage years. Fawkes attended St. Peter’s School in York.

In 1592 he sailed overseas to join the Spanish Army who were fighting the protestant Dutch forces over control of the Netherlands. By 1603 Fawkes had risen through the ranks of the Spanish military and was recommenced for promotion to Captain. During this time Fawkes adopted the Italian name Guido and developed great knowledge of the use of gunpowder. In the same year Fawkes travelled to Spain and petitioned the catholic King Philip 3rd to wage war against England and the new protestant King James 1st and 6th, however Philip declined Fawkes petition. [https://www.history.com].

Whilst fighting for Spain in Flanders around 1604, Fawkes met a man Thomas Wintour, a fellow English Catholic. Wintour encouraged Fawkes to join a group of conspirators in a plot to assassinate the King. For 18 months Fawkes and 12 others formulated a plan to, blow up the House of Lords, kill the King and replace him with a catholic King. To do this, the group transported 36 barrels of gunpowder to the cellar below parliament, planning to set the gunpowder alight when James 1st opened parliament on 5th November 1605. However, the plot was foiled by Robert Cecil, King James’s dedicated Minster and there are theories that an anonymous letter had been sent to the King warning him. [https://www.historyextra.com] On November 4th Fawkes was caught in the cellar under Parliament, whilst guarding the gun powder, was arrested and sent to the Tower of London. During his imprisonment in the Tower of London, Fawkes was tortured continuously for 2 days until he admitted his involvement in the plot and was forced to sign a confession. He signed as ‘Guido Fawkes’. [https://www.historyextra.com] After his confession Fawkes remarked that he had collected so much gunpowder “to blow you scotch beggars back to your native mountains”. [https://www.historyextra.com] Despite the attempt on his life James 1st apparently praised Guy Fawkes for being dedicated to cause. [https://www.historyextra.com]

Fawkes was sentenced to be hung, drawn and quartered, which was a normal traitor’s death back then. It is suggested that Fawkes jumped as to break his neck. His body was then cut into quarters and each piece was sent to the four corners of the country. They were then put on display for the public to see. [https://www.historyextra.com]
Simo Häyhä

Author: Fionn Gray, 5th Year Student, Clifden Community School

Simo Häyhä was a sniper during the Winter War. The Winter War was a war that took place in Finland when Soviet Russia invaded. The Finns outnumbered 3-1 put up an incredibly impressive 3-month long resistance and took advantage of the Finnish countryside and poor Soviet military tactics. Simo (nicknamed “The White Death”) (www.simohayha.com) was an incredible sniper and has 505 confirmed marksman kills without a scope. He has the highest kill count in the world to this day. He was decisive in the long resistance of the Finish and a true terror to the Soviet army.

Simo was born in Rautjarvi in southern Finland on the 17 of December 1905 to a large family of farmers. From a very young age, he took up hobbies like hunting and skiing and found he was very good at them. He joined the Finnish Voluntary militia also known as “Suojeluskunta” in English as “The White Guard” (www.simohayha.com) He found success in shooting competitions and was an apt marksman.

The Finnish army used an incredible array of tactics under the lead of field marshal Mannerheim. A lot were adapted by Simo yet he had some unique methods of his own. Despite being a fantastic sniper, Simo never used a scope and it caused reflections and made it easy to spot him. Simo resorted to using only iron sights. Along with his all-white camouflage and the fact that he put snow in his mouth to conceal his breath he really became invisible (www.simohayha.com). Often Simo created a bank of snow around his position, he would then pour water across the top of the bank so it froze, this meant that when he fired a shot the snow was not disturbed and his position wasn’t given away (www.simohayha.com). He quickly became a master at using sound like artillery fire to mask his gunshots and due to a lack of maps during the time period, he relied a lot on his memory. All of these tactics put together made him quickly feared among the Soviet army. He was used as a major source of propaganda for the Finnish army and boosted the morale of the country and the army. He won the Cross of Liberty 3rd and 4th class, the Medal of Liberty 1st and 2nd class and the cross of Kolla battle (www.britannica.com).

Unfortunately, on the 6th of March 1940 in the forest of Ulismaa in the Kolla region, he was hit by an explosive bullet sent by a Soviet sniper. The bullet exploded on the ground near where he was lying. Finnish soldiers found him and reported him “missing half his face”. The left side of Simos jaw was blown apart and he was unconscious for a week and by the time he woke up on the 16th of march the armistice had been signed and Finland was at peace. Simo had gone through 26 surgical operations for his jaw and speaking was painful and difficult. He died peacefully at the age of 96 in a retirement home.
King Leopold’s Abuses in the Congo

Author: Justine McGreal, 5th Year Student, Clifden Community School

After trying unsuccessfully to obtain the Malaysian state Sarawak, New Hebrides, the Fiji Islands and the Philippines, Leopold II proposed his ‘hope to bring civilisation to Africa’. (Documentary—King Leopold II—Death in the Congo). This took place at the Brussels Conference of 1876. Leopold, along with other Belgian delegates attended the conference, which was led by Leopold II. The meeting was intended to divide Africa for colonisation. It was here that Leopold II preached his hopes to introduce civilisation and Christianity. He was helped by the status and support of his aunt, Queen Victoria of Great Britain. Upon Leopold’s rule in the Congo, he requested that Henry Morton Stanley would oversee and set in place construction of roads, steamboats and brutal slavery, to mine rubber in the ‘Free State’. Leopold II requested Stanley’s assistance after he read his book ‘Through the dark continent’ which Stanley wrote after his well-known rescue of Scottish physician and explorer David Livingstone in October 1871.

Stanley established an irreverent way of ruling the Congo during his years in control under the King, tricking chieftains into signing away their land all the while believing they were signing a ‘peace treaty’. Just as brutal as his subordinate, but infinitely more powerful, Leopold’s rule from 1885-1908 inflicted unimaginable horrors on its local people. A documentary: ‘King Leopold II – Death in the Congo’, explains in upsetting detail the brutalities carried out on tribes who were brave enough to defend their homes. ‘Two women, a mother and her daughter would not tell Leopold’s soldiers where their chieftain was, when they said no they were held down and beaten 200 lashes with a ‘choate’ whip, the Belgian officer then ordered his soldiers to cut off their breasts.’ (Alfred Parminter interview by Reiters, 1896). Unlike most rulers of a second country, Leopold planned on the Congo making money for Belgium rather than the other way around. It was his chance to rule and explore this territory, which was unchartered by Europeans before this. Slave labour, road building and woodcutting for steamboats fuelled the economy of the Congo in particular. Many rubber gatherers worked to their death, and many starved to death. Thousands of people were brutally murdered by soldiers. During Leopold’s 23-year rule, millions of Congolese people died from exhaustion, rebellion or starvation.

According to an article on ‘allthingsinteresting.com, Leopold’s ‘success’ by massacre was achieved was achieved by his alliances with local powers such as chiefs and his creation of the ‘Force Publique’ a group of occupiers which destroyed and depopulated villages to allow space for ‘cash crop.’ (www.allthingsinteresting.com- Why King Leopold II should be remembered alongside Hitler). In my opinion one of the biggest and most obvious reasons behind how he kept his atrocities hidden from other countries for so many years, was his ‘humanitarian act’. During this time people were working tirelessly to abolish slave labour. With Leopold’s act of being a saviour, his fellow European delegates believed his honesty in his pledge to introduce religion and civilisation to the ‘Savage’ people of the Congo.
Young Cleopatra

Author: Michelle Mulkerrin, 5th Year Student, Clifden Community School

Cleopatra VII Philopater was the last active pharaoh of Egypt and her death brought Egypt under control of Rome. Her life and death have been dramatised for centuries, from the play Antony and Cleopatra written by Shakespeare in the 17th century, Elizabeth Taylor’s portrayal in the movie Cleopatra in 1963, to her depiction in Ubisoft’s 2017 video game Assassin’s Creed: Origins. We have seen her as an ambitious, ruthless ruler interested only in maintaining power or an arrogant seductress whose downfall was the fault of her promiscuity and pride. It is possible we have gotten these ideas from her contemporaries. Cicero proclaimed in a speech c. 43 BC that: “Her way of walking... her clothes, her free way of talking, her embraces and kisses, her beach-parties and dinner-parties, all show her to be a tart” (www.spartacus-educational.com) and in his poem Ode XXXVII, Horace described Cleopatra’s defeat at Actium, c. 35 BC: “She and her plotting gang, diseased and vile, went mad with heady dreams of baseless pride” (www.spartacus-educational.com). To say that our opinion of the last Ptolemaic ruler has not been kind may be a slight understatement, but one must remember that Cicero didn’t like Antony and by extension Cleopatra. Horace lived in Rome, which was under the rule of Gaius Octavius Thurinus (Octavian) who would later be called Augustus and become the first emperor of the Roman empire. Their accounts are by no means unbiased.

Cleopatra was born in 69 BC. Unfortunately, we don’t know the exact date of her birth, which may be fitting considering we know so few definite facts of her early life in general. Her father was Ptolemy XII Neos Dionysos Theos Philopator Theos Philadelphos (Auletes) and she had four siblings, older sister (Berenice IV Epiphaneia) and three younger siblings (Arsinoë IV, Ptolemy XIII Theos Philopator and Ptolemy XIV). Auletes married his sister or half-sister Cleopatra V Tryphaena who is presumed to be the mother of Cleopatra VII. She disappears from records after Cleopatra’s birth and so it is possible that her younger siblings were half-siblings. She was a member of the Ptolemaic dynasty that had ruled Egypt since the death of Alexander the Great when his general Ptolemy I Soter took over as pharaoh and began 275 years of Ptolemaic rule. Pharaohs marrying family members was normal and the Macedonian rulers continued this tradition when they ruled, with pharaohs marrying their nieces and sisters.

Cleopatra was able to speak nine languages according to Plutarch and was the only Ptolemaic ruler to ever learn Egyptian, the language of her 7 million subjects. She was raised to rule and was taught how to speak well in public and in private, mastering the art of persuasion (S. Schiff, “Cleopatra: A Life”). She was one of the most well-educated women in antiquity, thanks in no small part to being raised in Alexandria, the home of the library of Alexandria where the greatest scholars of that time convened. It served her well in the future, she impressed Caesar with her wit and managed to secure the throne instead of her brother.
The Falklands War

Author: Noah Murray, 5th Year Student, Clifden Community School

The Falklands islands are located off the coast of Argentina. It is an unimpressive island with its main trade at the time being sheep and wool. It was a poor island with an elderly population. To understand why this war was started I will give a brief history of the island and the reason Argentina was obsessed with retaining it. In 1690 the islands were occupied and then named by British captain John Strong. In 1770 the British were moved out by Spanish troops who then too control of the islands. In 1810 the Spanish were overthrown by the Argentinians. In 1811 all Spanish settlements in the Malvinas (islands around Argentina) were withdrawn. The islands were left unoccupied until in 1820 Argentinians claimed the island and in 1826 established a settlement there. In 1831 after Argentinians had prevented American ships from hunting seals in the islands the Americans then destroyed the Argentinian force there and evicted the Argentinian people there.

In 1833 the Argentinians returned but were quickly evicted after a British warship landed her men and proclaimed sovereignty over the islands. This is when the present community started with the main settlement at Stanley harbour (Martin Middlebrook, “The Falklands War”). The Argentinians had made numerous claims on the islands but never attacked until 1982. The decision was made by three men President Leopold Galtieri, Admiral Jeorge Anaya and Senior Constantino Davidoff. The reason they decided to invade was because at the time struggling economically and politically. They had falling industrial outputs, falling wages, rising unemployment and President Galtieri felt the only way to get people back on his side was to reclaim the Malvinas. Many people backed this move (Martin Middlebrook, "The Falklands War"). The Argentinians began making moves which alerted the small British forces and they began preparing for an invasion. When the Argentinian forces arrived the British resisted for a day or so but surrendered to prevent casualties.

The Argentinian flag was raised and they claimed sovereignty over the islands. The Argentinians were hoping for the British not to respond but were surprised by how quickly the British forces arrived (Martin Middlebrook, The Falklands War). This was because the British had received the news of the invasion force coming and had already sent ships stationed in Gibraltar to got to the islands. When the news that Argentina had taken over the British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher authorised forces to be sent to fight the Argentinians away. Once the British forces arrived they began planning their attack. There was dogfights and bombings on both sides with the British losing the Sheffield and Atlantic Conveyor ships and the Argentinians losing the Belgrano. With the invasion force ready the British troops landed in Port San Carlos and from there moved quickly capturing major points along the way. The main British goal was to capture Port Stanley which after they won battles at key points such as Darwin and Goose Green was surrendered to them by the Argentinians who were morally broken by that time (Martin Middlebrook, The Falklands War). With the battle Brigadier-General Menendez contacted Galtieri saying how the situation was hopeless and suggested a surrender. Galtieri refused this but on the 14th of June Menendez agreed to the surrender which ended the war.
Anne Frank

Author: Shauna Conroy, 5th Year Student, Clifden Community School

Annelies Marie Frank was born in Frankfurt, Germany on the 12th of June 1929. Her parent’s names were Otto and Edith and she had an older sister called Margot. In 1933 the Frank family emigrated to Amsterdam, where Otto had owned a jam-making company called Okepta. Anne and Margot were enrolled to a Dutch school and began to learn the Dutch language. On September 1st 1939 World War 2 began and on May 10th 1940 Netherlands was invaded by Germany. Jewish schools were brought in and both Anne and Margot were forced to attend and drop out of their old school. On Anne’s 13th birthday she received a diary to which she called “kitty”. In this diary, Anne wrote about how her life from 12th of June 1942 to the 1st of August 1944. I used this diary as the main primary source. One day Margot received a call up to report from a so-called ‘labour camp’(annefrank.org). Otto and Edith immediately became suspicious and decided it was time to go into hiding.

The Secret Annex, as Anne called it, was part of Otto’s office building. The main door to the Annex was covered by a bookcase. Miep Gies and her husband were the Dutch people to help the Frank family by bringing them food and other necessities. In the Annex, there was more than just the Frank family. There was one other family called the Van Pels/Van Daan which consisted of Hermann, Auguste and their son Peter. One other man called Fritz Pfeffer also stayed there and shared a room with Anne. The Frank family up and left their house on the 6th of July 1942 only packing the essentials, which for Anne was - curlers, handkerchiefs, school books, comb and letters (A.Frank, “The Diary of a Young Girl”, page 20). They wore several layers of clothes instead of packing them. Most of their furniture had been taken over in the days previous. The windows were covered by stitched scraps of fabric. The Van Daans arrived on the 13th of July and Fritz arrived in November the same year. One of the things Anne said in her diary was “its the silence that makes me so nervous during the evenings and nights.” (A.Frank, pg 27)

In her diary, Anne talked about all the new laws against Jews in the Netherlands. They were forced to wear yellow stars and turn in their bikes. They were completely forbidden to use public transport such as trams. They could only do the shopping between 3-5pm and go to Jewish barbers/beauty salons. Jews couldn’t be on the street after 8 pm and 6 am. They can’t go to theatres, cinemas or other forms of entertainment. Couldn’t use tennis courts, pools, hockey fields or any other athletic fields. They couldn’t go rowing or take part in public athletic activities. And most important of all Jews couldn’t visit Christians (A. Frank, pg 8)

Anne was inspired to rewrite her diary when the Minister of Education, Gerrit Bolkinstein, in the Dutch government, in England, made an appeal to hold onto war diaries (annefrank.org and A. Frank, pg v in foreword). That is how we have the information today. Miep Gies (15th February 1909 - 11th January 2010) was the last surviving member of the group of five non Jewish people who concealed eight Jews from the Nazis in the Secret Annex above this Amsterdam office for more than two years. Miep supplied the Jews with provisions, including paper for Anne’s diary (Britannica.com). She rescued Anne’s diary and returned it to Otto, who was the only survivor out of the eight hidden Jews. When Otto Frank died he willed his daughters diary to the Netherlands State Institute for War Documentation in Amsterdam.
Glenamaddy Community School

GLENAMADDY
COMMUNITY SCHOOL
AR AGHAIDH LE CHÉILE
Primo Levi: One in Eleven Million

Author: Amy Caulfield, 5th Year Student, Glenamaddy Community School

In 1933 nine million Jews lived in the 21 countries of Europe that would be occupied by Germany during World War II. By 1945, the heartless, acrimonious ruler of the Nazis, Adolf Hitler, had been successful in his mass extermination of the Jewish community. It is estimated that 11 million people were killed during the Holocaust, six million of those Jews. Despite this mass execution of innocent people, some traumatised people managed to survive the cold, miserable, conditions of the concentration camps. One such man was Primo Levi.

Primo was born in Turin Italy on July 31st, 1919 to middle class, Italian-Jewish parents, (S1). From a young age it was clear that Primo would be intelligent and he developed a keen interest in chemistry. Levi, despite being Jewish, was able to complete his studies, and in 1941 he graduated with honors in chemistry. But prejudice followed Levi into his professional life and the qualification “Of Jewish Race” that was printed on his diploma initially prevented him from finding work, (S1). When he returned to his family in 1942, he discovered that his father had died and found his mother and sister hiding in an attempt to avoid being captured by the Nazis, (S1).

In 1943, Levi and his family fled to northern Italy, where he joined an Italian resistance group. However, to his misfortune, he was captured by the Fascist Militia on the 13th December 1943, (S2). Levi admitted he was a Jew to avoid being shot as a partisan and was sent to an Italian prison camp in January 1944. Though he was treated relatively well there, the camp soon came under German control and Levi was deported to Auschwitz, (S1). Levi travelled to Auschwitz by rail in a crammed carriage full of starving, dehydrated prisoners. In February 1944, Levi arrived at Auschwitz concentration camp and was stripped immediately from his belongings, including his clothes. Primo’s number was 174517 which was tattooed on his arm, (S2). The Germans treated the Jewish community with disrespect and cruelty. Regardless of how hard and tiring the labour was, Primo always obeyed the German guards’ orders because he knew the consequences would be brutal leading to a serious beating or death.

On the 27th of January 1945, the Russian Red Army liberated Auschwitz and rescued the survivors who had been left to die, (S1). Of the more than 7,000 Italian Jews who had been deported to concentration camps during the war, Levi was among the fewer than 700 who survived, (S1).

Once he returned to Turin, he found work in a paint factory. However, his time in Auschwitz left him with a desire to share his remarkable story with the world and thus he began to work. Levi spent 2 years completing his first book, ‘If This Is A Man’, but was a failure, (S1). He decided to focus on his future and married Lucia Morpurgo, with whom he would have two children, and working briefly as a chemical consultant before returning to a position at a paint factory, (S1). However, his urge to share his story of his time he spent in Auschwitz was still there and he decided to educate the world of his history through memoirs, poems, short stories and fiction. He chanced his luck and in 1958 he published a new edition of ‘If This Is A Man’ which was a success with the public. He also published ‘The Truce’ and ‘The Periodic Table’. On the 11th of April 1987, Primo was found dead at the bottom of the stair well in the apartment which he lived most of his life in, (S1). It is said that the cause of death was suicide due to the suffering he had to live with from his traumatic experience in Auschwitz. (S1) https://www.biography.com/people/primo-levi-9380562 (S2) ‘If This Is A Man’, Primo Levi, published 1947
Not the victory of might, but the vindication of right

Author: Andrew King, 5th Year Student, Glenamaddy Community School

During the Cuban Missile Crisis October 1962, leaders of the U.S. and the Soviet Union engaged in a tense, 13-day political and military standoff over the installation of nuclear armed Soviet missiles on Cuba, just 90 miles from U.S. shores. Following this news, many people feared the world was on the brink of nuclear war. However, disaster was avoided when the U.S. agreed to Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev’s offer to remove the Cuban missiles in exchange for the U.S. promising not to invade Cuba. Kennedy also secretly agreed to remove U.S. missiles from Turkey. (2)

After seizing power in the Caribbean island nation of Cuba in 1959, revolutionary leader Fidel Castro aligned himself with the Soviet Union. Under Castro, Cuba grew dependent on the Soviets for military and economic aid.

John F Kennedy felt that the urgency of the situation came from the fact that the nuclear armed Cuban missiles were being installed so close to the U.S. mainland just 90 miles south of Florida. From that launch point, they were capable of quickly reaching targets in the eastern U.S. If allowed to become operational, the missiles would spark a potential World War III and have disastrous consequences. As a result, Kennedy gave a speech to the nation where he stated, “Our goal is not the victory of might, but the vindication of right— not peace at the expense of freedom, but both peace and freedom, here in this hemisphere, and, we hope, around the world. God willing, that goal will be achieved”. (1)

Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev had gambled on sending the missiles to Cuba with the specific goal of increasing his nation’s nuclear strike capability. The Soviets had long felt uneasy about the number of nuclear weapons that were targeted at them from sites in Western Europe and Turkey, and they saw the deployment of missiles in Cuba as a way to level the playing field. Another key factor in the Soviet missile scheme was the hostile relationship between the U.S. and Cuba. (4) America was suspicious of Soviet intentions and disliked the fact that there was a pro-Soviet communist state so close to them. In 1961, Kennedy agreed to a plan by the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) for an invasion of Cuba. The invasion force of 1500 Cuban exiles landed at the Bay of Pigs in southern Cuba. The Bay of Pigs was a disaster and only served to draw Castro closer to the Soviet Union and to increase his popularity within Cuba. (3)

Tensions came to a head between the 22nd and 28th October as 12 Soviet ships steamed towards Cuba. America placed its navy and air force on Defcon-2. Nuclear missiles were loaded into their launch pads, ready to be fired. Frantic negotiations between America and the Soviet Union took place and on the 28 of October as Soviet ships were within half an hours sailing time of the American blockade, Nikita Khrushchev ordered his ships to turn back. (2)

The outbreak of World War III was narrowly averted and was only a few orders away from resulting in a full-scale nuclear war that could have changed the world as we know it today. Measures were put in place to prevent such future events from happening. The following year, a direct “hot line” communication link was installed between the White House and the Kremlin in Moscow to help defuse similar situations, and the superpowers signed a Test Ban Treaty which meant that the testing of nuclear bombs in the atmosphere was forbidden. (1)

www.jfklibrary.org(1)
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One Man’s Mission

Author: Deirdre Croghan, 5th Year Student, Glenamaddy Community School

In 1946, Edward Flanagan, returned from America to visit his home country of Ireland. He was on a mission to learn more about the Irish juvenile penal system and Irish industrial schools. He also wished to put forward his revolutionary childcare philosophies to the Irish government. Edward Joseph Flanagan was born near the small village of Ballymoe, on the Roscommon Galway border on July 13th, 1886. In 1904, Edward emigrated to America and he was ordained a priest in 1912. His initial work was with homeless men on the streets of Omaha, Nebraska. In 1917, he opened a home for homeless boys and those who were destined for prison and gave them a second chance. This was the start of what would become the world-famous Boys Town, which still thrives today and helps millions of America’s struggling children. For the next 35 years Father Flanagan continued to expand his home and he transformed the lives of thousands of young boys. In spring 1946, Father Flanagan turned his thoughts to a return home to Ireland. On previous visits home, Father Flanagan had heard about the penal nature of the industrial schools in Ireland, and he had visited the ones in Artane, Dublin and St Joseph’s in Letterfrack, Galway. He was shocked by the conditions in these schools and believed that the children there were too institutionalised to allow for the development of individual personality and character. He was very alarmed by the fact that no authoritative figures, in either the Church or State, believed that the horrific treatment of children in their industrial schools was unusual or wrong, (S1).

In June 1946, Father Flanagan arrived in Ireland. His first visit was to Belfast, where he attended events and visited Milltown Industrial School. He was appalled at the conditions there and later remarked, “Reform schools have nothing to offer in the line of reform. It is detention and punishment all the time.”, (S1). Father Flanagan reiterated in his public addresses that his wish was to help free Irish children from the cruelty of industrial schools and bring Boys Town to Ireland. However, his comments caused great discomfort to the Catholic Church hierarchy who ran the institutions, and to the government who were responsible for them. They knew that he threatened to expose the huge Church and State cover-up of the true conditions of their institutions, (S1). Even though many bishops, priests and government members attended his speeches throughout the country, Father Flanagan was angered by their silence on the issue of the treatment of children in their institutions. This spurred him on to talk more boldly, “A child cannot be reformed by lock and key and bars, and fear will never develop a child’s character.”, (S2). Father Flanagan held private meetings with a number of Irish bishops, as well as Sean O’ Kelly, the President, and the Taoiseach, Éamon de Valera. However, it became clear to him that none of them saw any reason to change the dreadful system that was in place. He left Ireland with a feeling of great disappointment but a determination to return. Upon his arrival back in America, Father Flanagan continued his condemnation of the industrial schools in Ireland. He told the New York Times, “…Flogging and other forms of physical punishment wound the sense of dignity which attaches to the self…the boy comes to look upon society as his enemy. His urge is to fight back, not to reform…”, (S2). The response from Ireland was shocking. Minister of Justice, Gerry Boland, blasted Father Flanagan's use of “offensive and intemperate language concerning conditions about which he has no first-hand knowledge…”, (S1).
The response from Ireland was shocking. Minister of Justice, Gerry Boland, blasted Father Flanagan’s use of “offensive and intemperate language concerning conditions about which he has no first-hand knowledge…”, (S1). Father Flanagan responded to Boland saying, “I visited the Borstal in Belfast, and prisons and reform schools in Dublin…I also talked with people who gave me first-hand information of existing conditions to supplement my own observations…”, (S1). Father Flanagan intended to return to Ireland again soon to continue his mission of change. However, his plans for a return trip were put on hold when he received an invitation from General Douglas MacArthur to take a trip to the Far East. Then, upon President Harry Truman’s request, Father Flanagan travelled to Europe to visit war orphans. On this trip, Father Flanagan took ill suddenly in Berlin, Germany. He died on May 15th, 1948, at the age of 61. Father Flanagan never returned to Ireland to continue his mission of change. It was not until the 1999 Commission into the Child Abuse of the Irish Government was published, that a light was shone on the sheer scale and horror of the abuse in Ireland’s industrial schools. In the report, the schools at Artane and Letterfrack, both by which Father Flanagan was particularly horrified, were said to be among the most ruthless and abusive, (S1). There is no doubt that if Father Flanagan’s ideas and philosophies were listened to by the Irish Church and State in 1946, and if he had returned to Ireland as he so desperately had wished to, hundreds of thousands of innocent Irish children could have been saved from years of abuse and a lifetime of emotional turmoil.

S1: Legacy of Devotion – Father Edward J. Flanagan of Boys Town, by Father Clifford J. Stevens (Boys Town Press, 2019)
S2: Father Flanagan of Boys Town – A Man of Vision, by Hugh Reilly and Kevin Warneke (Boys Town Press, 2008)
Leonid Semenovich Rogovoy is my great grandfather through marriage, who fought valorously in World War II for the Soviet Union from 1943-1945. He was just 18 when the Great Patriotic War began on the 22nd June 1941. (1)

Leonid’s mother was the regional director of the Communist Party in Mogilev, Belarus, which was one of the first places the Nazis were expected to attack. She was also Jewish, so when the war broke out she was among the first of the officials to be evacuated to the Urals, having no time to send a message to her son who was holidaying in Moscow. Leonid returned home to find that his mother was gone, and while he was searching for her, a brutal fate befell his sister. (1)

Leonid’s sister was in hiding with some relatives that same summer, but a neighbour gave up her identity to the Nazis when they occupied the region (now Bryansk, Russia) in September 1941. German soldiers burned the Star of David onto her chest and drowned her in a well for her ‘crimes’. (1)

It was shortly after this that Leonid found his mother and lived with her until he was called to the Red Army. He enlisted as a cadet in the Cherkasy Infantry School, which he graduated from in April 1943. He fought in numerous battles and was wounded three times

Leonid was noted for his bravery and strong leadership of his platoon. On the 30th of November 1943, the Soviets fought against German invaders under heavy mortar and machine-gun fire for ‘Balka Shirokaya’, north of the Dnipropetrovsk region in Ukraine. Leonid was the first to raise his platoon to break though the German defence, destroying 18 Nazis and driving the enemy further West. For his leadership in battle, causing the enemy losses and his personal bravery and initiative, Comrade Rogovoy received the Order of the Red Star. (2)

He also received the Order of the Patriotic War 2nd Class when his company was yet again the first to rise in Poland in 1944. They cleared minefields, and broke into the enemy’s trenches where a fierce battle ensued. His skilful organisation of his company was extraordinary. He showcased his ability to lead the fight and enriched his soldiers with his energy and fearlessness. (2) Although Leonid was seriously wounded, he continued to fight until the end of the battle. In my opinion, his being Jewish possibly contributed to his stalwart performance on the battlefield.

He admitted in later years that, yes, he was brave, but he wouldn’t have been nearly so valiant if he hadn’t downed 100g of vodka to work up the nerve to leave the safety of the trenches. (1) Rows upon rows of terrified Russian boys unscrewed the caps of their flasks filled with vodka and when they drank it, suddenly they weren’t so scared. These boy soldiers drew courage from 100g of vodka, and when they ran at enemy fire shouting ‘For Stalin and the Motherland’, some of them had Leonid Semenovich Rogovoy leading them, and that made all the difference.

Every year after the war on Victory Day, Leonid sat with his fellow veterans and drank 100g of vodka in memory of those boys he couldn’t bring home safe. Leonid died in 2017 aged 94.

(1); Original oral account of Leonid’s experiences prior and during WWII.
(2); http://www.podvig-naroda.ru/?#id=30612974&tab=navDetailManAward
My great grandfather, Henry McKeown, was involved in the build-up to the War of Independence and the Civil War in Northern Ireland. Henry was born in May 1893, the son of James and Mary McKeown and grew up with nine other siblings in Ballymulderg-Beg in Co. Monaghan. Henry was a strong campaigner against conscription was actively involved in the anti-conscription crisis led by Eoin MacNeill in 1917. As a result, Henry was targeted by the RIC. On Sunday the 7th of May 1922, a few days before the shooting, a local taxi man, Tommy O'Neill, who transported IRA members regularly, came across a checkpoint close to the McKeown farmhouse. It was clear the RIC were on McKeown’s trail. He warned Henry and he told him that they were dragged out of the car and beaten. The next day Henry travelled to Dundalk with senior IRA members. The raid on the McKeown farmhouse occurred a few nights after Henry had left. Everyone was in bed after their days work and at around 2:30 am a group of men arrived banging at the door. The men were all armed, had cloths to cover their faces and wore peaked hats which were like police caps. The boys of the house, James, Thomas and Francis were ordered downstairs and were lined up against the fireplace. The raiders opened fire and shot the three brothers who all fell to the ground. The raiders continued to fire at the brothers. James was fired at seven times with one bullet hitting him in the heart and killing him. Francis was shot sixteen times and Thomas was fired at eight times. Thomas’s baby finger was also blown off. There were about forty rounds of bullets fired with some missing the brothers. The raiders left the house believing they had killed the three brothers. Their parents, James and Mary, who were over seventy years of age, witnessed this horrible event from the stairs. The sisters ran to the neighbours for help. The blood of the brothers was everywhere. The boys were in terrible pain crying out for a doctor. John O’Kane’s heroic effort to get a doctor was vital to saving Thomas and Francis’ lives. This was extremely courageous as there was a curfew during this time. The local priest described the scene as “horrific”.

Henry discovered the death of his brother James and about the raid on his home while reading the Irish Independent the following day. He set off for home and attended his brother’s funeral but was on the run and couldn’t stay. The impact on the family was shocking and they were so fearful another raid would occur in their house that James Snr slept outside in a hedge. All the farm work was left to the daughters and their other two brothers that lived nearby. Unfortunately, the raids did continue, but this time at the hospital where Francis and Thomas were recuperating. This raid was called the ‘Belfast Pogrom’ and involved the B-Specials firing for forty-five minutes at the Mater Hospital. The RIC were trying to send a clear message to Henry by using his brothers as bait to help bring him in. This attack traumatized the brothers and on Thomas’ discharge from hospital he joined the IRA forces. No one was safe during these times of fear. The RIC targeted any relations or friends of those they wanted dead to show that they were in control. Terror was used frequently during these times so people could get what they wanted, it was just as simple as Bang! And their lives were gone.

Source: Deep Roots in County Derry, Noel McKeown, 2018
The Rock

Author: Emily Tarmey, 5th Year Student, Glenamaddy Community School

The Rock, no unfortunately I’m not talking about Dwayne Johnston, but rather the infamous Alcatraz prison. One of the world’s most famous and historical federal prisons located on the sharp, bitter waters of San Francisco bay, it accommodated both ruthless and merciless convicts from 1934 to 1963. The most controversial question of the prison is who escaped Alcatraz? Overall 32 prisoners tried to escape; 23 were caught, 4 were shot and killed and 2 drowned. But three men, brothers Clarence and John Anglin, along with Frank Morris, were never found. What was the profound fate of these three men?

The American army built a fort in 1859 in order to protect San Francisco in the Civil War, but in 1934 it was opened as a military prison. During the 1930’s, gangster crime rose due to the great depression. One familiar prisoner, Al Capone, who ended up in Alcatraz, is best known for his crimes in this era, especially tax evasion.

Although people believed that Alcatraz was one of the most brutal prisons, in fact it’s methods were less harsh than those used in other prisons around America at this time, (S1). Environmental torture was used which allowed the harsh winds from the Pacific Ocean to penetrate through the air vents of the dungeon rooms. The prisoners tried to protect themselves by placing toilet paper over the vents. One of the prisoners, Alvin Karpis, once told the story of an officer who would turn on the air conditioning every night in spite of the prisoners, (S1). Each prisoner who faced the conditions of Alcatraz prison had a passing thought of escaping at one moment or another. Although many attempts were pursued the most famous escape never received true closure.

For its time, the infamous attempted escape of 1962 was incredibly advanced. Frank Morris was known as the genius behind this great escape. The disappearance of the trio was seen as enthralling, as Alcatraz was known as inescapable. The escapees made paper mâché heads out of materials they got their hands on within the prison. ‘The decoy heads were made of soap, they were made of wax, they were made of plaster’- John Bennett, Special Agent in charge of the FBI’s San Francisco field office. The three placed these constructed heads into their beds on the night of June 11th, 1962 to fool the guards that they were in bed. Nine hours passed until any guards realized the trio was missing and federal authorities as well as the U.S military were informed. An intense manhunt began but time was not on their side, (S2).

Whilst John and Clarence Anglin were reportedly said to have ‘drowned’, their mother received anonymous flowers every Mother’s Day until her death. It was also reported that two tall-unidentified women with very heavy make up attended her funeral, (S3).
Theories and speculation have travelled around the globe for years wondering if these three men did escape. A letter that came to light in 2013, allegedly written by John Anglin, was sent to the San Francisco police the same year. The letter states ‘My name is John Anglin. I escape from Alcatraz with my brother Clarence and Frank Morris. I’m 83 years old and in bad shape’. Perhaps this letter was a hoax or maybe it was Anglin. Numerous people have gone to the trouble of proving that the men could have survived. The FBI’s investigation concluded at the time that is was implausible. The strong currents from the bay were firmly inimical to these men. According to prison informants the trio planned to steal clothes and a car once they had reached land, but the FBI never discovered any robberies. According to US vaults by FBI a ‘rear view of paddle found off shore of Angel Island’ contained brass bolts, which were the same bolts used in work areas above the cells in prison, (S4).

The FBI officially drew the case to a close on December 31st, 1979 with no further leads. Although the Rock closed down in 1963 due to it being the most expensive prison in the US, maybe the great escape had something to do with it. Although this attempt does not prove it was a clean escape, these three prisoners technically escaped the prison grounds, meaning they escaped the island of Alcatraz no matter what happened next.

Sources:
S1) www.notfrisco2.com
(S2) www.Britannica.com
(S3) The Anniston Star, p.9, Sunday 5th December 1993
(S4) www.vault.fbi.gov
History on my Doorstep

Author: Joshua Gemmell, 5th Year Student, Glenamaddy Community School

They say that charity begins at home, but for me history also begins at home. I am from a small rural town in east Galway called Glenamaddy. There are a few historic sites. One such structure is the Glenamaddy Union Workhouse. The Glenamaddy Union Work House was designed by George Wilkinson who was an architect for the Poor Law Commissioners. The original workhouse was built in 1850 but reconfigured and opened in 1853. Construction costs were around £5,250, with an additional £900 for interior fixtures and could accommodate 500 people. In 1838 a law called the Poor Law Act was introduced and brought about the workhouses, run by a board of trustees and catholic nuns. They were institutions where the sick, poor and destitute would receive care, food and board. Ireland was struck by the famine in 1845 and people had no alternative but to seek assistance here. Workhouse life was not easy. Overcrowding, sanitation, disease, physical work, discipline and living standards were far below anything people had experienced before. The government thought, that once they opened the workhouses, people would flock to them. Therefore, life was deliberately designed to be very difficult in there. Men, women and children were kept in separate blocks. Married couples were separated from each other and their children. Everyone was expected to do some form of work, even the old and the sick, (S1).

Life in the workhouse was well regulated and disciplined. They got up at 7am and dressed in old clothes and shoes. Everyone ate in a big dining room and early morning prayers were said. They were then inspected for cleanliness and were given a plate and a mug made out of tin. Breakfast was always porridge and milk. Everyone ate in silence as anyone who was found to be making noise would be removed and disciplined. After breakfast everyone was sent to work.

The law of the workhouse was that no one should be idle at any time. The work included breaking stones, farm work, building stonewalls and any manual work involving the upkeep of the workhouse itself. Women looked after the washing, mended the clothes, looked after the children and attended to the inside care of the workhouse. Nobody received payment for the work. Dinner was usually in the evening and consisted of potatoes, bread and soup. Visitors were allowed in the workhouse, but all visits had to be supervised by the Master or Matron.

By the late 1800s, the Glenamaddy Workhouse was run by The Bon Secours Sisters, a nursing order from Dublin. The hospital wing was used for the very ill and as a home for children who had become orphaned. It is said that the nuns brought changes to the workhouse and a bit of joy came with them. They looked after children well and sent baskets of food to the Glenamaddy School every day for the children, (S2).

Many workhouses, including Glenamaddy, closed in the late 19th century as the numbers entering into the system fell as people opted for emigration. Some of the workhouses were intentionally destroyed by fighters in the early 1920s in case they would be used as barracks by enemy troops as was the case in Glenamaddy, (S3).
Cont’d

Glenamaddy has gone on to developed over the years, but the workhouse site on the outskirts of the village will stay forever as a reminder of times when life was very tough and very difficult for those who lived before us.

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(S2) https://www.glenamaddyheritage.com/?s=workhouse

(S3) https://www.thejournal.ie/what-has-happened-to-irelands-workhouses-543156Aug2012/
The Driver of the Getaway Car
Author: Kate McGann, 5th Year Student, Glenamaddy Community School

2019 marks the centenary of the beginning of the brief, but bloody, War of Independence in Ireland. This was a guerrilla war fought between the IRA and the British forces. This event would have many substantial consequences on the future history of Ireland. Between 1879 and 1918 Connacht was the most politically active province. This political activity was well reflected in the parishes around Kilkerrin and in the lives of ordinary men. Many men in my locality fought in the war. One such man was John Wade who was born on 06/05/1901, in Kilkerrin, Ballinasloe, Co. Galway. Home Rule which granted Ireland limited independence was passed by the British Parliament in 1912 and was meant to become law in 1914. The Ulster Volunteer Force was formed in January 1913 to resist Home Rule by force if necessary. In response to this, Eoin MacNeill founded The Irish Volunteers and by 1914 thousands of men had joined them. Many branches of the volunteers sprang up around the country. John Wade joined the Springlawn Volunteers.

By this time however, the Springlawn IRB Circle had been in training for three years under James Haverty. The IRB was a secret oath bound society set up in 1858 by James Stephens whose aim was to gain full independence from the British. In 1910 James Haverty was sworn into the IRB in Athenry and he then set up an IRB circle in Springlawn, a rural village in North Galway a few miles from the market town of Mountbellew. The members of the circle drilled on the quiet roads around Springlawn. Local units in the Mountbellew and Ballygar areas were put on high alert. When John Wade joined, he was under the command of Seán Christy Lohan who was to become the leader of the Ballygar Company. Some volunteers like John who came from the Newbridge/Kilkerrin areas remained part of the Mountbellew Battalion.

In 1920, the British Government sent unemployed ex-soldiers, the ‘Black and Tans’, to Ireland to fight the IRA. The Black and Tans came to Ballygar and surrounding areas soon after their deployment to Ireland. This large-scale British presence made life very difficult for Volunteers in the area. John Wade had a car and drove the Volunteers on a regular basis to the train station in Woodlawn, to meetings around the country and took part in an incident known locally as the Killosolan incident. Towards the end of November 1920, several of the Springlawn Volunteers were arrested and interned in Galway Town Hall. John Wade was arrested outside a shop in Moylough in March 1921 and was sent to Ballykinlar Internment Camp in Co. Down. It had been opened in 1920 and over the following year more than 2000 men were interned there. Other Springlawn Volunteers were transferred from Galway Town Hall to Ballykinlar. They were brought by boat from Galway to Belfast docks, a journey which could take up to 4 days. They were then loaded into lorries and transported to Ballykinlar. Ballykinlar was divided into 2 compounds. The Springlawn men were held in Camp No.2.
By the time John Wade was released from Ballykinlar in 1922, the Treaty had been signed and the country was sliding towards civil war. Conflicting views emerged among the local companies. Many members of the Mountbellew and Ballygar companies refused to recognise the Treaty and favoured a return to war. John Wade initially sided with De Valera but changed sides after Michael Collins was assassinated in August 1922. John felt his life was in danger and so took the decision to emigrate to England. John returned to Ireland after World War II and remained here until after his death on 13th May 1989. He was awarded the Truce Commemoration Medal (also known as the Survivor’s Medal) on the 50th anniversary of the Truce in 1971 and was also awarded the service (1917-21) medal. Many of these men never told their stories, choosing instead to bring them to their graves. It is important to honour, preserve and record the story of people like John Wade, whose lives were shaped and defined by events during the War of Independence.

(1) The Connacht Tribune 26th March 1921
(2) Prisoners of War by Liam O’Duibhir
Esther Steinberg: An Irish victim of the Holocaust

Author: Nicole Griffin, 5th Year Student, Glenamaddy Community School

The Holocaust was one of the most drastic genocides to occur in our world to date. It refers to the deliberate murder of millions of Jews and other minorities between 1941-1945. In total, six million Jews were murdered during this time period, all due to their choice of faith. Would you have ever considered though, that one of these six million people lived in our own native country, Ireland? Didn't think so. This Irish citizen was known as Esther Steinberg.

Ettie, as she was affectionately known, was born on the 11th January 1914 to Czechoslovakian parents, Aaron Hirsch Steinberg and Bertha Roth. She was a young Jewish woman who grew up in Dublin. However, there is no distinct evidence to confirm whether she was born in Ireland or not. Some sources, such as Rivlin, suggest that she was born here, while others state that she was born in Veretsky in Czechoslovakia and moved from London to Ireland in 1926.

In 1937, Ettie eloped with Vogjeck Gluck, a Belgian man, and got married in Greenville Hall Synagogue in Dublin. Shortly after their marriage they moved to Antwerp, where Vogjeck’s family business was established. A year or more later, the Low Countries, which consisted of Belgium, The Netherlands and Luxembourg, came under threat by the Nazis. The couple fled to France where they hoped they would find safety. They settled in the country’s capital, Paris, where their son Leon was born on the 28th March 1939. In 1942, after moving from place to place for three long years, the family found themselves in a hotel in Toulouse. Coincidentally, at the same time, round-ups of Jews were taking place in the south of France. Back at home in Dublin, Ettie’s family became alarmed at this news and they tried desperately to save their daughter by getting her and her family back to Ireland. They successfully managed to retrieve three visas from the British Home Office in Belfast and sent them to Toulouse where the family of three were in hiding. Unfortunately, the family missed the opportunity to get home by the skin of their teeth, as they’d been captured on the 2nd September 1942, the day before the visas arrived. They were immediately put on a train to Auschwitz, the concentration camp in Poland, where Esther and her family would meet their death.

During the drastic train journey, Ettie wrote a postcard to her family and managed to throw it out the train window, in the hope that it would be picked up and sent home. Miraculously, it was picked up by chance and posted to Ireland. The message was cleverly coded to avoid the destruction of the postcard. She had written in this postcard: “Uncle Lechem, we did not find, but we found Uncle Tisha B’av”. This unusual sentence translated: we did not find plenty, but we found destruction, which showed that she was aware of what waited for her. Two days later, on the 4th September 1942, the family arrived in Auschwitz and were exterminated immediately alongside a thousand other Jews.

In conclusion, Ettie Steinberg’s tragic story is one of 1.6 million who died at Auschwitz alone, which was only one of the many concentration camps. This highlights how widely the horrors of the Holocaust were felt across Europe. I wanted to write about Ettie because she grew up only two hours away from me in Dublin. She is the only known Irish citizen who died during the Holocaust.
Day of Infamy

Author: Patrick Hession, 5th Year Student, Glenamaddy Community School

The Second World War engulfed virtually every part of the world with its terror during the years 1939-45. The conflict eventually pitted Germany, Japan, and Italy against the United States, Great Britain and the Soviet Union. The weak response of the European democracies to fascist aggression and American isolationism allowed the axis powers to gain the upper hand initially. The tide soon changed as a surprise attack on American soil by the Japanese led to one of the strongest industrial powers fighting on the allied side.

The Japanese Navy’s surprise attack on Pearl Harbour on Sunday, December 7th, 1941 is etched in the memories of generations of Americans and told many times through print and film. Seventy years ago, even as Japanese envoys to Washington were receiving last minute instructions from Tokyo for their meeting with the US Secretary of State, Japanese aircraft carriers and battleships stealthily moved into position in the Pacific northwest of Hawaii. Most of the U.S battleships in the Pacific were in port at Pearl Harbour, and U.S fighter planes were clustered together on the airfield making easy pickings for an enemy. A sighting of unidentified planes by radar station operators’ minutes before the attack was dismissed by an officer at the command centre headquarters, squandering valuable time that could have been spent preparing defences, (2).

An attack on Pearl Harbour as an opening move in a war between Japan and the United States was not a new or peculiar concept in Japanese military circles. The Japanese Navy had a tradition of opening wars with surprise attacks lacking a formal declaration of war. This tradition was exemplified by their attack on the Russian fleet at Port Arthur, delivered two days before formally declaring war on the Russians. The attack had been up in the air years before the Japanese military launched the covert blow on the American fleet. In 1927 Kaigun Daigakko, Japan’s naval staff college, rehearsed the attack on Pearl Harbour losing a carrier in the process. That same year lectures were presented by Lieutenant Commander Kusaka Ryunosuke on the topic of an aerial assault on Pearl Harbour. The following year Captain Yamamoto Isoroku stated during a lecture at the Navy Torpedo School that “in operations against America, we must take positive actions such as an invasion of Hawaii,”. The subject was examined anew in a 1936 Naval Staff College analysis titled “A study of Strategy and Tactics in Operations against the United States,”. The analysis suggested a surprise attack by the Japanese on American soil to initiate conflict, (2).

The attack was code named operation Z during its planning and later changed to operation AI and the Hawaiian operation. According to a consulting historian to the US Navy, “the attack was almost textbook perfect.”. Another remarked that the attack “had been almost perfect; like a flashing samurai sword.”. Others judged that it was “brilliantly conceived and meticulously planned.”, (1).

In conclusion the Japanese attack crippled nearly 20 American ships and over 300 airplanes. More importantly, the attack cost the lives of 2,403 sailors, soldiers and civilians with about 1,000 people wounded. The Japanese had failed to eliminate the bases most vital onshore facilities such as repair shops and ship yards, resulting in the U.S Navy being able to recover swiftly from the attack, (3).
Ali Goes 12 Round With The USA

Author: PJ Shanks, 5th Year Student, Glenamaddy Community School

Muhammed Ali was a world champion boxer born in Louisville, Kentucky, USA in January 1942. He is widely regarded as one of the greatest fighters of all time. He was born Cassius Clay but changed his name to Muhammed Ali because he saw the former as his slave name. He registered for conscription to the US military service on his 18th birthday. He was a believer of Islam which caused trouble later down the line.

Muhammed Ali was listed as class 1-A (1) in 1962 but later fell to 1-Y after failing the US Armed Forces qualifying test because his dyslexia caused his writing and spellings skills to be substandard. He claimed “I said I was the greatest, not the smartest.” (2) Not long after this though he was reclassified as 1-A. He was now eligible to be drafted and inducted into the US army during the time of the Vietnam War. With this, Ali refused to fight because he claimed it went against his religion and what he stood for. He wondered why he should have to go fight in the war in Vietnam when black people in his hometown of Louisville were being “treated like dogs.” (3)

In April 1967, Ali went to Houston for his induction into the US Armed Forces but refused to step forward three times when his name was called. An officer there said that a refusal to step forward was committing a crime which was punishable by 5 years in prison. He gave him one last chance to step forward but once again Ali stayed put. He was immediately arrested. On that day Mr. Ali was stripped of his boxing license by the New York State Athletic Commission and also lost his title. He was unable to receive a boxing license in any state in the US for another 3 years. (4)

He was soon forgiven by boxing commissions, regaining his boxing license in 1970 where he knocked out Jerry Quarry in the third round of his comeback fight. However, his road to legal freedom would take much longer.

At his trial for refusal to serve in 1967, he was found guilty in only 20 minutes. However, after a Court of Appeals stopped the conviction it was sent to be reviewed by the US Supreme Court. This guilty verdict was overturned here in an 8-0 unanimous decision. The reason being the court held that since the appeal board gave no reason for the denial of a conscientious objector exemption to Ali, and thus found no reason to hold him accountable

Muhammed Ali was willing to give up his fame and life for what he believed in. He inspired many people of race and of minority groups to follow suit in a refusal to serve. While he could be seen in a violent sense knocking out 37 men through his career, we see here his peaceful side, refusing to fight in the war at all costs. He would go on to have a career in politics and becoming a human rights activist.

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"Could do with some Whiskey"

Author: Quinlan Gannon, 5th Year Student, Glenamaddy Community School

The Siege of Jadotville was a battle that occurred during the “Congo Crisis” in September 1961. The "A" Company, 35th Battalion, which was an Irish unit led by Commandant Pat Quinlan, was attacked by Katangese mercenary troops loyal to the Katangese Prime Minister Tshombe.

In September 1961, U.N forces in Katanga launched a military offensive, which was code named Operation Morthor, against mercenary military units serving the State of Katanga, which had broken from the Congo in July 1960. The Irish troops had seemingly been sent there to assist in the protection of locals. But when they arrived at Jadotville, they were not welcomed by the local people, due to strong pro-Katangese and strong anti-UN feeling. The Katangese started a five-day battle when most of the Irish soldiers were going to openair Mass. Expecting them to be off guard, the first attackers moved in very quickly, but were spotted by a sentry. A warning shot by Private Billy Ready alerted the group to the attack. The attackers were estimated at 4,000 men, made up of Luba tribesmen and Belgian and French mercenaries armed with light and heavy artillery. They were supported by a jet that had machine guns attached to the underside of the wings. The Irish were supplied with only light personal weapons, very few machine guns and some 60mm mortars. The trapped Irish radioed headquarters stating, "We will hold out until our last bullet is spent. Could do with some whiskey".

The Katangese suffered heavy losses, with up to 300 dead. On the other hand, only five Irish soldiers were mildly wounded. Quinlan had no access to reinforcements, and due to his transport being destroyed by the mercenary’s jet, they couldn’t risk a breakout. Quinlan didn’t get any direction whatsoever from his superior officers, and the rebels were beginning to disobey the cease-fire. In the end, in a bad position, lacking any clear orders, no reinforcements, having no food or ammunition and being low on water, Quinlan surrendered to the Katangese rebels. They were held as hostages for almost a month. Even though the company had defeated a much larger enemy, the Irish Defence Forces did not openly acknowledge the battle. It was perceived as shameful that they had surrendered. Quinlan went on to eventually retire a full Colonel, but he never served overseas again. The officers that fought in the battle found it best for their career not to mention the incident. Apparently, Commandant Quinlan’s actions are used in military textbooks worldwide as the finest use of the perimeter defence.

Until the 2000’s, the Irish State did not recognize the Siege of Jadotville. After the incident none of the Irish soldiers received any decoration for their actions, even though Commandant Quinlan strongly requested that a number of his men be awarded the Military Medal for Gallantry for their actions during the battle. In 2016 the Irish government awarded a Presidential Unit Citation to "A" Company, the first in the State’s history.
The Manhattan Project.

Author: Robert Geoghegan, 5th Year Student, Glenamaddy Community School

Early in 1939, the world's scientific community discovered that German physicists had learned the secrets of splitting a uranium atom. Fears soon spread over the possibility of Nazi scientists utilizing that energy to produce a bomb capable of unspeakable destruction. Scientists, who fled Nazi persecution, and Enrico Fermi, who escaped Fascist Italy, were now living in the United States. They agreed that the President must be informed of the dangers of atomic technology in the hands of the Axis powers. Fermi travelled to Washington in March to express his concerns to government officials. (1)

But few shared his uneasiness. At first the research was based at only a few universities Columbia University, the University of Chicago and the University of California at Berkeley. A breakthrough occurred in December 1942 when Fermi led a group of physicists to produce the first controlled nuclear chain reaction under the grandstands of Stagg field at the University of Chicago. Nearly $2 billion had been spent on research and development of the atomic bomb. The Manhattan Project employed over 120,000 Americans. By the summer of 1945, Oppenheimer was ready to test the first bomb. On July 16, 1945, at trinity Site near Almongorodo, scientists of the Manhattan Project readied themselves to watch the detonation of the world's first atomic bomb. The device was affixed to a 100-foot tower and discharged just before dawn. No one was properly prepared for the result. (1)

A blinding flash visible for 200 miles lit up the morning sky. A mushroom cloud reached 40,000 feet, blowing out windows of civilian homes up to 100 miles away. When the cloud returned to earth it created a half-mile wide crater metamorphosing sand into glass. A bogus cover-up story was quickly released, explaining that a huge ammunition dump had just exploded in the desert. Soon word reached President Truman in Potsdam, Germany that the project was successful. The world had entered the nuclear age. (1)

Hiroshima was chosen as the primary target since it had remained largely untouched by bombing raids, and the bomb's effects could be clearly measured. While President Truman had hoped for a purely military target, some advisers believed that bombing an urban area might break the fighting will of the Japanese people. Hiroshima was a major port and a military headquarters, and therefore a strategic target. Also, visual bombing, rather than radar, would be used so that photographs of the damage could be taken. Since Hiroshima had not been seriously harmed by bombing raids. (2)

Hiroshima was in ruins. The T-bridge's barriers had been knocked awry; utility poles stood at odd angles, and familiar landmarks were gone or unrecognizable. Buildings—even strong modern structures—had suffered significant damage, some pushed off their foundations, some gutted by fire, and others utterly destroyed. Many steel and concrete buildings appeared intact at first glance, but their outer walls hid internal damage due to the downward pressure of the air burst. Cemeteries were uprooted, and churches had become rubble. (2)
The outbreak of the industrial revolution in Europe in the 19th century had a huge impact on society at the time. In Germany, industrialisation was late due to its division into many small states. The building of railways gave a definitive boost to expanding steel production and mechanical engineering. Due to Germany’s skilled work force and high reserves of capital, they took the lead in the second phase of industrialisation towards the end of the 19th century. Infrastructure improved greatly due to steel railways being built which were more durable than iron railways. However, all these triumphs were paralleled with poor working conditions and treatment of the working class. Strikes led to bloody conflicts with authorities, with many unions demanding fundamental social reforms. This poor treatment of the working class and the divide that existed between people of different backgrounds gave way to the writings of Karl Marx.

Born in Prussia in 1818, Marx was involved in politics from a young age through the Young Hegelians, a group of young intellectuals who came together to discuss the workings of Friedrich Hegel. Marx considered a career in academia but due to the government’s growing opposition to classical liberalism it was cut short. He began expressing his socialist views and developing an interest in economics while working for the radical newspaper Rheinische Zeitung. After moving to Paris to work, he became co-editor of a new radical leftist Parisian newspaper. He contributed two essays, one of which was titled “On the Jewish Question” which introduced his belief that the working class, or proletariat as he referred to them, were a revolutionary force and marked his embrace of communism. Upon meeting philosopher and socialist Friedrich Engels in August 1844, Marx adopted his idea that the proletariat would lead the revolution against the bourgeoisie to advance towards a socialist society. Engels wrote, “A class which bears all the disadvantages of the social order without enjoying its advantages… Who can demand that such a class respect this social order?”, (S3). During his time in Paris, Marx engaged in an intensive study of political economy and French socialists which would influence his work hugely in years to come, (S4). A rough idea of “Marxism” had begun forming by 1844. However, he had not yet written down details of his economic world view. Thus, Marx wrote The Economic and Philosophical Manuscripts which covered various topics such as his concept of alienated labour. Soon after writing the manuscripts, Marx realised they had been influenced by many inconsistent ideas of Ludwig Feuerbach. He recognised his need to move away from Feuerbach’s philosophy and towards historical materialism, the idea that society at any given point in time is ordered by the technology used in the process of production. Marx began to criticise philosophy for putting abstract reality above the physical world and decided that the world is changed not by ideas and theories but actual physical, material activity and practice.

Communism first came to life in Russia as communist philosophy began to develop in the early 19th Century. Their first step in progressing towards socialism and then on to communism was seizing power and destroying the tradition of czarist rule. The October
Cont’d

Revolution led by Bolshevik, Vladimir Lenin launched an almost bloodless coup d’état against the provisional government. Lenin disagreed with the provisional government made up of Russia’s bourgeois capitalist class and instead called for a government ruled by soldiers, peasants and workers. The Bolsheviks occupied government buildings and Lenin became dictator of the world’s first communist state, (S5). All in all, Marx’s Communist Manifesto was put to the test, yet it never reached completion. It worked in theory but when put into practice many issues came to the fore.

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The Sinking of the Bismarck

Author: Thomas Collins, 5th Year Student, Glenamaddy Community School

The Bismarck was a Nazi German battle ship named after chancellor Otto von Bismarck. The Bismarck was the first of two ships that were built for Germany’s Kriegsmarine. It was completed in August 1940 and started active service in February 1939. It was built in Hamburg by Blohm & Voss shipyard.

The main reason the British wanted to sink the Bismarck was because it had sunk the Royal Navy’s most prized possession, The Hood. The Bismarck sank this ship in the Denmark Strait on the 24th of May 1941. It was mostly luck that helped the Nazis to win this battle as ten minutes after the British opened fire, the Bismarck fired a shell which caused a massive explosion on the boat and subsequently sank the ship. Even though the Nazis won with battle it proved to be a win-lose situation as during the conflict the Bismarck suffered much damage to its fuel tanks. This made them race for the dry docks in occupied France for repairs and forced them into the Atlantic Ocean, (S1).

On the night of the 25th of May 1941 there was a wild goose chase between the Royal Navy and the Nazis. The British had lost contact with the Bismarck. It thought that the ship would return to Norway but later in the day the British had some luck when the Bismarck broke its radio silence and sent a message to Germany. This allowed the British to track down the location of the ship and hunt it down. In the battle a few days before, the rudder of the ship had been damaged. On the 26th of May the British dropped bombs on the ship from planes taking off from an aircraft carrier called the Ark Royal. These bombs jammed the steering in the ship and preventing her from escaping to France. The Bismarck was followed by the Royal Navy who waited for the order to pounce.

On the morning of the 27th, the Bismarck was attacked by the ships King George V and Rodney, who were supported by cruisers. The Bismarck was sunk by the combined effect of shell fire and being hit by a torpedo. The British ships began to withdraw but the Luftwaffe dropped bombs on the ships and this resulted in the loss of the HMS Mashona, (2).

It was important to sink the Bismarck because it would have attacked the ships coming from America to Britain with supplies of fire arms and fuel for Britain’s war effort. This was a must for Britain and it give them a major moral boost when it was confirmed as destroyed.
Coláiste Cholmcille

Eolas - Solas an tSaoil

Coláiste Cholmcille
Bhi roinnt smaointí agam faoi chartlainn sular thug mé cuairt ar an Ollscoil.

Údar: Aoife Ní Mháille, Coláiste Cholmcille

Ní dhearna mé Stair don Teastas Sóisearach mar sin d'fhoghlaím mé go leor faoi fhoinsí i mbliana agus an tábhacht a bhaineann leo ó thosaigh mé ag staidéar an Stair déanta suas de fhoinsí/bailiúchán foinis (cartlainn). Is cuma cén tréimhse Staire atá faoi chaibidil, tá sé bunaithe ar fhoinse de shaghas eigin - priomhúil nó tanaisteach. Fuair mé tuiscint níos fearr arís ar thábhacht foinis nuair a chuir mo mhúinteoir an Tuairisc ar an Staidéar Taighde in aithne dom cúpla mí sular thug mé cuairt ar an ollscoil. D'fhoghlaím mé conas an difríocht idir foinis priomhúil/tanaisteach a aithint. D'fhoghlaím mé conas foinis éagsúla a mheas/luacháil m.sh na láidreachtaí/laigeachtaí a bhaineann leo. D'fhoghlaím mé conas teacht ar fhoinsí éagsúla - leabhair, irisí, cláracha faisnéise, grianghraifeanna, nuachtáin, cartlainn mileata, suíomhanna greasáin srí. Nuair a roghnaithe an toipic don taighde rinne mé an cinneadh sa deireadh bunaithe ar an méid foinis díreach a bhí ar fáil don toipic. Tá éise sin tuigthe agam, foiní aimsithe agus eolas scagtha as na foinís seo sular thug mé cuairt ar an ollscoil.

The tension between Mary Queen of Scots and Queen Elizabeth 1542 – 1587

Aoife Ní Mháille, 5th Year Student, Coláiste Cholmcille

I chose the topic after being inspired by the film of the same title, Mary Queen of Scots was born in 1542 to King James V of Scotland and Mary of Guise, the only child of theirs who survived. Her father died in a war when she was six years old and she was then made Queen. When she was six years old she and her mother moved to France. When she was 15 years old she was married to the young French Prince, the Dauphin of France to strengthen the alliance against England. The prince died of disease after three years later. Then Mary went back to Scotland, when she was eighteen years of age. Her cousin was the Protestant Elizabeth, now Queen of England. When Henry died, his son Edward was King of England at the age of nine but he died after a few years. His sister Mary was only queen for five years because she was a Catholic in a Protestant country. Then Elizabeth was Queen of England from 1533-1603. The Catholics in England thought Elizabeth should not be queen because she was Protestant and that Mary, Queen of Scots (the second in line for the throne) should be the Queen of England as she was a Catholic. In 1565 Mary married her cousin, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, but Lord Darnley made many enemies in the Scottish court and was killed in 1567 after his house was burned. His body was found in the garden, it was thought that the fire had no connection with it. Then Mary married the Earl from Bothwell, even though it was thought that he had killed Darnley. The people turned on Mary because Bothwell had already been married and she fled to England to get help from Elizabeth. Elizabeth was not happy about this marriage because she did not give permission for it. Elizabeth ordered Mary be questioned about Darnley's death. Elizabeth thought that Mary wanted her crown so she put her in prison for nineteen years. Also when the Babington plot was discovered, that Mary was planning to kill Elizabeth to attain the crown of England for herself, Elizabeth signed Mary's death warrant – for her troubled cousin whom she had never. She wanted Mary to be killed in secret death Mary was killed in Fotheringhay Castle on the 8th February 1587 at the age of 44 years.

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Stair an Líne Smideadh M.A.C agus an t-éifeacht atá aige ar Dhomhan na h-Áilleachta Ó 1984 – 1990
Unad: Laura Nic an Ultaigh, Coláiste Cholmcille


Ar dtús chruthaigh siad na táirgí smideadh i gcistin agus dhiol siad iad le chomhghleacaithe a bhí ina nealaíontóirí smidéadh, le mainicíri agus grianhraitheadóirí. Tar éis tamall cheannagain lucht stíle agus eagarthóirí faisin na táirgí seo. Dá mho réalta móra a fuair baointeach le M.A.C is ea is coitianta a fuair sé. Tar éis tamall agus go leor moladh ar na táirgí in iriseabhair fuair a n-aithn níos mó, Lainséil an bheirt M.A.C i Márta 1984 ó chúntar i siopa ilrannach mór i Toronto. Ba brandáid don chraiceann go leor de na brandáid ag an am agus b’fhéidir éigir sheas M.A.C amach mar gur é ceann de na chéad bhrendaí é nach raibh bunaithe ar aine don chraiceann. Ceann de na béaladhanna ba bhochtaithe a bhí ag M.A.C ná béaladh dearg láidir a bhí á chaitheamh ag Madonna i ngrianhraid. D’ardaigh sé seo diolachán an táirge. Níos déanai bhi Madonna le feiceáil ag caithetheamh fhein M.A.C agus b’i an chéad réalt móir i a tharrfá áird ar an mbranda. Ceilíúraíonn an brandáid le foilseachadh agus indibhidiúlacht iad dirithe ar gach aois, gach cine agus gach inscne. Seo fáth eile go bhfuil siad chomh coitianta agus éileamh orthu i measc sean agus óg. D’fhobhair mé mo chuid scileanna taighde, ríomhaireachta agus eagarthóireachta ins an tuairisc seo agus fuair mé léargas ar ról an Staraí.
The History of the Make-up Line ‘M.A.C’ was conceived and its effect on the World of Beauty from 1984 to 1990
Údar: Laura Nic an Ultaigh, Coláiste Cholmcille

M.A.C is one of my favourite make-up lines and I would like to know what how it started and the progress it has made over the years. M.A.C is one of the most popular makeup lines on the market and a big stars like Mariah Carey, Ariana Grande, Cher and Rihanna worked with the brand. The quality of these make-up products is very high and many people find this make-up line very effective. M.A.C stands for Make-up Art Cosmetics. M.A.C is part of the Estee Lauder company since 1994. It can be found today in over 120 countries around the world. It is always trying to develop new products, and has over 50 collections each year, serving both consumers and professional make-up artists. There are well-known names from popular culture, the world of fashion and art associated with the brand eg Rihanna, Lorde, Proenza Schouler, The Rocky Horror Picture Show and Brooke Shields. These promote M.A.C products entice old and new fans. M.A.C make-up artists work behind the scenes at over 200 week-long fashion shows all over the world, working with people like Prabal Gurung to Vivienne Westwood, and this ensures that M.A.C.’s status to the forefront in the world of beauty. M.A.C originally started in Toronto, Canada. The makeup artist and photographer Frank Toskan and the beauty salon owner Frank Angelo were frustrated at lack of makeup that would look well in photos and so they decided to create their own make-up line.

At first they created the make-up products in a kitchen and sold them to fellow make-up artists, models and photographers. After a while, style and fashion editors bought these products. The more stars who bought M.A.C products the more successful it became, and after being praised in magazines there was more demand for the products. The two Franks launched M.A.C products in March 1984 in a large department store in Toronto. There were many skin brands available at the time but M.A.C stood out as one of the first brands that emphasised skin care. One of the most popular M.A.C. lipstick was a strong red one that Madonna was wore in photographs. This increased the sale of the product. Later Madonna was to be seen wearing a M.A.C t-shirt and she was the first big star to draw attention to the brand. The brand celebrates diversity and individuality aimed at all ages, all race and all genders. This is another reason why they are so popular among young and old.
Piracy as an Art of Survival for Gráinne Mhaoil 1530-1603

Author: Dualta Ó Coisdealbha, 5th Year Student, Coláiste Cholmcille

My research study report is based on how piracy was an act of survival for Gráinne Mhaoil (1530-1603). I decided to do my research on Gráinne Mhaoil because I am very interested in her life and her exploits as a pirate. Growing up I always heard stories of the amazing Gráinne Mhaoil, pirate queen of Connacht, and I would like to find the truth behind the legend. Gráinne Mhaoil is still well known to people today because of the song Óró, Sé do Bheatha Bhaile. Gráinne was born into the Clan O’Malley, a great seafaring family, in 1530. She was the only daughter of Eoghan Dubhdara O’Malley and Maeve Ní Mháille. She is commonly known by her nickname Granuaille or Gráinne Ní Mhaoil, a name that comes from the Irish for bald (maol). According to legend Gráinne, as a young girl, wanted to join her father on the sea and travel with him to Spain. Her mother disagreed saying she was a girl, not a sailor. Gráinne shaved off her hair to disguise herself as a boy. Her father gave in and so Gráinne got on board and became Gráinne Mhaoil. When her father died she inherited his large shipping and ‘trading business’ and became Queen of Umaill, chieftain of the Ó Máille clan.

Behind the myths of Grace O’Malley, pirate queen, icon of Ireland, stands Gráinne Ní Mháille, a proud and courageous woman, determined to ensure that she and her family received their rights. She earned and lost fortunes. Her enemies were those who sought to impoverish her or her children. She used every method at her disposal and had no compunction about bending the truth, as her enemies had none about bending the law. She exploited the ignorance of English officials, and took what she could, when she could. Ultimately, Gráinne Ní Mháille was a survivor who maintained the status of her family when the great earls had been forced into exile. Ann chambers, Granuaille: Ireland’s First Pirate Queen 1530-1603, Gill Books, Dublin (2003). I found this book from the internet and downloaded it onto my phone, it was very useful as it had a lot of good information and the language was very easy to read. M. Mac Curtain, Women in Early Modern Ireland & M.O’Dowd (editors) Wolfhound Press, Dublin (1991) I found this book in my local library, it was very relevant as it gives historically accurate information.

These books were extremely helpful in my research and they have really given me a greater understanding of Gráinne Mhaoil and the world she lived in. They also gave me the information that I needed to improve and continue my research study report. I also found many great websites that helped me: www.mayo-ireland.ie/en/about-mayo/history/grace-omalley-the-pirate-queen. My research skills have improved dramatically since starting this project and I have enjoyed the process greatly. I have already gained a better insight into the work of the Historian by completing this synopsis.
Auschwitz - The Maternity Ward

Author: Lauren Fahey, 5th Year Student, Coláiste Cholmcille

Auschwitz is a place we all associate with death. It was the biggest Nazi concentration camp during World War II, where an estimated 1.1 million people died during the period 1940-1945. However, among all the death and pain that occurred in this place, there was life, new life. This new life would not have been possible if it wasn't for the Polish midwife Stanisława Leszczyńska, who during her duration at this Nazi extermination camp delivered over 3000 babies safely. (2)

Stanisława Leszczyńska, born in Lodz, Poland, in 1896, led a very ordinary life before the war. She got married, had four children and studied to become a midwife, finally graduating in 1922. Her life changed when the Nazis invaded Poland in 1939. The Lodz Ghetto was established, which forced Stanisława and her family out of their home. Despite the struggle caused by losing their home, Stanisława and her family decided to help ghettoized Jews by delivering food and false documents. Unfortunately, Stanisława was caught red handed in 1943, and was interrogated along with her family by the Gestapo. After several weeks of interrogation, the family got separated. Stanisława and her daughter were sent to Auschwitz. Unlike many others who were sent to Auschwitz, these two women would not only survive, but bring new lives into the world in the most inhumane place the world had yet witnessed, (2).

Upon arriving at Auschwitz on April 17th, 1943, the Leszczyńska women had only one goal: to survive until the end of the war. Stanisława, with the aim of surviving, approached a German soldier and informed him about her midwifery skills. This very act would change history for the better. Luckily, he assigned her and her daughter to work in the camps so-called maternity ward, which consisted of a filthy barracks full of disease and lice. Stanisława later stated that “it was God’s providence that had sent her to Auschwitz” as the camp’s midwife was ill, which therefore opened the place she was to fill and perform her acts of good will, (1).

Many pregnant women at Auschwitz were sent straight to their deaths in the gas chambers, while some were sent to the “maternity ward” to wait out the rest of their pregnancy in squalid conditions. Stanisława was expected to deliver the babies and then declare them stillborn. She would then have to drown them in a bucket in front of the women who had just given birth. Stanisława was appalled by this request and refused, putting her life in danger. She was immediately brought to the German doctor who oversaw the entire camp for punishment. Astonishingly she was allowed to return to the maternity barracks where she would do her best to care for the pregnant women and their babies. Her son later stated, “why they did not kill her then, no one knows”. Stanisława worked in terrible conditions to save as many of the women’s lives as she could. There was no running water, insufficient amounts of blankets and food and a very poor level of hygiene, (2). During her struggle at Auschwitz, Stanisława delivered over 3000 babies who are thought to have all survived their birth. Despite her great work and continuous refusal to murder the babies, it is believed that over half of the babies born in Auschwitz were drowned, while 1000 died of starvation or disease. 500 babies were sent for adoption by German families as they were seen as possible “Aryan” children. Stanisława did her best to tattoo as many of these babies as possible in the hope that they might be reunited with their mothers someday.
Out of the 3000 babies only about 30 lived in the care of their mothers. Stanisława received the nickname “mother” as she cared so well for all her patients while struggling to live herself. After the camp was liberated she returned to Lodz where she was reunited with her children. She continued to be a midwife and passed away in 1974. Stanisława was nominated for sainthood in the Catholic Church for her selfless actions during the Holocaust. Thanks to this one woman, hundreds of women and babies lived to see the liberation of the biggest Nazi concentration camp of the Second World War, (3).

Sources:
McHale College Tuam
How Hitler used the 1936 Olympics as a propaganda tool?

Author: Aaron Kenny, 5th Year Student, McHale College Tuam

Adolf Hitler, who was not a sports fan, had been lukewarm toward the whole idea of hosting the 1936 Olympics. It had taken some effort by propaganda minister Joseph Goebbels to convince him that the Olympic festivities could be exploited to advance the Nazi cause both inside and outside of Germany. The games had been awarded to Germany by the international Olympics committee back in May 1931, before Hitler came to power. It was the second time the modern Olympics was scheduled to be held in Germany. Under Goebbels direction the Nazis intended to use the 1936 summer Olympics in Berlin as a showcase for the “new Germany”. The Nazis also hoped to profit from the tens of thousands of souvenir hungry tourists who would bring much needed foreign currency into the country. The choice signalled Germany’s return to the world community after its isolation in the aftermath of their defeat in World war one. Two years later, the Nazi party leader Adolf Hitler became chancellor of Germany and quickly turned the nation’s fragile democracy into a one party dictatorship that persecuted Jews, Roma Gypsies, all political opponents and others. The Nazis claimed to control all aspects of German life also extended to sports. In April 1933 an “Aryan only” policy was instituted in all German athletics organisations. “Non Aryans” - Jews or individuals with Jewish parents, Roma Gypsies were systematically excluded. The president of Germanys Olympic Committee Dr. Theodore Lewald was outnumbered due to his grandmother being a Jew. He was replaced by a higher up SA named Hans Von Tchammer Und Osteen. The German Boxing association expelled professional light heavyweight champion Erich Seelig in April 1933 because he was Jewish. Another Jewish athlete, Daniel Penn, Germany’s top ranked tennis player, was removed from Germanys Davis Cup team. Gretel Bergmann, a world class high jumper, was expelled from her German club in 1933 and from the German Olympic team in 1936.

In 1936 The Nazis made preparations for the summer games. The Nazis spent 42 million Reich marks building a 325-acre sports complex located about five miles west of Berlin. Berliners had been repeatedly told by the Nazi administration to create a good impression by making international tourists feel welcome. The resulting over-friendliness of normally gruff Nazi Brown shirts and SS men seemed amusing to those who knew them better, such a foreign journalist stationed in Berlin. Tourists entered a squeaky clean Berlin where all undesirable persons had been swept off the streets by police and sent to a special detention camp outside the city. Buildings everywhere were decorated with Olympic flags hung side-by-side with Nazi swastikas including all of the various facilities used for sporting competitions. The omnipresent ‘Jews Not Welcome’ signs normally seen throughout Germany were removed from hotels, restaurants and public places for the duration of the Olympics. Nazi storm troopers were also ordered to refrain from any actions against Jews. The virulent anti-Semitic newspaper published by Julius Streicher called Der stümer was even removed from newsstands.
Sources:
Primary source- propaganda film.
Olympia is a 1938 German documentary sports film written, directed and produced by Leni Riefenstahl, documenting the 1936 Summer Olympics, held in the Olympic Stadium in Berlin, Germany
A revolution of flowers and music

Author: clara O’Kennedy, 5th Year Student, McHale College Tuam

In 1974 on the night of the Eurovision, as the Portuguese entry took the stage, one may have expected the country to be hugging their screens with anticipation. But instead of being glued to their screen the people stormed the street, because there dictator was to be overthrown.

In the early years of the 1950 after the horror of world war two, most European countries decided to liberate their African colonies. All of these countries where liberated except for Angola, Mozambique, and Portuguese Guinea, the common thread between them, they were territories of Portugal.

Portugal fought many bloody conflicts with the people of these countries. Many young sent to senseless slaughter just to keep these colonies. Atrocities where undertaken by both sides in a bid for power. A horrifying example of some of the atrocities that occurred during this time was in Angola when native Angolan people butchered Portuguese settlers, including woman and children, on a remote plantation. Despite the United Nations best attempts to persuade Portugal to leave Angola, the Portuguese government instead retaliated by sending military troops to repress the Angolan people by burning their houses. The Portuguese damaged archers of thick tropical forest in an attempt to destroy the native people’s guerrilla tactics.

This senseless violence in the colonies leading to the blood of many of the countries young men and hundreds of native people being on the hand of the Portuguese dictator Marcello Caetano and his cabinet’s determination to keep the African territories. A secondary effect of their crushing grip on the colonies was that it was brought a large divide from the nations of Europe and UN, most notably the United States of America. At this point it became clear that there would be no forcing aid to overthrow the dictator.

On April 25th 1974 the carnation revolution commenced planning. It stands out from most other military coups as it was peaceful and occasionally has been given the nickname of the bloodless coup. Reports from the time suggest that this coup came as a surprise to Portuguese government officials, because as it was a dictatorship there was no rival party to threaten their control. The revolution was mostly undertaken by young army captains and majors, as well as officers from other sectors who had been fighting the endless battles of the Portuguese colonial war. Within only a matter of days the rebels had control of the country. The political sphere knew quite little about these officers and their political alliance or ideologies, as for the public it is unknown how much knowledge they had. It was confirmed that planning of this event happened mostly in the colonies.
The revolution was dubbed the carnation revolution as a result of the young officers coming across a flower market near the city center of Lisbon. They proceeded to place the red carnations, red to represent Portugal and the strength it was regaining, in the barrels of their guns. The revolution was also tied greatly to their cultural identity. Two of the revolutionary signals where a traditional folk song played on the radio and then a few days later the countries Eurovision entry was a signal for the rest of the country to join this battle to regain Portugal as their own, achieving this and within the next year Portugal held its 7th free democratic election in history, which officially recognized the countries of for Angola, Mozambique, and Guinea Bissau as independent countries.

Sources:
Interview by Charles Stuart Kennedy in 2009 with James A. Cason, Portuguese political officer at the time of revolution.
The guardian The Carnation Revolution: 5 May 1974 a report by Michael Davie
BBC world series, witness Portugal's carnation revolution https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/p00775j6. 26/03/19 10:31
The Million Dollar Car that Crashed

Author: Liam Curle, 5th Year Student, McHale College Tuam

John DeLorean started his time in the automobile industry at Packard and his time he had there was short lived as the company slowly shut down. After that he moved on to Pontiac where he turned Chrysler Muscle car idea in to a reality with the advent of the Grand Turismo Omologato or GTO. He then went on to rise to the very top in General motors and was tipped to become the CEO. But DeLorean did the unthinkable and quit General motors, walking away from a $650,000 a year job, about $8 million in today’s terms. some even saying he was fired.

DeLorean had enjoyed the freedom and celebrity that had come with his position at GM. He had got the image of the rebel business man. After leaving DeLorean he thought about his options and did what few other business men had done, he set up his own auto business. He set up the DeLorean Motor Corporation (DMC) in Ireland, with the partial backing of the British government, delivering by the autumn of 1978, a prototype gull-wing sports car. Production models for sale, however, would take a bit longer.

DeLorean needed $175 million to finance his dream. He enlisted more than one hundred investors, including Johnny Carson and Sammy Davis, Jr., put over $12 million into a partnership for research and development while the British government produced $156 million in grants and loans return for DeLorean locating the DMC factory in Northern Ireland. Britain liked the idea of creating 2,000 new jobs in a region suffering a 20 percent unemployment rate. He also had more than 250 U.S. car dealers sign up as partner/investors, with many of those filing early orders for the car. DeLorean, however, according to some accounts, risked relatively little of his own money — $700,000 by one estimate — but he seemed to be on the road to having his dream come true.

The DMC and DeLorean received quite extensive publicity both in advance of the car’s actual production and as it first became available for sale in 1981-82. The car was featured in a few prominent auto magazines well before it became available, helping to stoke expectations. And DeLorean himself appeared on magazine covers and in numerous media stories.

After a fair amount of hype and numerous false starts, the production of his $25,000 V-6powered, stainless-steel, gull-winged DMC-12 finally began in Belfast, Northern Ireland. The snazzy car debuted in February 1981. In Los Angeles there was an unveiling of the car at the Biltmore Hotel on February 8th, 1981 with Johnny Carson, DeLorean, wife Cristina Ferrare and others.
Cont’d

But the DMC’s introduction and early sales were not without glitches. There were some quality problems with the cars, though these for the most part was quickly addressed with a series of Quality Assurance Centre’s set up to correct problems before the cars went to the dealers. But entering the market in 1981 there was lower priced competition in the sports car class from Datsun, Mazda, and Porsche. The DMC, at $26,000, cost $8,000 more than a Chevy Corvette. There was also a recession during 1981-82. The hoped-for sales of 12,000 DMCs a year fell short by half.

Sources;
The book, The Delorean Story, written by Nick Sutton published in 2013 by Haynes publishing
The Rebel Grandad

Author: Sean Walsh, 5th Year Student, McHale College Tuam

John Patrick McCormack was born on the 27th of January 1895 in Kilconly, Tuam. He joined the Belmont Company of the Irish volunteers in September 1917. The formation of the UVF in January 1913 caused great concern in the south. In response to the growing militarism in Ulster, Eoin MacNeill, a founding member wrote an article for An Cladheamh Soluis entitled ‘The North Began’, published on 25th November 1913. He stated a similar nationalist organisation should be formed in the rest of Ireland with aim of defending Home Rule. Members of the Irish Volunteers were made up of a broad range of Nationalists including members of Sinn Fein, the Gaelic League and the GAA. The IRB saw the volunteers as an ideal recruiting ground for future rebellions against British rule in Ireland. After the 1916 Rising these Volunteers now wanted total Independence. Most of the Volunteers in Milltown were from a Farming Background and members of the GAA. In April of 1921 JP now part of the Tuam Flying column took part in an attack on a R.I.C patrol that went from Milltown to the railway station. They received information that four R.I.C men on patrol had gone into the public house in the village on their way back to the barracks in Milltown. They took position between the public house and the barracks and waited for the R.I.C men. Two R.I.C men came out and they opened fire at point-blank range with shotguns dropping the two men to the floor. The two other R.I.C men ran back to the barracks where there was 30 R.I.C men and Black and Tans that had opened fire on the volunteers as soon as they heard the shooting. This prevented the volunteers from getting any rifles which they badly needed.

My Grandad remember taking part in an ambush on the Dunmore/Moylough road close to the village of Clonbern. He was positioned at the side of the road beside a gate lodge. They were expecting two Lorries of R.I.C men to pass the ambush position but they didn’t turn up. At about 11:00am two people rode into the ambush position on horseback a Miss O’Rourke and a man by the name of Hannon. They were ordered to halt but Hannon continued on. JP was later captured and held prisoner. JP was ordered to guard him as he was suspected of being a spy. Hannon was court martialed that day. JP and Patrick Walsh brought him to a priest before he was brought to an unknown location. A firing squad of seven men were waiting. They brought him there and he was shot. They then labelled his body spy and left him in a ditch on the side of the road close to the ambush position as a warning. JP stayed in Ireland after the war of Independence. Married and had 7 children. He received five medals for his involvement in the war. He died in 1977 and received a state funeral.

Sources.

Military Bureau witness statements, JP McComack and Thomas Donnellan. 1952

Personal Diary of JP McCormack.
Galway Community College
Suez – From Emergency to Crisis and the end of the days of Empire

Author: Paddy Hogan, 5th Year Student, Galway Community College

There are 144km between Port Said and Suez, between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, between the wealthy markets of Europe and the produce of the East, between the oil guzzling European nations and the Oil fields of the Middle East.

The canal opened in 1869 under French control after having taken 10 years to complete. Built and operated by the Suez Company, it is thought that as many as 1.5 million workers were employed throughout the 10 years with many thousands dying from disease. The company used forced labour to construct the canal. The company operated on the basis of a 99-year lease from the Egyptian government of the day. The lease commenced in 1869 and was to last till 1968 when the canal would pass back to the control of the Egyptians. The British government had originally opposed the building of the canal, officially condemning the use of slave labour and even arming Bedouins and instigating a revolt amongst the workers. Then in 1875 financial crisis led the Egyptian ruler, Ishmail Pasha to sell his 44% stake in the company to the British government, so now the British were heavily invested in the operation of the canal, though France had the majority holding. By 1882 in response to local unrest, the British invaded Egypt and took full control of the canal. In 1888 the convention of Constantinople declared the canal a neutral zone under the protection of the British.

From the beginning the canal had a dramatic effect on world trade and also played a role in the continuing colonization of Africa by the European powers. The strategic importance of the canal meant that it was to feature in both world wars as a military objective. In 1915 a major Ottoman attack was repulsed by the British and in the second world war the Italian and German forces were also repulsed in a series of North African campaigns.

By the 1950s and at the time of the overthrow of the Egyptian monarchy, the canal was patrolled and safeguarded by a garrison of some 80000 troops. This was a large operation, one of the largest military installations in the world. To put this into perspective, this is close to the size of the entire British regular army today. In 1936, before the second world war Britain had entered into a treaty with Egypt to retain control of the canal. However, the post war years were to see a growing strain on Anglo-Egyptian relations.

During the 1950s the world was rapidly changing. British Empire had not recovered from the political and economic impact of world war two. Growing nationalist feeling in former colonies had led to movements for independence and these could sometimes become violent. India and Pakistan had gained independence in 1947. The state of Israel had been formed in the former British protectorate of Palestine, there was a state of emergency in Kenya with the Mau Mau uprising, and many African colonies would gain full independence by the 1960s. The Korean War saw its bloodiest years between 1950 and 1953. The British army was deployed in Central and South America, South East Asia in Malaysia, Singapore, Korea, and Africa, Cyprus, Germany. With an active standing army of over 1 million personnel, recruitment was not voluntary, but post war conscription, now termed national service continued for all men in Britain. In addition, the army ranks contained many Irish, fleeing their own economic situation back home. My own grandfather leaving Ireland to find work in Britain found himself along side many others on a troop ship travelling to the desert. Suez was an unpopular posting with the young national service men. There was very little to do and very little to see. Just sand.
Conditions were basic, and men lived in Nissen huts, temporary dwellings made of corrugated steel, and were based in any one of a number of military encampments along the length of the canal. There wasn’t much that could be done with leisure time. The locals were potentially hostile and travelling out of base was not generally allowed. There was no entertainment, only the NAAFI and Mess bars. Leave might be taken as an outing to Port Said, once a tourist centre with beaches and facilities, or a trip to the pyramids or to see the sphinx. At Fayid, on the Great Bitter Lake, there was a beach, swimming facilities and a shopping village, labelled oxford street, all serving the large British encampment there. One particular favourite was the Mummy on display in Khan Khalil’s shop in the shopping village. The curious image of Dje-Mer high priest of Min was to form part of many a soldier’s photo collection, including my grandfather’s.

With a population of 80000 troops there were many duties. Frontline troops patrolled the canal, responded to attacks from Bedouin tribesmen, arrested and rounded up suspected terrorists and saboteurs, confiscated weaponry. Such a large operation also required caterers, mechanics, nurses, doctors, logistics experts. My own grandfather who was in the service corps was assigned to an anti-malarial unit. He was promoted to corporal in number 10 Malarial Control Unit, 10 MCU, and with his team of locals, Ahmed and Awad, he was responsible for treating water pools in the Fayid area to kill mosquito larvae and so reduce the mosquito problem. He was assigned civilian clothes so as not to be seen as a target as he travelled around the area with his Egyptian colleagues and Ahmed and Awad found a place in the photo album.

The presence of a large foreign army on Egyptian land had never been popular. Prior to the revolution, nationalist police officers had supported and protected the Egyptian resistance, the Fedayeen. There were attacks on the British administration in Alexandria, Cairo and along the Suez Canal. After a particularly bloody assault near Ismailia the British tracked the Fedayeen to the police barracks in Ismailia where the fighters had taken refuge. After a failed attempt to negotiate their surrender during which the British negotiator was killed, the British attacked the barracks killing fifty police officers and wounding a further hundred. Egypt erupted in fury. Following the Egyptian revolution of 1952, the US and UK supported King Farouk was overthrown by the “Free Officers” supported by the Soviet Union. General Naguib became president and Gamel Abdel Nasser was now deputy premier. Egypt was ruled by the Revolutionary Command Council. The monarchy was exiled to Italy and political parties were banned as were the Muslim Brotherhood as this was a secular regime. The Revolutionary Command Council were committed to opposing the British and French, particularly in relation to control of the Canal. The British refused to relinquish control of the canal. However, the attacks escalated and there was pressure from both the United States and the Soviet Union in the United Nations. On the 19th October 1954, Colonel Nasser, now President of Egypt, signed a treaty with the British for the evacuation of troops over a 20-month period. The Anglo-French Suez Canal company were to retain control, but without the protection of the British Army. On the 18th June 1956, the evacuation of the British Army was complete.

a military one. The British, French and Israelis launched a full-scale invasion, killing and wounding thousands of Egyptian military and civilians. It was a military success, but a political and diplomatic disaster. Anti-war protests were held in Britain and there was international condemnation of the action. Under
The name of Ferdinand de Lesseps the French diplomat and original developer of the Canal, was used as a code-word in Nasser’s speech. On hearing this Egyptian forces seized control of the Canal in preparation for it’s nationalisation. All assets belonging to the Suez Canal Company were frozen and stockholders would be paid the price of the shares at close of business in the Paris Stock Exchange on that day. This event took the British by surprise. It wasn’t simply a matter of economic and security concerns, but it was also about British prestige. The reaction was ultimately a military one. The British, French and Israelis launched a full-scale invasion, killing and wounds thousands of Egyptian military and civilians. It was a military success, but a political and diplomatic disaster. Anti-war protests were held in Britain and there was international condemnation of the action. Under pressure from the USA, troops were again withdrawn and UN peace keepers moved in. Egypt gained UN confirmation of its control of the Canal. Britain’s government collapsed as did its standing on the world stage. Decolonisation of former British colonies was accelerated and Britain was set firmly on its path of transition from Empire and World Superpower to being one of the states of the new Europe of Common Markets and cooperation.

The Suez Crisis remains an example of how not to do foreign affairs. The British establishment were so caught up in their historical prestige that they could not see the sheer madness of the decisions that they were making. Their version of patriotism did more damage to Britain’s international prestige that Nasser’s nationalisation of the Canal could ever had done and it took many years to rebuild relations with former allies.
Our Lady’s College Galway
IRISH IMMIGRATION IN ARGENTINA STORIES OF IMMIGRANTS IN A COUNTRY THAT SEEKS ITS IDENTITY

Author: Agustina Rufino Subjects, 5th Year Student, Our Lady’s College Galway

ABSTRACT BACKGROUND

The Irish immigration to Argentina, was a strong cultural contribution, effort and sacrifice to help grow a new country, contributing their values of strong roots to their spirit in search of freedom and an integrated, just and prosperous society. As a process immersed in social relationships present but also in systems of significance inherited from the past, the representation of history, culturally constructed versions of the past give body to the identity of the group, creating the essential scope to build, consolidate and Reconsolidate your collective identity. During the years 1830 to 1930 (and in particular between 1850 and 1970) it is estimated that between 300,000 Irish immigrants came to Argentina, mainly from Westmeath, Longford, Offaly and Wexford. Most of them settled in Buenos Aires and Provinces del Litoral, following the advice of friends and relatives who sent positive descriptions of the development of Argentina and the possibilities of owning land in the Pampa region, rich in fertile land for agriculture and livestock of Bobino for the wool of export, beef and pork for export of meat, from Rio de la Plata, with the philosophy of "Make America" and help build and "Make America". The strong historical roots of Ireland, its wealth and its spirit of seeking Liberation at all costs, gave a starting point in Argentina with the "IbernoArgentina" Irish community in Argentina. (7) Among the main activities in which the Irish immigrants performed were manual labor, commerce, crafts, education and domestic service. In the countryside, the Irish worked as rural laborers, ranchers and shepherds - especially in the production of wool and lambs. (1) The country now has some 500,000 to 1,000,000 people descended from these first immigrants, the fifth largest population outside of Ireland. Argentina prior to the declaration of its political independence, produced in 1816. It is estimated that the people of the Irish nationality who came to the Plata until 1810 reached approximately 300,000 people and also included the number of Irish prisoners who remained here after the English invasions, however, and despite the exchange of prisoners arranged by the commanders of both sides in August 1807. Those Irish people generally lost all contact with their homeland and many of them even castellano their surname, so that now it is very difficult to identify in his descendants what was the original surname of his Irish ancestor. Produced in 1810 the revolution that six years later led to these provinces to the declaration of its independence from Argentina, the Spanish crown and the organization of a new state, its authorities soon warned that one of the first and most important steps to be adopted it was the increase in population that at that time did not reach half a million inhabitants, promoting the coming to these regions of European settlers to populate it, occupying the vast territory that was then held by the Indians, both in the south and in the south. part of the north of the country.

There is the coming of the Irish to Argentina and the organization of the collectivity of the nationality, which is the oldest in the country after the Scottish. In February 1825, after the signing of the Treaty of Friendship, navigation and trade between the Argentine Republic and the United Kingdom and Ireland, the first attempt of non-Spanish European colonization took place in the Rio de la Plata.
It was a company that brought a group of Scottish families composed of about 200 people, and installed them south of the city of Buenos Aires.

The second colonizing attempt is from the year 1828 and was promoted by Gen. John Thomond O'Brien. He proposed to bring to Argentina 200 young Irish workers and honest to form the base of an agricultural colony, immediately obtained the approval of the Argentine government, but the project failed because of the indifference with which he was received by the English government. But by then the arrival of the first Irish settlers to the river of silver had begun spontaneously. They came with their families or formed them here with daughters of other compatriots. Unlike the Irishmen who came before, they formed a colony by tightening the bonds of any order that distinguished them from other sectors of Argentine society. The formation of this new collectivity was the result not only of the good will of the Argentine government to foreigners but also of the special circumstances that Ireland was going through, as a result of the union agreement with Great Britain in 1801, and afterwards for the failure of the potato crops; and, of course, because of the favorable news coming to Ireland about the situation of the Irish living in the Río de la Plata and their growing social and economic prosperity. Both groups of the Irish of the Hispanic period and those of the post-revolution of 1810 have distinguished members, who have left here an indelible memory of their passage through Argentina. Irish featured in Argentine History Among those of the 1st First group we cannot fail to mention the names of:

- Father Thomas Fields, a native of Limerick and one of the pioneers (early seventeenth century) of the famous Jesuit missions.
- Dr. Thomas Faulkner, who, although born in England, was the son of an Irish doctor of the same name. He arrived in Buenos Aires in 1730, commissioned by the Royal Society of London, to study American medicinal plants, and to suffer here a serious illness and be attended by the Jesuit fathers "Porteños", he left his profession, became a priest and was for many years a missionary in Patagonia. Upon his return to England in 1767 following the expulsion of the order of the domains Spaniards, wrote the book "Description of Patagonia", which caused a sensation in Europe and restless to the Spanish authorities, moving them to occupy those vast and desolate regions, which resulted in the foundation in 1779 of the fort of Carmen de Patagones, near the mouth of the Río Negro in the Atlantic Ocean.
- Dr. Michael O 'Gorman, who came to Argentina sent by the Spanish government, and who in September 1779 founded the School of Protomedicato in Buenos Aires, the predecessor of the current Faculty of Medicine of the University of Buenos Aires.
- Gen. John Thomond O'Briend, Assistant to General San Martin and commissioned by him to bring to Buenos Aires the part of the victory that ended the Spanish rule in Peru
- Peter Campbell, exprisionero of the English Invasions, lieutenant of Artigas in the Argentine coast, and founder of the Navy of the Eastern Republic of Uruguay.

- Domingo French, descendant of Irish, deputy of the chapter of Buenos Aires in the days of May 1810, warrior in 1806-1807 and in the War of Independence.

The 2nd group, which is the initiator and founder of the Irish community in Argentina, came to the Rio de la Plata spontaneously from the third decade of the nineteenth century. These Irish people did not stay in the cities, as their compatriots who emigrated to the United States, Canada, and Australia, usually did. Most of them went into the campaign, many times over the border between civilization and the Indians, going into what was then known as the "Desert", where they founded establishments that on more than one occasion were devastated by the Indians considered Wild. Later, when the development of the railway lines in Argentina began, they facilitated in every way the foundation of towns around the stations, many of which now bear their name. Conquered by the Spanish half of the current Argentine territory, the need to maintain the communication of the cities of the interior with the port of Buenos Aires, and then to enlarge the jurisdiction of this city led to the foundation, from the year 1744, of a line of forts with the purpose of defending the civilized territory from the attacks of the Indians. This railway line, in the Province of Buenos Aires, the Pampa Húmeda or Wet Pampa, started from the town "Magdalena", zone of the South of Buenos Aires, and that arrived at San Nicolás by the North zone, following a line practically parallel to the rivers of Silver and Paraná; in 1779 the line had advanced and departed from the Bay of Samboronbón (it is called by honor of an Irish saint, San Brendan, who was a navigator) and arrived until Pergamino by the north. But between 1826 and 1855 the border recedes and leaves under the dominion of the Indians near the half of the present Buenos aires an territory, that was not conquered until the Expedition to the Desert, that in 1878-1879 commands the Gral. Julio A. Rock and incorporo all that immense region to the effective patrimony of the Nation, the Patagonia, with the call "Campaign of the Desert" where they exterminate great part of the indigenous population of the Argentine south, and there is a development in the Argentine railway map, because the development of the populations and settlements of immigrants depended greatly on this rail map, which allowed the field and agrarian worker to have the possibility of marketing their crops and products with Buenos Aires and the Port of Buenos Aires for export, and the Cattle Slaughterhouses for the internal consumption of Meat in Argentina, which is a custom deeply rooted in the food culture.

Contemporaneously with the construction of new forts and the enlargement of the area that they protected not always satisfactorily the settlement of the Irish immigrants in Buenos Aires takes place. Deprived in their great majority of important economic resources, but with a great spirit of work and company, they began generally working like pawns in the" Saladeros" (Place where the meat was slated for its maintenance and sale) and in the Stays of Buenos Aires. After saving a small capital and buying with these Creole sheep, they dedicated themselves to their breeding, improvement and exploitation; This activity was very profitable due to the great demand for wool that was in Europe as a result of the Industrial Revolution. After the gains and expenses were shared between the owner of the field and the breeder of the sheep, the Irish were made in a few years of hard work, independent producers and also, in many cases, large ranchers.
Towards 1870 wool activity entered into crisis due to the fall in the price of wool as a result of the end of the Civil War in the United States. But by then the Irish of Argentina were already well rooted socially and economically and put the situation through diversifying their activity, dedicating themselves to the breeding and improvement of cattle and agriculture. It is to these Irishmen that we can rightly be called the colonizers of a large part of the province of Buenos Aires, since not only were they interned in fields still in power or at the mercy of the incursions of the savage Indians in 1877, their malones had arrived to the outskirts of the city of Azul, Province of Buenos Aires, heart of the Pampa and place rich in fertile land for Agriculture and raising of cattle, pigs and cattle, leading to their return to the desert some 150,000 head of cattle, but they were the founders of many population centers that today are flourishing cities. Just go through the map of the province of Buenos Aires to see those Irish names such as Dennehy, Doyle, Duggan. Gaynor, Huges, Ham, Kenny, Malcahy, Maguire. Or the Provinces of Santa Fe or Córdoba, where we have Murphy and Cavanagh. Other towns that have Spanish names owe their existence to some Irishman or Irishman, as is the case of San Eduardo, Santa Lucia, Venado Tuerto, etc. (4)

**Navy Naval Argentina**

Admiral William Brown

Admiral William Brown (born Foxford, County Mayo, Kingdom of Ireland (current Republic of Ireland), June 22, 1777-Buenos Aires, Argentina, March 3, 1857) was the first Argentine nationalized Irish admiral of the Naval Force of Argentina, both in chronology and in prestige, which devoted his life to the service of his adoptive homeland, for which he is considered the Father of the Argentine Navy. (3)

**First years**

Admiral William Brown came from a deeply Catholic family who emigrated to the United States of America, exactly to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, around the year 1786. Shortly after arriving, the friend who had invited them and offered them food and hospitality died of yellow fever, and a few days later, Admiral William Brown's father also died for the same reasons. When he was orphaned, he embarked as a cabin boy on a US ship. For ten years, Brown sailed through the waters of the Atlantic Ocean and in hard school acquired that admirable skill, an outstanding quality of his personality as a sailor. He had reached captain's license when in 1796 he was seized by an English ship and forced to provide services there.

That British ship was later captured by a French ship and taken prisoner of war to France, from where it managed to escape. When he returned to England he resumed his maritime career. There are unconfirmed reports regarding a brief passage through the British Royal Navy. The Office of Naval Records registered a "William Brown" in the Royal Navy armament forms, between 1801 and 1804, and another namesake between the years 1804 and 1809. On July 29, 1809 he married Elizabeth Chitty, in Middlesex County (It was one of the 39 historic counties in England, geographically located in the city of London). It ended that same year when Brown arrived at the Rio de la Plata aboard the "Belmond" and settled in Montevideo to engage in trade. The 18 of April of 1810 with the frigate "Jane", of its property, arrived at Buenos Aires in commercial management and remained two months in the then capital of the Virreinato of the River of the Silver, being witness of the events of the Week of May that culminated with the May Revolution.
Brown and his contribution to the National Cause

Years later, in the Banda Oriental dominated by realistic sailors, Admiral William Brown fought against them. He also transported arms, provisions and offices of the government of Buenos Aires to the patriots of the Banda Oriental. He was therefore a revolutionary of the cause of May. On March 1, 1814, the Supreme Director of the United Provinces of the Río de la Plata Gervasio Antonio de Posadas signed the decree by which Guillermo Brown was appointed lieutenant colonel and chief of the squadron. Martin Garcia Island, which was held by the royalists, was the baptism of fire for this Argentine Navy.

On March 11, 1814 Brown began an attack that was rejected and resumed on the 15th, culminating the action with the capture of the island, which was one of the most important victories in the struggle for emancipation. Brown's strategy envisaged that a naval action to liberate Montevideo could produce the surrender of the members of the Realist Party, in this well-fortified square that had been resisting the siege of the patriotic land forces for almost four years. Brown insisted before Posadas and the Council of State on the necessary urgency to initiate naval actions against the Realistas bagged in Montevideo and managed to impose its criterion.

On April 15, 1814, the Naval Force sailed from Buenos Aires under the command of Admiral William Brown, who hoisted his insignia on the frigate "Hercules", and the people of Buenos Aires watched his departure with joy. The actions against the Realista squadron were fought in the waters of Montevideo, in front of the Puerto del Buceo, between May 14 and 17, 1814, in the so-called naval combat of Diving, with Brown obtaining a complete victory. The victory of Brown in this combat contributed to the operations, brought with it the liberation of Montevideo, which thus happened to the power of the patriotic forces, on June 23, 1814. According to José de San Martín, Brown's victory in that water's plaza was "the most important thing done by the American revolution so far." (3) From the River Plate to the South Pacific.

After the campaign of 1814, Admiral William Brown undertook with the frigate "Hercules" donated by the government, a journey through the waters of the Antarctic Glacial Ocean (it is considered that he could see the northern coasts of the Antarctic Peninsula which he called Tierra de la Trinidad in homage to the Argentine ship Trinidad) and then rumbled westward entering the Pacific Ocean, traveling, from late 1815 to mid-1816, the coasts of Chile and Peru, initially leading the ideas of freedom of the May Revolution until those regions and was the forerunner of the liberating feat that San Martín would carry out. When he returned to Buenos Aires, he did not want to take part in internal conflicts and retired to his home, dedicating himself to the trade of buying and selling weapons. (4)

The war against the Empire of Brazil

In 1825, the expansionist advances of the Empire of Brazil, which then occupied the entire Eastern Province of Uruguay, officially beginning the War of Brazil. On December 21, 1825, a powerful imperial squadron commanded by Vice Admiral Rodrigo José Ferreira de Lobo blocked Buenos Aires. Then the government called Admiral William Brown and on January 12, 1826 conferred him, with the rank of major colonel, the command of the squad composed of very few forces. Admiral William Brown then demonstrated another brilliant facet of his ability, the organization.
On June 10, 1826, a powerful Brazilian force ap-
Offspring

With his wife Elizabeth Chitty he had several children: Elizabeth (1810-1827), Guillermo (1812-1875), Ignacio Estanislao (1815-1816), Martina García Rosa Josefa Estanilada de Jesús (1815-1881), Eduardo (1816-1854), Miguel, Patricio and Pedro Brown and Chitty. - Dalmacio Vélez Sarsfield Dalmacio Vélez Sarsfield (Amboy, February 18, 1800 - Buenos Aires, March 30, 1875) was an Argentine lawyer and politician, author of the Civil Code of Argentina of 1869, in force until 2015. In 1858, the State of Buenos Aires (separated from the Argentine Confederation) entrusted him with the task of drafting a Commercial Code, which was drafted in collaboration with the prestigious Uruguayan jurisconsult Eduardo Acevedo, was completed in 10 months, and was sanctioned in 1859 The same, after the national reunification, would be approved as national code of commerce by the Congress, by means of the Law nº 15 the 10 of September of 1862, being reformed in 1889, it remained in force until the 1 of August of 2015. (6) In the same year 1862 Vélez Sarsfield was commissioned to write the Civil Code of the Argentine Republic. The composition of this did not begin until 1864, being president Bartolomé Miter. Its writing, richly provided with notes and commentaries, took almost five years to him; in 1869 the full text was available, which was approved by a closed book in 1869 during the presidency of Domingo Faustino Sarmiento, and was in force from January 1, 1871 until August 1, 2015, being replaced by the Civil Code and Commercial of the Nation. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention that reformed the Constitution in 1860. (7) For a year, Vélez Sarsfield was Minister of Finance of Bartolomé Miter, and then Minister of the Interior of Domingo Faustino Sarmiento, who assumed the presidency in 1868. Sarmiento and Dalmacio Vélez Sarsfield were the greatest proponents of electric telegraphy in the country. On August 5, 1874, at the end of his presidential term, Sarmiento inaugurated the 1st First Telegraphic Communication with Europe. Sarmiento decreed that the day of the inauguration of the telegraph cable -which, in his words, made all the towns into "a single family and a neighborhood" -was a national holiday. The ceremony was attended by, among others, the already ex-minister Vélez Sarsfield, whom Sarmiento immediately attributed "the exclusive honor of the daring idea and the rapid execution of the telegraph network, which contributes to give peace to the Republic and well-being. to his children". He died in Buenos Aires on March 30, 1875. (5) His remains rested in the Recoleta cemetery, until they were transferred to the Palace of Justice in the city of Córdoba. (5) (6)

Conclusion

Having arrived in an alien and new land, those first Irish foreigners They cohesed to face the unknown and "forget" the past pains. But advanced generations, once installed and having turned this land into its place of existence and motivated by compulsive incorporation into society Argentina, the Argentine Argentine community had to seek, define and redefine their identity. And in that attempt he sought to shelter his two origins, restoring continuity with that unjust past but being "faithful" to both his country of origin and their ancestors as well as their adopted country. The community opted, like this, for a cut in the construction of his identity that would not leave aside his ancestors (and their origins) nor to the larger Argentine society that, in its attempt to production of national identifications, "worked" to incorporate them into civilizatorio project.
We can say that, having been marginalized in their traditional history by the Irish immigration process, they knew how to forge a new opportunity in new horizons. And now they need to recover their buried past because in the collective act of remembering that past these descendants of Irish immigrants reaffirm their social identity in the present. As a process immersed in social relationships present but also in systems of significance inherited from the past, the representation of history, culturally constructed versions of the past give body to the identity of the group, creating the essential scope to build, consolidate and Reconsolidate your collective identity. And it’s accommodating things reminded of the needs of the present as the process of construction of this one.

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Elvis Presley: The Impact He Had On The Music Industry

Author: Mairead Sido, Our Lady’s College Galway

Elvis Presley, is one of the most famous and iconic musicians, actors and artists of today’s music industry. His music touched the heart of millions, created a pathway to the music genre rock 'n' roll and the memory as the king of rock 'n' roll still lives on till today.

Elvis Aaron Presley was born on January 8th 1935. Elvis was born a twin but sadly his twin brother, Jessie Garon was stillborn. Elvis and his family grew up in a two-bedroom house in Tupelo, Mississippi. Presley grew up with his father, Vernon Presley and his mother, Gladys Presley.

Elvis Presley attended East Tupelo Consolidated School, he then attended Humes High School due to he and his family moving in 1948. Presley graduated in 1953 and after a year only his music career had finally taken off.

Presley had signed a record deal with the company, Sun Records Label. He released his first song, "My Happiness" in 1956. After the hit song "Heartbreak Hotel" was released to the crowds of America in the same year, Presley was given national breakthrough and not only was he recognised as a singer but also as an artist and performer. Later that year Presley had starred in his very first movie, Love Me Tender which became a box office hit.

Unfortunately Presley received his draft notice in 1957 which meant that he had to put his music and acting career on hold. Elvis Presley was inducted into the US Army on March 24th and was then sent to Germany in which he served military services roughly for a year and a half, 1958-1960.

Sadly during August in 1958 Presley had received deplorable news that his mother, Gladys had become ill. Presley was granted temporary leave to visit his dying mother on her deathbed. On August 16th 1958 Gladys Presley passed away leaving Elvis Presley mournful and heartbroken but he had to be brave and hold high head up high to return to the army.

After nearly a year of serving in the army Presley met 14-year old Priscilla Ahn Wagner on September 13th, who would soon be his future wife while Presley was still serving in Germany. The two met at a party held at his home in Bad Nauheim. Even though Priscilla was just a child she left a very big impression on the rock star.

On March 5th of 1960 was known as "E-Day" for America because Elvis Presley was finally allowed to return home to fulfil his title as the king of Rock 'n' Roll and to take back his rightful throne from his rivals. Since Elvis was in the army many things were different for him and he needed to change his style. The new and improved Elvis Presley had a lot of work to do in order to live up to his name. Elvis Presley then went on to release the hit and some of his most famous songs such as 'Good Luck Charm' and 'There's Always Me' and they became sensational hits in America.

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The Irish Pilgrims to Santiago.

Author: Nuria Artiles Romero, 5th Year Student, Our Lady’s College Galway

Santiago el Mayor was one of the most important apostles of Jesus of Nazaret and the first one who died martyred. As the tradition indicated, his body was transferred to Hispania to deposit it in a tomb in Galicia. About the year 820, between remains of an abandoned roman settlement, her tomb was discovered and a temple was built on top of it. Later, this temple was extended in the next centuries until become the cathedral that we know now.

A large number of people on this path with the belief that the remains of the apostle had a capacity for intercession before God. Its popularity has spread among the Western European kingdoms and soon it had the support of the ecclesiastical authorities and the people who participate in the accommodation and the assistance. They also issued legal regulations to protect those who participated during the journey.

During his history he has experienced two major crises. The first was due to those who traveled the routes and the aspect of the protest in the sixteenth century. And the second was due to the process of European secularization initiated by the French Revolution and the loss of accommodation due to the confiscations of the 19th century. This crisis was so severe that almost, nevertheless, it can recover significantly and increase the number of pilgrims.

In this second decade of the 21st century, the Jacobean pilgrimage attracts men and women alike. Foreigners outnumber national pilgrims and most of the activity. The motivation for the greater number of them continues being of spiritual type although it is important the number of those that realize the lúdico-sportive reasons. Within Christianity, it is accepted by the Protestant theology that had rejected it since the sixteenth century and the wide spread of Jacobean routes throughout Europe has led to the appearance of a new type of pilgrimage consisting of a few days traveling the road without the objective end of reaching Compostela, the end of the road.

There has always been a certain connection between Ireland and Spain cause the particular devotion to Santiago. During the Middle Ages there were many Irish people who joined the crowd of pilgrims from all over Europe who came to the Camino de Santiago. Most of the Irish pilgrims began the journey from their cities to the ports of Galway, Kinsale and Dublin, from where they ventured to the sea, as explained in the book The ways of the sea to Santiago de Compostela. Normally, ships left from Ireland bound for the Iberian Peninsula, disembarked at the ports of La Coruña and Ferrol, although some Irish departed from Dublin to continue the pilgrimage through the English Way, which used to go to London, Oxford, Brighton or Canterbury.

The folklore of Galicia has maintained the history of Breogán, the Celtic leader who founded the settlement of Brigantium, the actual Galicia. Irish mythology retains in its memory the Celtic Galicia in the book of the eleventh century The book of invasions or Lebor Gabála Eren, which tells how the "Gaelos" left for Ireland after spotting it from the Tower of Hercules, or "Breogán tower".

The commercial contact between Ireland and Iberia was established for centuries through Galicia; and La Coruña would become the most important port for contact between the Peninsula and the British Isles. Located in the northwest of the Iberian Peninsula, this is the land, from which, according to The Irish Book of Invasions, the Milesian king and his people traveled to arrive and settle in Ireland. Galicia and Ireland were thus traditionally considered brother towns by this supposed same Celtic origin.

Irish people started the travel in Saint Jame´s, the door of Santiago, where is currently
located the most famous brewery: Guinnes. In the Middle Ages, St. James's Gate was one of the entrances to the wall the year 1210. Archbishop Henry opened a hostel in Dublin where pilgrims who were preparing to travel to Compostela could stay. Later, in the year 1605, an Irish university school was established in Santiago, and the educational and commercial relations between both countries continued until at least the 18th century called city of Dublin. The main facade of the Guinness brewery, founded in 1759 by Arthur Guinness, is located right next to the old medieval gate of Santiago. Visitors who want to explore the old pilgrimage route can seal their "passports" at the St. James's Gate brewery, which marks the beginning of the pilgrimage from Ireland.

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Harriet Tubman,
The Conductor on the Underground Railroad Leading Slaves to Freedom...or did she?

Author: Rachel Victor, 5th Year Student, Our Lady’s College Galway

Harriet Tubman escaped slavery to become a leading abolitionist. She led hundreds of enslaved africans along the route of the “Underground Railroad” to freedom.

Not only was she a pioneer during the civil war, but she was also a nurse, a union spy and a woman’s suffrage supporter. Although all the sources I have viewed are unsure about Tubman’s approximate date of birth, she has been estimated to be born during the period of 1820.

She was born to the parents of Harriet “Rut” Green and Benjamin Ross, who were both enslaved on a plantation in Dorchester County, Maryland. Harriet had eight brothers and sisters, but the realities of slavery eventually resulted in their separation from one another.

Harriet Tubman’s early life consisted primarily of pure hardship. Physical violence was prominent in her daily life, according to my source, “history.com”, when Harriet was five years old, she was rented out as a nursemaid, where she was whipped every single time the baby with whom she was responsible for caring for, outbroke in tears.

Although, my source states that Tubman recalls her most severe incident occurred when she was only an adolescent. She was sent to to the local ‘dry - goods store’ for supplies and on her journey she had encountered a run-away slave. The man’s overseer demanded that Tubman should help to retain the fugitive slave, however, when Harriet refused, the overseer struck Tubman with a two-pound weight to the head to which Tubman commented about the incident “The weight broke my skull … They carried me to the house all bleeding and fainting. I had no bed, no place to lie down on at all, and they laid me on the seat of the loom, and i stayed there all day and the next”. Due to this traumatising injury, Tubman experienced frequent seizures, severe headaches and narcoleptic episodes, which she believed to be religious experiences, for the rest of her life.

The fact that Tubman said that she had “no bed” after her very violent, life changing incident, and the fact that “they just laid me on the seat of the loom” underlines the dehumanising conditions slaves experienced. In 1940, Harriet’s father was set free, and Harriet quickly learned that her mother’s (Rut’s) owner had a will which stated that “Rut” and her children (including Harriet) were to be set free. Although, “Rut's” new owner refused to recognise the will and kept the family in bondage.

Around 1844, Harriet married John Tubman, a free black man and changed her name from Ross to Tubman. However, the marriage was not good and her husband John threatened to sell Harriet to a plantation further South. Her husbands threat provoked Harriet to plan an escape via the Underground Railroad.

Contrary to legend, Tubman did not create the Underground Railroad. It was a network of secret routes and safe houses established in the United States during the early - mid nineteenth century, and used by African American slaves to escape into free states with the aid of abolitionists and allies who were sympathetic to the cause. The Underground Railroad was not located underground nor was it a railroad, according to “www.history.com” it was symbolically underground as the network’s activities were secret and illegal so they had to remain ‘underground’ to help fugitive slaves to stay out of sight.

“www.history.com/harriettubman”