

Survey of European History, 1850s-1945

CHAPTER ONE

FOUNDATION OF NINETEENTH CENTURY EUROPE:

POLITICS AND SOCIAL CHANGES

THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA 1814-15

THE CONGRESS SYSTEM

The Congress of Vienna was a great international conference between statesmen from the major powers in Europe that was chaired by the Austrian statesman Klemens Wenzel von Metternich. It was held in Vienna, Austria, from September, 1814 to June 9, 1815. The conservative monarchies of Europe held the Congress to keep order in their own domains to cooperate in suppressing the threat of revolution anywhere in Europe, and to maintain a balance of power between European powers as a guarantee for peace and stability in the continent. The Congress was concerned with determining the entire shape of Europe after the Napoleonic wars, with the exception of the terms of peace with France, which had already been decided by the Treaty of Paris, signed a few months earlier, on May 30, 1814.

At the Congress, the United Kingdom was represented first by its Foreign Secretary, the Viscount Castlereagh; after February 1815, by the Duke of Wellington; and in the last weeks, after Wellington left to meet Napoleon, by the Earl of Clancarty. Austria was represented by Prince Klemens von Metternich, the Foreign Minister, and by his deputy, Baron Wessenberg. Prussia was represented by Prince Karl August von Hardenberg, the Chancellor, and the diplomat and scholar Wilhem von Humboldt. Louis XVIII's France was represented by his foreign minister Charles Maurice de Talleyrand-Perigord. Although Russia's official delegation was led by the foreign minister, Count Nesselrode, Emperor Alexander I for the most part acted on his own behalf. Initially, the representatives of the four victorious powers hoped to exclude the French from serious participation in the negotiations, but Talleyrand managed to skillfully insert himself into their inner councils in the first weeks of the negotiations.

The Congress did not meet together daily, as one body, to discuss the important questions before it. The work was done mostly in small committee and conferences. The main decisions of the Congress were made by the four allies that had defeated Napoleon (Austria, Russia, Prussia and Great Britain) and these were more or less forced on the smaller states. Most of the delegations had nothing much to do at the Congress, and the host, Emperor Francis of Austria held lavish entertainments to keep them occupied. This led to the Prince de Ligne's famous comment that "The Congress does not walk; it dances." The Congress of Vienna was known as the "Dancing Congress". Indeed, most of the delegates were more interested in dancing and amusement than in the problems of the Congress. This was deliberately done to keep them away from the main issues giving a free hand for the few powers to decide by themselves.

DECISIONS OF THE CONGRESS

The decisions of the Congress of Vienna were made along conservative lines. There was a general agreement among the delegates that the settlement should restore Europe as it had been before the Revolution and Napoleon.

The most contentious subject at the Congress was the so-called Polish-Saxon Crisis. The Russians and Prussians proposed a deal in which much of the Prussian and Austrian shares of the partitions of Poland would go to Russia, which would create an independent Polish Kingdom in personal union with Russia with Alexander as king. In exchange, the Prussians would receive as compensation all of Saxony. The Austrians, French, and British hotly opposed this extension of Russia into central Europe and the increase of Prussian power. The great powers almost came to blows when Britain, Austria and France, at the inspiration of Talleyrand, signed a secret treaty on January 3, 1815, agreeing to go to war, if necessary, to prevent the Russo-Prussian plan from coming to realization.

However, an amicable settlement was finally worked out, by which Russia received most of the Napoleonic Duchy of Warsaw as a "Kingdom of Poland", but did not receive the district of Posen, which was given to Prussia, nor Cracow, which became a free city. Prussia received 40% of Saxony (later known as the province of Saxony), with the remainder returned to King Frederick Augustus I (kingdom of Saxony).

The Congress's principal results, apart from its confirmation of France's loss of the territories annexed in 1795-1810, which had already been settled by the Peace of Paris, were the enlargement of Russia and Prussia, which acquired Westphalia and the northern Rhineland. The rich coal region of the Rhineland enabled Prussia finally to develop into the leading industrial state in Germany. The consolidation of Germany from the nearly 300 states of the Holy Roman Empire (dissolved in 1806) into a much more manageable thirty-nine states was confirmed. These states were formed into a loose German Confederation under the leadership of Prussia and Austria.

Representatives at the Congress agreed to numerous other territorial changes. Norway was transferred from Denmark to Sweden. Austria gained Lombardy-Venetia in Northern Italy, while much of the rest of North-Central Italy went to Habsburg dynasts. The Pope was restored to the Papal States. The Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia was restored to its mainland possessions, and also gained control of the Republic of Genoa. In Southern Italy, Napoleon's brother-in-law, Joachim Murat, was originally allowed to retain his Kingdom of Naples, but following his support of Napoleon in the Hundred Days war, he was deposed, and the Bourbon Ferdinand IV was restored to the throne. A large United Kingdom of the Netherlands was created for the Prince of Orange, including both the old United Provinces and the formerly Austrian-ruled territories in the Southern Netherlands.

From the Congress, Austria acquired the largest share of the territorial arrangement. Austria received territories which built up her kingdom in central and southern Europe. She renewed her hold in Italy by regaining Venetia and acquiring the provinces on the eastern shore of the Adriatic, as well as the Duchy of Milan. Hapsburg princes ruled in the lesser states of Modena, Parma, and Tuscany. Austria was also able to establish her authority in Germany. The allies decided that the German states should be united into a loose union over which Austria would preside. Hence, Austria succeeded France as the leader of Europe.

There were other, less important territorial adjustments, including significant territorial gains for the German Kingdoms of Hanover (which gained East Friesland from Prussia and various other territories in Northwest Germany) and Bavaria (which gained the Rhenish Palatinate and territories in Franconia). The Duchy of Lauenburg was transferred from Hanover to Denmark, and Swedish Pomerania was annexed by Prussia. The treaty also recognized Portuguese rights to Olivenza, but these were ignored, and the area remained under Spanish control.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Industrial Revolution, in modern history, the process of change from an agrarian and handicraft economy to one dominated by industry and machine manufacturing. This process began in Britain in the 18th century and from there spread to other parts of the world.

THE FIRST INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

In the period 1760 to 1830 the Industrial Revolution was largely confined to Britain. Aware of their head start, the British forbade the export of machinery, skilled workers, and manufacturing techniques. The British monopoly could not last forever, especially since some Britons saw profitable industrial opportunities abroad, while continental European businessmen sought to lure British know-how to their countries. Two Englishmen, William and John Cockerill, brought the Industrial Revolution to Belgium by developing machine shops at Liège (c. 1807), and Belgium became the first country in continental Europe to be transformed economically. Like its British progenitor, the Belgian Industrial Revolution centered in iron, coal, and textiles. France was more slowly and less thoroughly industrialized than either Britain or Belgium. While Britain was establishing its industrial leadership, France was immersed in its Revolution, and the uncertain political situation discouraged large investments in industrial innovations. By 1848 France had become an industrial power, but, despite great growth under the Second Empire, it remained behind Britain.

Other European countries lagged far behind. Their bourgeoisie lacked the wealth, power, and opportunities of their British, French, and Belgian counterparts. Political conditions in the other nations also hindered industrial expansion. Germany, for example, despite vast resources of coal and iron, did not begin its industrial expansion until after national unity was achieved in 1870. Once begun, Germany's industrial production grew so rapidly that by the turn of the century that nation was out producing Britain in steel and had become the world leader in the chemical industries. The rise of U.S. industrial power in the 19th and 20th centuries also far outstripped European efforts. And Japan too joined the Industrial Revolution with striking success. The eastern European countries were behind early in the 20th century. It was not until the five year plans that the Soviet Union became a major industrial power, telescoping into a few decades the industrialization that had taken a century and a half in Britain. The mid-20th century

witnessed the spread of the Industrial Revolution into hitherto non industrialized areas such as China and India.

THE SECOND INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Despite considerable overlapping with the “old,” there was mounting evidence for a “new” Industrial Revolution in the late 19th and 20th centuries. In terms of basic materials, modern industry began to exploit many natural and synthetic resources not hitherto utilized: lighter metals, new alloys, and synthetic products such as plastics, as well as new energy sources. Combined with these were developments in machines, tools, and computers that gave rise to the automatic factory. Although some segments of industry were almost completely mechanized in the early to mid-19th century, automatic operation, as distinct from the assembly line, first achieved major significance in the second half of the 20th century.

Ownership of the means of production also underwent changes. The oligarchical ownership of the means of production that characterized the Industrial Revolution in the early to mid-19th century gave way to a wider distribution of ownership through purchase of common stocks by individuals and by institutions such as insurance companies. In the first half of the 20th century, many countries of Europe socialized basic sectors of their economies. There was also during that period a change in political theories: instead of the laissez-faire ideas that dominated the economic and social thought of the classical Industrial Revolution, governments generally moved into the social and economic realm to meet the needs of their more complex industrial societies. That trend was reversed in the United States and the United Kingdom beginning in the 1980s.

CHAPTAE R TWO

THE CHARTIST MOVEMENT AND THE REVOLUTIONS OF 1848

THE CHARTIST MOVEMENT OR CHARTISM

Chartism was a movement for social and political reform in the United Kingdom in the mid-19th century. It gained its name from the people’s charter of 1838, which set out the main aims of the movement. Chartism is thought to originate from the passing of the Reform Act of 1832, which

gave the vote to the majority of the male middle classes, but not to the 'working class'. Many people made speeches on the 'betrayal' of the working class and the 'sacrificing' of their 'interests' by the British government. Chartism included a wide range of organizations.

In 1838, six members of Parliament and six working men (from the London Working Men's Association, set up in 1836) formed a committee, which then published the *People's Charter*, containing the following objectives: universal manhood suffrage for all men over the age of 21; equal-sized electoral districts; voting by secret ballot; removal of property qualification for members of Parliament, annual elections of parliament and salaries for members of parliament.

The movement organized a convention of 50 to facilitate the presentation of the petition. This meeting held in London from February 1839 until May when it moved to Birmingham. The convention called for a number of "ulterior measures" which ranged from calling on their supporters to withdraw their money from saving banks to a call for a sacred month, in effect a general strike. Meetings were held around the country and in June 1839 a large petition was presented to the House of Commons. Parliament, by a large majority, voted not to even hear the petitioners.

In early May of 1842 a further petition, of over three million signatures, was submitted which was again rejected by parliament. The Northern Star commented on the rejection: "Three and half millions have quietly, orderly, soberly, peaceably but firmly asked of their rulers to do justice; and their rulers have turned a deaf ear to that protest.

The depression of 1841-42 led to a wave of strikes in which Chartist activists were to the fore and demands for the charter were included alongside economic demands. In 1842 workers went on strike in the Midlands, Lancashire, Yorkshire, and parts of Scotland in favor of Chartist principles.

Between 1844 and 1848, five estates were purchased, subdivided, and built on, and then settled by lucky shareholders, who were chosen by lot. Unfortunately for O'Connor, in 1848 a Select Committee was appointed to investigate the financial viability of the scheme and it was ordered to be shut down.

The Chartists also stood in general elections from 1841 to 1859, and O'Connor was elected in 1847 Harney stood for Election against Lord Palmerston in Tiverton, Devon in 1847. On the 10th of

April 1848, Feargus O'Connor organized a mass meeting on Kennington Common, which would form a procession to present another petition to Parliament.

The petition O'Connor presented to Parliament was claimed to have only 1,957,496 signatures far short of the 5,706,000 O'Connor had stated and many of which were discovered to be forgeries. O'Connor has been accused of destroying the credibility of Chartism, but the movement continued strongly for some months afterwards before it petered out.

Chartism was a mass working class movement that emerged in the 1840s in Britain at a time when industrial capitalism has not yet outlived itself, i.e., it still had progressive elements. Besides, the Chartists were trying to overthrow the capitalist system through its own institutions, parliament and others. The chartist also lacked centralized leadership, coherence and a clear ideology or theory to be guided by. The communist Manifesto of Marx and Engels just came out in 1847 so late or early to be digested and integrated by the working class.

REVOLUTIONS OF 1848

In the Spring of 1848, revolution swept across Europe from France to Hungary, and within a few weeks the revolutionaries appeared victorious. The European Revolutions of 1848, in some countries known as the Spring of Nations or the Year of Revolution, were the bloody consequences of a variety of changes that had been taking place in Europe in the first half of the 19th century.

Two years of poor harvest and industrial recession in most of Europe preceded the outbreak of the revolutions of 1848. Nevertheless, economic crisis alone is not believed to have caused the revolution. Revolutions occurred where governments were distrusted and where the fear and resentment fed by rising food prices and unemployment found focus in specific political demands. Of course, these revolts had in common the pressures of economic distress and their emphasis on political freedoms. In politics, both bourgeois reformers and radical politicians were seeking change in their nations' governments. In society, technological change was creating new ways of life for the working classes, a popular press extended political awareness, and new values and ideas such as nationalism and socialism began to spring up. The tinder that lit the fire was a series of economic downturns and crop failures that left many of the poor starving.

The result was a wave of revolutions sweeping across Europe and raising hopes of liberal reform as far away as Brazil, where the rhetoric surrounding the Praieira revolt took many cues from European events, as did its thorough repression. Only the United Kingdom and Russia were missing: Russia had not yet a real bourgeois or proletarian class to initiate a revolution. In the United Kingdom, the middle classes had been pacified by general enfranchisement by the Reform Act of 1832, with the consequent agitations, violence, and petitions of the Chartist movement that came to a head with the petition to Parliament of 1848.

Nationalist appeals could be as powerful as calls for liberty, and stability required a strong state. Over the next thirty years, Italy and Germany each formed a single state as much of Europe adopted a model, exemplified by Britain and France, that expected the modern national state to shape public life through parliamentary legislation and efficient bureaucracy, that could manage the economy effectively, establish universal schooling, foster measures for public health, and support the institutions of high culture.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1848 IN FRANCE

The French middle class watched the changes in Britain with interest. When Britain's Reform Act of 1832 extended enfranchisement to anybody paying £10 or more per month (previously the vote was restricted to landholders), France's free press took interest. While the working class was perhaps slightly better off than Britain's, nominal laws against child labor were routinely flouted; unemployment threw skilled workers down to the proletariat level.

The year 1846 saw a financial crisis and bad harvests. The year 1847 saw a depression. A poor railroad system hindered aid efforts. Peasant rebellions were bloodily put down. Perhaps a third of Paris was on the dole. "Dangerous" writers proliferated such as Louis Blanc (*"The right to work"*) and Pierre Joseph Proudhon (*"Property is theft!"*, *"God is evil!"*); and secret societies sprung up.

However, the French government refused to widen the suffrage. The parliamentary opposition then launched a protest movement that staged larger banquets across the country. Crowds gathered in the streets, and the workers who could never have afforded banquet tickets started to build barricades. The government tried to calm down the revolt by taking some measures but when it realized that the revolt was out of control in February 1848, Prime Minister Guizot resigned. Soon after, King Louis Phillippe abdicated in favor of his grandson and left for England.

Upon hearing the news of Guizot's resignation, a large crowd gathered outside the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. An officer ordered the crowd not to pass, but people in the front of the crowd were being pushed by the rear. The officer ordered his men to fix bayonets, probably wishing to avoid shooting.

In the year 1848, 479 newspapers were founded. There was also a 54% decline in the number of businesses in Paris, as most of the wealthy had left; there was a corresponding decline in the luxury trade and credit was unobtainable. National workshops of the "Right to Work" were set up, which failed to prevent further social disorder.

The government set out to establish an economy and provide social services. New taxes were passed on the landed class, peasants, and small farmers, with the taxes intended to pay for social services for the unemployed in the cities. The taxes were widely ignored, and the new government lost the support of rural France. Hard-working rural farmers did not want to pay for unemployed city people and their new "Right to Work," which ballooned the population of Paris with far more job seekers than there were jobs. Some jobs were provided, such as building roads and re-planting trees, but it was clear the demands of government were far more pressing than the revolutionaries had foreseen.

The National Workshops and the "Right to Work" were later abandoned. Some enraged workers picked up guns, later leading to the "June Days Uprising." Before, workers and peti-bourgeoisie had fought together, but now, lines were tighter. Universal male suffrage was enacted on March 2, giving France nine million new voters. The Palais Bourbon was not victorious over the Hotel de Ville. It had to consent to a fusion of the two bodies, in which, however, the predominating elements were the moderate republicans. It was doubtful what would eventually be the policy of the new government. One party, seeing that in spite of the changes in the last sixty years of all political institutions, the position of the people had not been improved, demanded a reform of society itself, the abolition of the privileged position of property, the only obstacle to equality, and as an emblem hoisted the red flag. The other party wished to maintain society on the basis of its ancient institutions, and rallied round the tricolor.

THE BEGINNINGS OF COUNTER-REVOLUTION

The coalition finally splintered as the people's revolution turned against the people it liberated. A people's banquet was planned in late May; its planners were promptly arrested. The Assembly declared that National Workshops were to be dropped, and rumors of a worker rebellion later led to police action and over 1,400 killed (The June Days uprising). Many survivors were sent to the French colony of Algeria. To the propertied classes, the June Days uprising was something of a red scare. Others felt differently. Karl Marx saw the "June Days" uprising as strong evidence of a class conflict. Many of the participants were of the petite bourgeoisie, outnumbering the worker classes about two to one. In contrast, some workers were represented disproportionate to their population in society.

Politics continued to tilt to the right, and the end of the Revolution in France. In December, France elected a President and the candidate who had been prominent in the new republic finished far behind Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, who won 70 percent of the votes. He was a nephew of Emperor Napoleon I. He had written more about social questions and workers' needs than any other candidate; he was supported by the Catholic Church and the monarchists.

The life of the Second Republic was brief and troubled. Louis Napoleon eventually subverted the republic. In the third year of his four-year term, he began to quarrel seriously with the Chamber of Deputies that rejected a constitutional amendment that would have allowed him a second term. A coup d'état against him in December 1851 was crushed. Subsequently, potential opponents, including 200 deputies were taken into custody.

The 1848 revolution in France spread to other parts of Europe. An epidemic of revolution broke out in central Europe as the news of the success in one country spread to another. In the German states, Austrian Empire, and in Italy, the people rose at last to demand their rights and throw off the yoke of oppression.

THE REVOLUTIONS OF 1848 IN THE GERMAN STATES

"Germany" at the time of the Revolutions of 1848 was a collection of over 30 states loosely bound together in the German Confederation after the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Liberal pressure spread throughout the German states, each of which had a characteristic history of the revolutions. The revolution began in France at the end of February and soon spread to Germany. In the south and the west of Germany, large popular assemblies and mass demonstrations took place. They

primarily demanded freedom of the press, freedom of assembly, arming of the people, and a national German parliament.

In Berlin, the Prussian capital, people gathered particularly in the beer gardens and outside the gates, their demands culminated in an "address to the king". King Frederick William was completely overwhelmed by this situation, and yielded to all the demonstrators' demands, including parliamentary elections, a constitution, and freedom of the press. He even promised that "Prussia was to be merged forth with into Germany." However, the situation escalated on March 18 when during a huge demonstration two people were accidentally shot. Barricades were erected, fighting started, and blood flowed until troops were ordered to retreat. Besides, Frederick William assured the reorganization of his government and approved the armament of the citizens. He also agreed to lead a movement for a united Germany. On March 21, he paraded through the streets of Berlin accompanied by some ministers and generals, all wearing the tricolor of black, red, and gold (the flag of the new Germany).

By late 1848, the Prussian aristocrats (among them Otto von Bismarck) and generals had regained power in Berlin. They had not been defeated during the March days, they had only retreated temporarily. General von Wrangel led the troops who recaptured Berlin for the old powers. King Frederick William immediately rejoined the old forces. In November, he dissolved the new Prussian parliament and promulgated a constitution of his own (based upon the work of the assembly, but maintaining the ultimate authority of the king). Elaborated in the following years, the constitution came to provide for an upper house (Herrenhaus), and a lower house (Landtag), chosen by universal suffrage but under a three-class system of voting: representation was proportional to taxes paid, so that more than 80 % of the electorate controlled only one-third of the seats.

In Bavaria, a new liberal government (the "March ministry") was installed; King Ludwig I was forced to abdicate and get rid of his free-spending mistress, Lola Montez -- these were attempts to pacify the masses, contain the spreading of revolutionary ideas and save the monarchy by offering concessions.

REVOLUTION IN THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE

In 1848, the Austrian Empire under the Habsburgs was confronted with the combined effect of economic, social class, and nationalities conflicts. Within the boundaries of the Austrian Empire lived Austrian Germans, Hungarians, Slovenes, Poles, Czechs, Slovaks, Ruthenians, Romanians, Serbs, Italians and Croats.

The focus of hatred was Chancellor Metternich, a seeming avatar of reaction; the absolute ruler, the Emperor Ferdinand, was feeble-minded and incompetent. He was oddly popular, seen as guided by bad advisors. Moreover, business interests wanted reform. They wanted solid finance, roads, railroads, and technology. High tariffs crippled commerce; the crown would not lower tariffs on foreign wheat at times of famine. Press freedom was a liberal dream; government spies were everywhere. Factory workers were miserable. All books, newspapers and ads were government-approved. Private ownership of firearms was also restricted by the government.

Hungary was in a low-level nationalist revolt by 1844, their leader Kossuth attacking Chancellor Metternich. Kraków had been just annexed in 1846 following an unsuccessful Polish uprising. The 1847 depression hit hard. As a result, crime, prostitution, and beggary increased, and workers' couldn't afford potatoes.

The Paris Revolution filtered over to Vienna, raising the already-insistent calls for liberal reform. The Habsburg Court pressured Chancellor Metternich to step down in order to placate the subject nationalities, and he resigned on March 13, 1848, fleeing to England. He had been in office too long, now 74, and was seen as a reactionary, having conducted foreign affairs for thirty years, notably with less competence since 1835. Revolts broke out across the Empire; Lombardy and Venetia were in arms.

Vienna had troubles as well. There was violence and Luddite destruction of property. Many employers later announced concessions; on March 14 the press was declared free. Metternich's fall was a great victory for the revolutionaries. But the Revolution increased unemployment over 1847, and Vienna seemed in a reign of terror; there was a crime wave. The Habsburgs were pushed towards reform, though for but a short time. By April there was a constitution for parts of the empire.

Of the hodgepodge of nationalities Germans, Czechs, Italians, Poles, Serbs, Croats, Slovaks, Romanians, and Hungarians, the Hungarians and Italians pushed hardest for self-determination.

The Czechs held a Congress in Prague, asking for greater freedom in the Empire, but their status as peasants and proletariats surrounded by a German middle class doomed their autonomy. They also disliked the prospect of annexation of Bohemia to a German Empire. Both the Czech and Italian revolutions were defeated by the Habsburgs. Prague was the first victory of the counter-revolution in the Austrian Empire. On the meeting of the peoples of the Empire that was held in Bratislava, the Serbs have pleaded for the acknowledgement of their nation, education in their language and their separate region.

The early successes of the revolution in the Habsburg lands were easy perhaps too easy, for divisions in the revolutionaries soon showed, capitalized upon by the counter-revolution. On July 22, the Austrian Constituent Assembly gathered in Vienna, aware of the power of the revolutionaries, but frightened of mob rule and democracy. While the peasants scored genuine gains, the monarchy was untouched, and when the revolutionaries murdered the unpopular minister of war, counter-revolution put Vienna under military rule by October 1848. The Constituent Assembly invited the royal family back from Innsbruck; the weak-minded Emperor Ferdinand I was replaced.

Hungary, at just over half the land area of the Empire: agricultural, backward economically, controlled by a reactionary elite, and soon to fight a war of independence that was a lost cause from the beginning due to ethnic, linguistic, and religious splits.

The Hungarians set out to form their own government, but restricted the new Diet to speakers of Hungarian. Croatia, the only already autonomous province of the Hungarian Kingdom, sided with the Habsburgs and severed relations with the new Hungarian government. Josip Jelacic, who had become governor of Croatia in March, led an army into Hungary by September 1848. Hungarians filtered over from Italy; many women served, but independent Hungary progressively shrunk.

On the Hungarian National Assembly in Sremski Karlovci in May, 1848, Serbs, aided by the Romanians and Croats, declared the unification of the regions of Srijem, Banat, Backa, Baranja and one part of the Military frontier into the province of Vojvodina and wanted to unite with the Turkish autonomous state of Serbia. Hungarians were outraged by this declaration and their army

confronted the Serbian army near Suburban, where the Serbs and other peoples gained victory over Hungarians. Later Serbs and Croats reached an agreement to cooperate with Austria and Russia.

Subsequently, many were hanged or shot. The most operative of the executed are called the 13 Martyrs of Arad (Lahner György, Aulich Lajos, Damjanich János, Knezich Károly, Leiningen-Westerburg Károly, Poeltenberg Ernő, Török Ignác, Nagy-Sándor József, Dessewffy Arisztid, Kiss Ernő, Lázár Vilmos, Schweidel József). Kossuth and others ultimately escaped to America. While Kossuth was safe, Hungary was allotted repression as never before, controlled from Vienna, and all local control abolished. But serfs were legally freed, one of few victories, and over and above, Habsburgs couldn't prevent industrial developments in Hungary any more.

Vienna was under martial law, and counter-revolution had spread throughout the Empire. Baron Alexander von Bach was given an absolutistic mandate over the Kingdom of Hungary, including Croatia whose contribution to the quelling of the revolution was ignored. Despite real successes, nationalistic antagonisms doomed further reform. Bach was later replaced after the "Compromise" of 1867 and the creation of Austria-Hungary. The Austrian Empire collapsed in 1918 at the end of World War I.

THE REVOLUTIONS OF 1848 IN THE ITALIAN STATES

As with Germany, there was no "Italy" at the time of the Revolutions of 1848, but a hodge-podge of states. The most important were the kingdom of the Two Sicilies in the south, the Papal States and Tuscany in the center, and the kingdom of Sardinia in the island and in the northwest (the bulk of the kingdom actually consisted of what is now the Piedmont region). Italy was more progressive than other European states of the time. Even the poor often owned their own tiny pieces of land, and in the north women had slightly higher status than elsewhere, taking part in public affairs.

The Italian peninsula was more agricultural than most of Europe, apart from Russia that had no revolution in 1848. Farm products were subject to wild price uncertainty due to foreign competition, and the backwardness of Italian farming contrasted to more-efficient foreigners. There were food riots all through the 1840's to 1847; radical groups proliferated in Rome.

Politically, Italians wished for liberal government and the removal of Austria from the North-East. But these movements were restricted to part of the wealthy and the educated, and even this faction

was divided into moderates and radicals. Even if both of them agreed about the expulsion of Austria, the moderates were hoping to form a confederation of kingdoms with a liberal constitution, while the radicals were calling for a revolution followed by the formation of a unified Italian republic; their leader was Giuseppe Mazzini. In the 1830's he organized the *La Giovine Italia*, an organization which supported several failed insurrections in various parts of Italy.

Some reform surprisingly came from the Papal States. Upon his accession to the papacy in 1846, Pius IX was considered a relative liberal, giving political amnesties and other reforms such as a relaxation of the control on the press. In the 1847-1848 winter kings started conceding moderate constitutions in order to prevent insurrections. By March 1848 (when the last and most important of these constitutions the Statuto Albertino was promulgated in Piedmont) all the Italian states (with the exception of the Austrian-ruled Lombardo-Veneto) had formally become parliamentary monarchies.

The Lombardo-Veneto region was restless. Probably the least corrupt part of Italy, Lombardy's verdant land supported the most concentrated population in Europe, and by 1847 things were ripe. Things were made worse when, because of a border dispute, the Austrians took the town of Ferrara in the Papal States in July 1847, but later backed out because of the protests from pope Pius IX.

Citizens in Milan planned to quit using tobacco or play lottery as of January 1, 1848, both of which fed the Austrian treasury, and Austrian soldiers, angry at the success, soon shot and killed 61 Italians. Instead, the leaders of the Milanese insurrections, both for consolidating the revolution and for fear that the radicals could stage a social revolution, pledged allegiance to the king of Sardinia Charles Alberto of Savoy and invited him to join his forces with theirs.

After some indecisions, on 24 March the Piedmont army crossed into Lombardy, while the Austrian commander, Field Marshal Radetzky decided to retreat into the "Quadrilatero", a group of 4 fortresses (Peschiera, Mantova, Legnago and Verona) halfway between Milan and Venice. Meanwhile, the pressure on the Pope seemed to ease, and Pius IX changed his mind, stating that he could not endorse the war of a catholic country (Italy) against another (Austria).

The war narrowed to Piedmont against Austria: despite the enthusiastic help from various revolutionaries (such as those in Venice and the voluntaries led by Giuseppe Garibaldi), military

fortunes reversed, and the Austrians started gaining ground. But with Vienna a mess and Hungary in rebellion, the Austrian government ordered Radetzky to make a truce, an order he ignored.

The Italians were finally routed at Custoza in the end of July, and fell back to Milan. The Austrians granted the right of civilians to leave, and Milan lost half its population. Charles Albert decided to abandon the city (which fell on 7 August) and signed an armistice with Radetzky, who, given the pressing situation on other fronts, agreed to a return to the old border on the Ticino river.

In 1849, Piedmont alone launched another campaign against Austria, which rapidly ended with a defeat at Novara on 23 March 1849. Once again, Austria had to refrain from asking territorial concessions, but Charles Albert was forced to abdicate in favor of his son Victor Emmanuel II and go into exile. However, the constitution he conceded was not abrogated, and in the following decade Piedmont was the only Italian state with a parliamentary regime.

Even if the war between Austria and Piedmont stopped in August, the situation was still uncertain: Venice was holding ground against Austria, Sicily was fighting against king Ferdinand II of the two Sicilies and there were new insurrections in cities such as Bologna. The most important of these new insurrections was in Rome, where on November 15, 1848 Pellegrino Rossi, Prime Minister of the Papal States, was assassinated. While a crime wave was avoided, no one, the Pope included, took charge, and the Pope fled to the fortress of Gaeta, under the protection of Ferdinand II. In February 1849, he was joined by the Grand-Duke Leopold II of Tuscany who had to flee there because of another insurrection. In Rome, the authority that did take over passed popular legislation to eliminate burdensome taxes and give work to the unemployed. Garibaldi and Mazzini came to build a *Rome of the People*, and the Roman Republic was proclaimed.

The republic inaugurated prison and insane asylum reforms, freedom of the press, secular education, but shied away from the "Right to Work" having seen this fail in France. Runaway inflation might have doomed the Republic, and sending troops to defend the Piedmont from Austrian forces put Rome at risk of attack from Austria, but the Roman Republic would fall to another, unexpected enemy.

The French arrived April 20, 1849, though Garibaldi's attack sent them back to the sea. A siege constricted Rome through June, and it was over in early July. While the French were moderate, they were considered liberals all the same, and the Pope did not return until assured of no French

meddling in his affairs. Garibaldi escaped to the United States, only to return in the 1850s and help complete Italian unification under the lead of Piedmont. Mazzini fled to England; his days as a revolutionary were over.

On May 4, the Austrians began destroying the Venetian defenses. Soon no food could get in. The city surrendered in the end of August, after what is viewed as a heroic defense. It is debatable whether Charles Albert acted out of true Italian nationalism, or simply Piedmont's expansionism. What became clear, however, was that to achieve unification, Italy needed international help against the Austrians.

In the territories which were re-conquered by Austria, many were publicly flogged, and over 900 were executed for owning firearms. Wealthy revolutionaries could pay large fines or lose their property. Similar repressions took place in most parts of Italy where the kings had been overthrown. While Italy did moderate, independence was dead for about a decade. The moderate regime in the kingdom of Sardinia managed better concessions against the Austrians than would be expected, but the Revolutions in Italy were over. The Risorgimento, the Italian nationalist movement, triumphed within twenty years anyway. But not in 1848.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS ABOUT THE 1848 REVOLUTIONS

Ten years after the Revolutions of 1848, little had visibly changed, and many historians consider the revolutions a bloody failure. There are countless arguments, and we do not here attempt to analyze all sides. On the other hand, both Germany and Italy were unified in somewhat over 20 years, and there were a few immediate successes for some revolutionary movements, notably in the Habsburg lands. The Hapsburgs finally had to give the Hungarians more self-determination in the *Ausgleich* of 1867, although this in itself resulted only in the rule of autocratic Magyars in Hungary instead of autocratic Germans.

The revolutionaries were idealistic and divided by the multiplicity of aims for which they fought social, economic, liberal, and national. Conservative forces exploited these divisions, and revolutionaries suffered from mediocre leadership. Middle-class revolutionists feared the lower classes, evidencing different ideas; counter-revolutionists exploited the gaps. As some reforms were enacted and the economy improved, some revolutionaries lost heart.

Britain couldn't support the Revolutions, as her own subordinate peoples (like the Irish next door, starving in part because of Britain's repressive corn laws) would clamor for independence. Autocratic Russia of course did not support the Revolutions, actively helping Austria in her war with a restive Hungarian splinter group. Both Britain and Russia opposed Prussia's plans on Schleswig-Holstein, tarnishing their view among Germany's liberal nationalists. Russia was still feudal and oppressive, but Britain was mostly industrialized. Freedom of speech and the electoral reform of 1832 in Britain are telling differences with the rest of Europe, who of course pointed out how horribly the Irish were treated. The starving peasants of Ireland never rebelled, kept down by Britain's iron hand. Others were no luckier.

The next result in the German states and France was more autocratic systems, despite reforms such as universal male suffrage in France, and strong social class systems remained in both. What reforms were enacted seemed like sops thrown to quell dissent, while privilege remained untouched. Nationalistic dreams also failed in 1848. The Italian and German movements did provide an important impetus. Germany was unified under the iron hand of Bismarck in 1871 after her 1870 war with France; Italy was unified in 1861 as the United States was split into two nations and exploding into internecine civil war.

Some disaffected German bourgeois liberals migrated to the United States after 1848, taking their money, brains, and skills out of Germany and siding with the Union in the American Civil War, as they found slavery distasteful with their image of America. The year 1848 was a watershed year for Europe, after which things were never again the same.

CHAPTER THREE

THE GROWTH OF NATIONALISM AND IMPERIALISM

NATIONALISM

Nationalism has been the most powerful political force since the 1850s in the western world. Nationalism's deepest roots lie in a shared sense of regional and cultural identity, especially as those roots are expressed in custom, language and religion. It influenced all classes but more the urban people than peasants in the country side. One national issue concerning the unification of Italy and the unification of Germany dominated the international politics of Europe in the third

quarter of the nineteenth century. Nationalism was also an important element in the “Eastern question” which was a major issue in international relations since 1850s. The “Eastern question” meant what would happen to the Ottoman Empire in the Balkans and elsewhere as Ottoman power declined. In the Balkans the Ottoman Empire was threatened by Balkan nationalism liberation movements backed usually by Russia.

Moreover, nationalism created the atmosphere which made the World War I possible, in that nationalism aggravated the great international crisis of 1905-1914 and made peoples of Europe support the war when it broke out in July-August 1914. Nationalism, of course did not begin in the middle of the nineteenth century but it grew and intensified from then until the World War I.

There were several factors which promoted the growth of nationalism:

Compulsory primary education was used by government for state building and inculcating patriotism. Governments also used compulsory military service to inculcate patriotism and loyalty to state and ruler. Cheap newspapers for the masses were often chauvinistic in tone but nationalism and hostile feelings towards neighboring states were also features of the “quality” newspapers for the upper and middle classes.

Much of the literature of the years before World War I was also strongly nationalist and warned against dangers from neighboring countries. Patriotic societies were created to inculcate patriotism, to agitate for stronger armament and sometimes also to agitate for bigger colonial empires.

The wars of unifications in Italy and Germany and of national liberation in the Balkans stimulated nationalism. In British nationalism was stimulated by the small colonial wars which Britain fought so often though the second Boer War (1899-1902) was an unpleasant shock which cooled down British aggressiveness for a time until it was revived by fear of Germany. In the USA the victorious Spanish American War of 1898 stimulated American nationalism.

Pseudo-science also stimulated nationalism and inculcated aggressive hostile feelings towards neighboring states and the idea that war was inevitable. This pseudo-science was what became known as “Social Darwinism.” Social Darwinism” that spread the idea history is a struggle between states and nations for power, supremacy and even survival. The strongest state and nation

which were the best would be the victors while weak states and nations would be subjugated and even disappeared as they deserved.

CRIMEAN WAR

The Crimean War was the result of an obscure religious dispute that started in Jerusalem having repercussions in Europe. Under treaties negotiated during the eighteenth century, France was the guardian of Roman Catholics in the Ottoman Empire, whilst Russia was the protector of Orthodox Christians. For several years, however, Catholic and Orthodox monks had disputed possession of the Church of the Nativity and the Church of the Holy Sepulcher in Palestine. During the early 1850s, the two sides made demands which the Sultan could not possibly satisfy simultaneously. In 1853, the Sultan adjudicated in favor of the French, despite the vehement protestations of the local Orthodox monks.

When the Emperor sent his troops into Moldavia and Wallachia, the United Kingdom, seeking to maintain the security of the Ottoman Empire, sent a fleet to the Dardanelles, where it was joined by another fleet sent by France. At the same time, however, the European powers hoped for a diplomatic compromise. The representatives of the four neutral Great Powers United Kingdom, France, Austria and Prussia met in Vienna, where they drafted a note which they hoped would be acceptable to Russia and Turkey. The note met with the approval of the Emperor of Russia; it was, however, rejected by Sultan Abdul Mejid I, who felt that the document's poor phrasing left it open to many different interpretations.

The United Kingdom, France and Austria were united in proposing amendments to mollify the Sultan, but their suggestions were ignored in the Court of Saint Petersburg. The United Kingdom and France set aside the idea of continuing negotiations, but Austria and Prussia did not believe that the rejection of the proposed amendments justified the abandonment of the diplomatic process.

The following month, though the immediate cause of war was withdrawn, allied troops landed in the Crimea and besieged the city of Sevastopol, home of the Tsar's Black Sea fleet and a threat of future Russian penetration into the Mediterranean.

The Emperor Nicholas I presumed that Austria, in return for the support rendered during the Revolutions of 1848, would side with him, or at the very least remain neutral. Austria, however, felt threatened by the Russian troops in the nearby Danubian Principalities.

Though the original grounds for war were lost when Russia withdrew her troops from the Danubian Principalities, the United Kingdom and France failed to cease hostilities. Determined to address the Eastern Question by putting an end to the Russian threat to the Ottoman Empire, the allies proposed several conditions for the cessation of hostilities, including a demand that Russia was to give up her protectorate over the Danubian Principalities; secondly, she was to abandon any claim granting her the right to interfere in Ottoman affairs on the behalf of the Orthodox Christians; thirdly, the Straits Convention of 1841 was to be revised; and finally, all nations were to be granted access to the river Danube. As the Emperor refused to comply with the "Four Points," the Crimean War proceeded.

END OF THE WAR AND ITS PEACE SETTLEMENT

In the same year, the Russians occupied the Turkish city of Kars. Peace negotiations began in 1856 under the Emperor Nicholas I's successor, Alexander II. Under the ensuing Treaty of Paris, the "Four Points" plan proposed earlier was largely adhered to; most notably, Russia's special privileges relating to the Danubian Principalities were transferred to the Great Powers as a group.

The Treaty of Paris stood until 1871, when France was crushed by Prussia in the Franco-Prussian War. Whilst Prussia and several other German states united to form a powerful German Empire, the Emperor of France, Napoleon III, was deposed to permit the formation of a French Republic.

The Crimean War caused a mass exodus of Crimean Tatars towards the Ottoman lands, resulting in massive depopulation in the peninsula. Crimean Tatars became a minority in their homeland. The war became infamously known for military and logistical incompetence. Cholera undercut French preparations for the siege of Sevastopol, and a violent storm on the night of 14 November 1854 wrecked nearly thirty vessels with their precious cargoes of medical supplies, food, clothing and other necessities. The Crimean War also introduced the first tactical use of railways. The Crimean War occasioned the introduction of hand rolled "paper cigars" cigarettes to French and British troops, who copied their Turkish comrades in using old newspaper for rolling when their cigar-leaf rolling tobacco ran out or dried and crumbled.

UNIFICATION OF ITALY

Italian unification was the political and social process that unified disparate states of the Italian Peninsula into the single nation of Italy in the 19th century. It is difficult to pin down exact dates for the beginning and end of Italian reunification, but most scholars agree that it began with the Congress of Vienna in 1815 and the end of Napoleon's rule, and largely ended with the Franco-Prussian War in 1871, though the last irradiated cities did not join the Kingdom of Italy until the Treaty of Saint-Germain after World War I.

The establishment of the Italian Republic and later of the Kingdom of Italy, ruled by Napoleon, began to spur nationalism in those who lived in the region. As Napoleon's reign began to fail, other national monarchs he had installed tried to keep their thrones by feeding those nationalistic sentiments, setting the stage for the revolutions to come.

Following the defeat of Napoleonic France, the Congress of Vienna was convened to redraw the European continent, dividing and doling out much of the Italian peninsula among the prevailing European powers, fracturing the region into a patchwork of independent governments.

But groups in several Italian states began to push the idea of a unified Italian state again, feeding the flames of nationalism that had already been ignited in the populace. At the time, the struggle for Italian unification was perceived to be waged primarily against the Austrian Empire and the Hapsburgs, since they directly controlled northeastern Italy and were the single most powerful force against unification. The Austrian Empire fought hard against nationalist sentiment growing on the Italian peninsula (as well as in the other parts of the Empire) at the time, Austrian Chancellor Metternich stated that the word Italy was "purely a geographic expression."

Those in favor of unification also faced opposition from the Vatican, particularly after attempts to broker a confederation with the Papal States, which would have given them some measure of autonomy over the region, failed. The pope at the time, Pius IX, feared that giving up power in the region could mean the persecution of Italian Catholics.

Even among those who wanted to see the peninsula unified into one country, different groups could not agree on what form a unified state would take. One proposal (around 1847-1848) would have created a confederation of Italian states under the ruler ship of the Pope. Many leading

revolutionaries wanted a republic. But eventually it was a king and his minister who had the power to unite the Italian states as a monarchy.

Two prominent figures in the unification movement were Giuseppe Mazzini and Giuseppe Garibaldi. Among the more conservative constitutional monarchic figures, Count Cavour and Victor Emmanuel II, later the first King of a united Italy, were also important.

Mazzini, a native of Genoa, became a member of the Carbonari in 1830. His activity in revolutionary movements caused him to be outlawed soon after he joined, and in 1831 he went to Marseilles, where he organized a new political society called "Young Italy". He spent fourteen years there, taking part in several wars, and returned to Italy in 1848.

Italy, in 1852, was still politically divided and Austrian influence was still supreme restored after the failure of 1848-49 revolutions in Italy. In the North the two rich provinces of Lombardy and Venetia were part of the Austrian Empire. In the North-central of Italy there were the petty duchies of Parma, Modena and Tuscany which were very much under Austrian influence and ruled despotically by rulers related to the Hapsburg emperor of Austria. The Papal States still covered a wide band of territory across Italy consisting of the provinces of the Romagna, the Marches, Umbria and Rome and the patrimony as well as being the spiritual head of Catholics all over the world, the pope was the sovereign ruler of the Papal States. Since 1849 there had been a French garrison in Rome to protect the pope against any further revolution and to show Austria that France had an interest in Italy and did not accept that Italy was an exclusively Austrian sphere of influence. The south of Italy and the island of Sicily were the kingdom of Naples.

The main obstacle to Italian political unification was the power of Austria. Austria wanted to maintain the *status quo*. Another obstacle was the weakness of national sentiment in Italy. A favorable factor in the struggle for unification was the diplomatic isolation of Austria after the Crimean war (1853-56) and rivalries between France and Austria in Italy, which meant that Italian nationalism was able to use French help for Italian aims.

Cavour (1810-61) was the main architect of Italian unification "form above" as prime minister of Piedmont 1852-62 with only one short break in 1859. He prepared Piedmont for the role of leadership in Italian unification. In 1858, Cavour met the French emperor Napoleon III secretly at Plombiere, in France, and succeeded in reaching an agreement with Napoleon for an alliance of

France and Piedmont against Austria. Cavour had much to do with the successful unification of Italy. In sending a Sardinian army to assist France and England in the Crimea in 1855, he achieved standing among the European powers.

In April 1859, Cavour successfully provoked a declaration of War by Austria on Piedmont. Napoleon III then intervened on the side of Piedmont against Austria. The combined force invaded Lombardy and defeated the Austrian army at the Battles of Magenta and Salferino in June 1859. The Austrians were driven out of Lombardy but still held Venetia.

Francis II of the Two Sicilies, the son and successor of Ferdinand II, had a well-organized army of 150,000 men. But his father's tyranny had inspired many secret societies, and the kingdom's Swiss mercenaries were unexpectedly recalled home, leaving Francis only his unreliable native troops. It was a critical opportunity for the unification movement.

In 1860, there was a rising in Sicily against the unpopular government of the Kingdom of Naples. In April 1860, separate insurrections in Messina and Palermo occurred. These were easily suppressed by loyal troops. On May 6, 1860, Garibaldi and his cadre of about a thousand Italian volunteers, steamed from Quarto near Genoa, and after a stop in Talamone on May 11 landed near Marsala on the west coast of Sicily. At that time the successful military leader Garibaldi was invited to come from Piedmont to lead the Sicilian rising Garibaldi agreed to lead the Sicilian rising provide that the rising adopted the program of unification with the rest of Italy under Victor Emmanuel. He recruited his famous Thousand Volunteers in the North and took them to Sicily and joined by other volunteers there advanced up the peninsula and took the city of Naples.

By September 1860, Garibaldi's advance had been stopped at the River Volturno and the army of Piedmont was needed to complete the defeat of the king of Naples. This was done so as to gain some prestige for the government of Piedmont and the king rather than live all the glory and popularity to Garibaldi. In addition, Cavour did not trust Garibaldi politically because of his republican past.

The progress of the Sardinian army compelled Francis to give up his line along the river, and he eventually took refuge with his best troops in the fortress of Gaeta. His courage boosted by his resolute young wife, the Bavarian Princess Mary, Francis mounted a stubborn defense that lasted

three months. But European allies refused him aid, food and munitions became scarce, and disease set in, so the garrison was forced to surrender.

The Italian government used the 1866 Austro-Prussian War and the 1870-71 Franco-Prussian war to complete Italian unification. In 1866 in preparation for war against Austria Bismarck made an alliance with Italy on the bases that Italy would go to war against Austria on the side of Prussia and in return would get Venetia.

In the Austro-Prussian War of 1866, Austria- Hungary contested with Prussia the position of leadership among the German states. The Kingdom of Italy seized the opportunity to capture Venetia from Austrian rule and allied itself with Prussia. On April 8, the two powers signed an agreement that supported Italy's acquisition of Venetia, and on June 20, Italy declared war on Austria-Hungary. Within the context of Italian unification, the Austro-Prussian war is called *Third Independence War*, after the *First* (1848) and the *Second* (1859 – 1861).

Victor Emmanuel hastened to lead an army across the Mincio to the invasion of Venetia, while Garibaldi was to invade the Tyrol with his Hunters of the Alps. The enterprise ended in disaster. The Italian army encountered the Austrians at Custoza on June 24 and suffered a crushing defeat. Italy's fortunes were not all so dismal, though. In July, Garibaldi's volunteers defeated an Austrian force in the Battle of Bezzeca, and moved toward Trento. Meanwhile, Prussian Prime Minister Bismarck saw that his own ends in the war had been achieved, and signed an armistice with Austria on July 26. Italy, deserted by her ally, officially laid down its arms on August 12.

In 1870, the Franco- Prussian war made Napoleon III withdraw French troops from Rome. The Italian government therefore sent its troops and seized Rome and the patrimony in September 1870. Rome was soon made the capital of Italy. The national party, with Garibaldi at its head, still aimed at the possession of Rome, as the historic capital of the peninsula. In 1867 he made a second attempt to capture Rome, but the papal army, strengthened with a new French auxiliary force, defeated his badly armed volunteers. This led to the French army of occupation being returned to Civita Vecchia, where it was kept for several years.

Initially the Italian government had offered to let the pope keep the Leonine City (the walled part of Rome on the opposite side of the Tiber from the Seven Hills of Rome). But the pope rejected the offer because acceptance would have been an implied endorsement of the legitimacy of the

Italian kingdom's rule over his former domain. Pope Pius IX declared himself a prisoner in the Vatican, although he was not actually restrained from coming and going. Rather, being deposed and stripped of much of his former power also removed a measure of personal protection — if he had walked the streets of Rome he might have been in danger from political opponents who had formerly kept their views private. Officially, the capital was not moved from Florence to Rome until early 1871.

The Italian unification process was popular with the Italian people. Nevertheless, dissenters were present in the 19th century (mostly the rulers of the annexed states), and regionalist sympathies continue to the present day. There are two chief secession movements represented by active political parties: one in the North (Lega Nord), and one in the South (Due Sicilie). The former has elected representatives to the national parliament.

UNIFICATION OF GERMANY

In 1850s; the pre 1848 situation was restored in Germany, a loose confederation of 39 states called the German confederation (the Bund). The Bund was presided over by Austria with Prussia second. The Bund was not a satisfactory form of unity for German nationalists who wanted real political unity for reasons of German nationalism and economic reasons. German nationalism was encouraged by the success of Italian national unification between 1859 and 1861. The obstacles for German unification were; Austria which wanted to preserve the *status quo*.

Bismarck knew that Germany could not be united under Prussia without war against Austria and probably France. Austria would not give up her leadership in the Bund unless she suffered a defeat. The traditional French policy was to keep German politically divided therefore weak so that France too would probably not accept German unification unless France suffered military defeat.

Bismarck also knew that his program of uniting Germany would not be possible without good relations between Prussia and Russia. Therefore, he exerted all his diplomatic skills to maintain good relations with Russia. He was helped by the fact that Prussia and Russia had common interest in opposing Polish nationalism because both Russia and Prussia particularly the first had large areas of former Polish territories inhabited by the Polish.

Thus, Bismarck accomplished this through three military successes: He first allied with Austria in order to defeat Denmark in a short war (the Second war of Schleswig) fought during 1864, thus acquiring Schleswig-Holstein. In 1866, in concert with Italy, he virtually created the Austro-Prussian War and won a decisive victory at the Battle of Koniggratz, which, in the same year, allowed him to exclude long-time rival Austria when forming the North German Confederation with the states that had supported Prussia in the Austro-Prussian War. The Confederation was the direct precursor to the 1871 Empire. Finally, France was defeated in the Franco-Prussian War (1870-71); the Confederation was transformed into the Empire with the proclamation of Prussian King Wilhelm I as German Emperor at the Palace of Versailles, to the humiliation of the French.

THE DANISH WAR OF 1864

In 1864, Prussia and Austria co-operated against Denmark over the Schleswig and Holstein question. Schleswig and Holstein were the two duchies in dispute between Germans and Danes. They were ruled by the king of Denmark but separately from Denmark. In 1863 the king of Denmark tried to incorporate Schleswig into Denmark which arose strong nationalist opposition all over Germany.

Prussia and Austria then declared war on Denmark which was isolated and quickly defeated in 1864. After the peace treaty had made between the two parties, the disputable provinces were ceded to Prussia and Austria. Thus, Prussia began to administer Schleswig as Austria started to rule over Holstein. But this arrangement caused friction between Prussia and Austria. Bismarck was happy with this situation because he believed war with Austria was necessary.

THE AUSTRO-PRUSSIAN WAR OF 1866

The war was contest for supremacy in the German Bund between Prussia and Austria. Bismarck provoked war over Schleswig and Holstein and war between Prussia and Austria broke out in June 1866. The war was decided in about six weeks and the decisive Battle was a Prussian victory at the Battle of Sadowa on July 3, 1866. Bismarck then agreed a rapid and lenient peace with Austria before any possible intervention. Bismarck's war aim was to exclude Austria from a new organization of Germany and when Austria was willing to accept this Bismarck had no reason to continue the war.

Prussia's success in the war was the result of several factors: The alliance with Italy forced Austria to divide her forces; the Prussian infantry was armed with relatively better rifle which fired much faster than the Austrian one; the Prussian generals provided much better leadership than the Austrian high command; and the Prussian army reform of the 1860s had given Prussia a large number of trained reservists available for war time.

The results of the war were: peace was finalized between Prussia and Austria by the Treaty of Prague in August 1866; Austria accepted the dissolution of the Bund and Austria's exclusion from participation in the future organization of German states, Prussia annexed Schleswig and Holstein, Prussia also annexed a number of Northern German states which had opposed Prussia in the war, the states of Northern German which were not annexed had to join a new organization of German states under Prussian leadership called the North German confederation established in 1867, Italy gained Venetia, the war ended the confrontation between Bismarck and the Prussian parliament, and the war made Bismarck a big hero and a popular figure.

THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR OF 1870-71: THE COMPLETION OF GERMAN UNIFICATION

The Franco-Prussian War (July 19, 1870- May 10, 1871) was fought between France and Prussia (backed by the North German Confederation) allied with the south German states of Baden, Bavaria and Wurttemberg. The conflict marked the culmination of tension between the two powers following Prussia's rise to dominance in Germany, still a loose federation of quasi-independent territories.

Napoleon III got nothing for France from the war of 1866 while Prussia became much bigger and stronger and united north Germany and herself. Napoleon III's attempt to gain territorial compensation for France to balance Prussia's gains were frustrated by Bismarck. Prussia's victory, in general, weakened Napoleon's position internationally and so did internally with in France. He was strongly criticized for abandoning traditional French interests. In this situation, Napoleon III was bound to resist any further German unification. Bismarck on his part knew that France was an obstacle to the completion of German unification. He also believed that war against a traditional enemy, France, would cause national enthusiasm all over Germany and could be the means of uniting Germany.

France was suffered several military defeats in the battles which fought near the Franco-Prussian frontier. Eventually, at the decisive Battle of Sedan 1/2 September 1870 at which a whole French army was taken prisoner including Napoleon III himself. When the news of Sedan reached Paris, there was a popular rising 4th September 1870 which overthrew Napoleon III regime. It was replaced by a provisional government of National Defense which continued the war because Bismarck would not offer acceptable peace terms. The war continued disastrously for France. German army invaded France and besieged Paris new French armies raised by the provisional government were defeated.

On January 18, 1871 while the war was still in progress, German unification was completed. The south German rulers under Prussia form their armies and peoples agreed to join the North German states in a new Federal German Empire. William I, the King of Prussia, became also the German emperor presiding over the German princes. The new German Empire was proclaimed on January 18, 1871 in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles which the French regarded as a deep insult.

Soon after the proclamation of the new German Empire, French resistance ceased and armistice (cease fire) came into operation on January 28, 1871 was followed by the final peace, the Treaty of Frankfurt, in May 1871 on terms dictated by Bismarck, France ceded most of her rich provinces of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany and paid a large indemnity to Germany of 5,000 million Francs. Germany forces occupied parts of France until the indemnity had been paid in fact; the French paid very quickly and in 1873 German forces finally withdrew from France.

Bismarck himself prepared in broad outline the 1866 North German Constitution, to become the 1871 Constitution of the German Empire with some adjustments. Germany acquired some democratic features: notably the *Reichstag*, that in contrast to the parliament of Prussia was elected by direct and equal manhood suffrage. However, legislation also required the consent of the federal council of deputies from the states, in which Prussia had a large influence. Behind a constitutional façade, Prussia thus exercised predominant influence in both bodies with executive power vested in the *Kaiser*, who appointed the federal chancellor Otto von Bismarck.

The unification of Germany also meant absorbing the entire Kingdom of Prussia into it. The 3 new provinces: East Prussia, West Prussia, and Provinz Posen, that before was outside German Confederation were incorporated into would-be national Germany. Another province Silesia, was

part of the Holy Roman Empire together with Bohemia. However, those provinces had large Polish populations. Annexation of those 4 provinces put Germany into conflict with the Poles. Since the Polish population was growing more rapidly, and Germans were migrating from eastern to western Germany in the Ostflucht, eastern provinces gradually become more and more Polish in character. One factor, but only one, in the social anatomy of these governments had been the retention of a very substantial share in political power by the landed elite, due to the absence of a revolutionary breakthrough by the peasants in combination with urban areas.

Bismarck's domestic policies played a great role in forging the authoritarian political culture of the Second Reich. Less preoccupied by continental power politics following unification in 1871, Germany's semi-parliamentary government carried out a relatively smooth economic and political revolution from above that pushed them along the way towards becoming the world's leading industrial power of the time.

Not only did German manufacturers capture German markets from British imports, by the 1870s, British manufacturers in the staple industries of the Industrial Revolution were beginning to experience real competition abroad. Industrialization progressed dynamically in Germany and the United States, allowing them to clearly prevail over the old French and British capitalisms. The German textiles and metal industries, for example, had by the beginning of the Franco-Prussian War surpassed those of Britain in organization and technical efficiency and usurped British manufacturers in the domestic market.

Bismarck's unification of Germany also had a significant impact in East Asia. The unification of Germany was considered a model for both the successful modernization of Japan and the less successful modernization of China at the beginning of the 20th century. The German civil code became the basis of the legal systems of Japan and the Republic of China and after the retreat of the latter to Taiwan remains as the basis of the legal system there.

CHAPTER FOUR

WORLD WAR I AND ITS SETTLEMENT

THE WORLD WAR I

World War I, also known as the First World War, the Great War, the War of the Nations, and the War to End All Wars, was a world conflict occurring from 1914 to 1918. No previous conflict had mobilized so many soldiers or involved so many in the field of battle. It was then the second-bloodiest conflict of all time. Chemical weapons were used for the first time, the first mass bombardment of civilians from the sky was executed, and some of the century's first large-scale civilian massacres took place. Four dynasties, the Habsburgs, the Romanovs, the Ottomans and the Hohenzollerns, who had roots of power back to the days of the Crusades, all fell during or after the war.

World War I proved to be the decisive break with the old world order, marking the final demise of absolutist monarchy in Europe. It would prove the catalyst for the Russian Revolution, which would inspire later revolutions in countries as diverse as China and Cuba, and would lay the basis for the Cold War standoff between the Soviet Union and the United States. Additionally, it spelled the end of the Ottoman Empire in the east and laid the basis for a modern democratic Islamic state, Turkey. Activity by the French and British forces in the eastern part of the Ottoman Empire would give rise to several modern conflicts, including the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, the Greco-Turkish conflict over Cyprus, the Arab-Parisian conflict of the 1980s, and the attempted land grab of the 1990s by Iraq. The Greco-Turkish conflict, which ended in 1924, was the last direct major conflict of the war. The defeat of Germany in the war and failure to resolve the unsettled issues that had caused the Great War would lay the basis for the rise of National Socialism, and thus the outbreak of World War II in 1939.

It was commonly called "The Great War" (a title previously used to refer to the Napoleonic Wars) or sometimes "the war to end all wars" until World War II. The term "First World War," implying an event distinct from a "Second World War" has fallen into disfavor by some scholars, who regard World War I as merely the first phase of a three-decade long war spanning the period 1914-1945. World War I became infamous for trench warfare, where huge numbers of troops were confined to trenches and could move little because of tight defenses. This was especially true of the West Front. Over 9 million died on the battlefield, and nearly that many more on the home front due to food shortages, genocide, and ground combat.

THE ALLIANCE SYSTEMS OF WORLD WAR I

BISMARCK'S ALLIANCE SYSTEM

Despite Germany's power, its geographical position at the center of Europe was precarious and Germany had to reckon the permanent hostility of France. Bismarck wanted security for his country and peace if possible and his solution was alliances to isolate France and tie other powers with Germany. Bismarck's preference would have been a conservative bloc of the Three Eastern Empires: Germany, Austro-Hungary, and Russia. Bismarck in fact attempted to achieve this in 1873 with the League of Three Emperors but the bloc was broken down in 1877-78 because of contradictions between Russia and Austro-Hungary. In 1879, therefore, Bismarck made a Dual Alliance between Germany and Austro-Hungary. It committed each partner to support the other if attacked by Russia. This Dual Alliance became the corner-stone of German foreign policy up to World War I.

In 1882, the Dual Alliance was expanded into a Triple Alliance linking Germany, Austro-Hungary, and Italy. Bismarck was well aware of Italy's weakness and unreliability but he felt the Alliance was useful as a check on France because Italy and Germany promised to support each other against any French aggression. Also the Alliance would keep Austro-Hungary and Italy from going to war against each other.

Italy was willing to join the alliance because it was partly directed against France and in 1882 Italy and France were hostile because of the French occupation of Tunisia in 1881 which Italy had wanted. Also the alliance would safeguard Italy from attack by Austro-Hungary. Also by being a partner in the Triple Alliance Italy could show she was a great power. Also Italy hoped by escaping isolation and strengthening herself in Europe through the alliance to be able to pursue colonial aims in Africa. On the other hand, Bismarck was anxious to keep on as good relations as possible with Russia and to prevent Russia allying herself with France.

There was no relation between Germany and Britain. However, despite some frictions over colonies in Africa in the middle of 1880s and despite trade rivalry relations between the two, in the period of Bismarck, there were better relations between Germany and Britain than relations between Britain and Russia or after 1882 British occupation of Egypt between Britain and France.

THE RIVAL ALLIANCE SYSTEM

In 1890, the German emperor William II (r.1888-1918) forced Bismarck's resignation because of difference between the two on internal policy but mainly because William wanted to direct German policy by himself. German foreign policy after Bismarck's resignation was in the less able hand, of Bismarck's successors as chancellors and in the hands of William II himself whose erratic behavior and rash aggressive public speeches alarmed other states against Germany's intentions.

In any case the rise of German power and perceived German ambitions for European hegemony had an increasing effect in drawing France, Russia and then Britain together to confront Germany.

THE FRANCO-RUSSIAN ALLIANCE

In 1890, after Bismarck's departure, Germany refused to renew the 1873 treaty between Russia and herself though Russia wanted to renew it. Russia therefore believed that German policy had taken a new anti-Russia orientation. Thus Russia turned to France to escape isolation. Large French loans to Russia prepared the way for a new Franco-Russian alliance.

The Franco-Russian alliance established between 1891 and 1894 said that if Germany or Italy attacked France, Russia would support France. And if Germany or Germany with Austro-Hungary attacked Russia, France would support Russia. There was a military convention attached to the alliance. However, the alliance was defensive. Russia made it clear that she would not fight to recover Alsace and Lorraine for France. And also France made it clear that she would not fight to assist Russian ambitions in the Balkans.

THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE (1902) AND ANGLO-FRENCH ENTENTE, THE ENTENTE CORDIALE (FRIENDLY UNDERSTANDING)

The Anglo-Boer war (1899-1902) showed Britain how disliked she was in Europe and the dangers of British isolation. Britain also realized that she had insufficient power to defend a worldwide empire and to ensure home defense unless Britain could reduce the number of her potential enemies and gain some friends.

Therefore, in 1902 Britain made an alliance with Japan which strengthened British position in East Asia and allowed Britain to concentrate her strength more in Europe. For Japan the alliance enabled

her to go to war against Russia in 1904 without fearing the intervention of France or any other power against Japan.

In 1904, Britain and France resolved their colonial differences in an Entente; i.e. an agreement which established good relations on the principle basis that France now accepted the British occupation of Egypt and Britain agreed that France had major interest in Morocco. This was a secret addition to the Entente by which Britain agreed to a future partition of Morocco between France and Spain with France obtaining the major share.

However, the Entente was not a military alliance. France and Britain made no promise to support each other in war. Also Britain did not at first regard the Entente as anti-Germany. However, as German power increased and the Anglo-German naval race develop and as Britain feared German's future intentions, Britain drew closer to France and the Entente did become an alliance directed against Germany. Moreover, the Entente led directly to the first of the Great International crisis's which increased tension in Europe between 1905 and 1914.

THE CRISES THAT LED TO WORLD WAR I

THE BOSNIAN OR ANNEXATION CRISIS 1908-1909

In October 1908, Austro-Hungary acting unilaterally and formally annexed Bosnia-Herzegovina under Austro-Hungarian sovereignty. Bulgaria also obtained full independence from Turkey. The annexation set off an international crisis because Russia and Serbia were unwilling to accept the annexation, however, Austro-Hungary backed by Germany threatened Serbia with war if Serbia did not publically accept the annexation and promise to abandon irredentism against Austro-Hungary and promise to be a good neighboring to Austro-Hungary in the future.

Russia was unable to fight in support of Serbia because Russia had not yet recovered from the defeat in Russo-Japanese and the 1905 revolution. Moreover, neither Britain nor France would back Russia over annexation.

Russia and Serbia were therefore forced to accept the annexation in a big-diplomatic victory for Germany and Austro-Hungary. However, they gained little from this victory because Serbia did not abandon irredentism and not become a good neighbor rather antagonism between Austro-Hungary and Serbia increased. Moreover, terrorist actions were carried out by individual Serbs.

From 1911 on, regarding terrorist activities against Austro-Hungary were planned by the notorious Death Secrete Society in Serbia popularly known as the Black Hand.

This terrorist activity eventually led to the assassination of France Ferdinand by a Serb at Sarajevo in June 1914. This action convinced Austro-Hungarian ruling circles that war against Serbia to crush Serbia's independence was the only solution for Austro- Hungary's internal and external problems.

THE JULY CRISIS AND THE OUTBREAK OF WAR IN 1914

On June 28,1914 the heir to the dual monarchy the archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife Sophie Chotek were assassinated at Sarajevo, the provincial capital of Bosnia, to which the archduke was making an official visit. The assassination was carried out by Bosnia Serb Gavrilo Principe.

The Sarajevo assassination decided Austro-Hungary to abandoned diplomatic methods and make war on Serbia. A meeting of the Austro-Hungarian joint council of ministers agreed an attack on Serbia. Franz Joseph also approved the secret recommendation of his council of ministers.

Before acting against Serbia, Austro-Hungary sought a promise of German support if necessary against Russia if Russia intervened in support of Serbia against Austro-Hungary. Germany on 5-6 July 1914 secretly gave the promise the "Blank check" of unconditional support. Germany went further and urged Austro-Hungary to attack Serbia as quickly as possible.

Having gained German support for action against Serbia, Austro-Hungary then prepared and sent a harsh ultimatum to Serbia on 23 July 1914 demanding unqualified acceptance of all the demands in the ultimatum within 48 hours. Some of the demands compromised Serbia's sovereignty as independent state. In short, it was deliberately made as harsh as it was so that Serbia's rejection would be certain and war could follow.

In its July Ultimatum, Austria-Hungary demanded that the Serbian government undertake the following:

1. To suppress any publication which incites to hatred and contempt of the [Austrian] Monarchy;

2. To dissolve immediately the society styled Narodna Odbrana [National Defence], and to proceed in the same manner against the other societies which engage in propaganda against [Austria];
3. To eliminate without delay from public instruction in Serbia, both as regards the teaching body and the methods of instruction, all that serves or might serve to foment propaganda against Austria-Hungary;
4. To remove from the military service and the administration in general all officers guilty of propaganda against Austria-Hungary, names of which were to be provided by the Austro-Hungarian government;
5. To accept the collaboration in Serbia of organs of the Austro-Hungarian government in the suppression of the subversive movement directed against the territorial integrity of the monarchy;
6. To take judicial proceedings against the accessories to the plot of June 28th who are on Serbian territory, with the help and direction of organs delegated by the Austro-Hungarian government;
7. To immediately arrest two named persons implicated by the preliminary investigation undertaken by Austria-Hungary;
8. To prevent by effective measures, the cooperation of [Serbia] in the illicit traffic in arms and explosives across the frontier;
9. To furnish Austria-Hungary with explanations regarding statements from high Serbian officials both in Serbia and abroad, who have expressed hostility towards Austria-Hungary; and
10. To notify Austria-Hungary without delay of the execution of the[se] measures.

The Serbian government agreed to all but one of the demands, noting that participation in its judicial proceedings by a foreign power would violate its constitution. Austria-Hungary nonetheless broke off diplomatic relations (July 25) and declared war (July 28) through a telegram sent to the Serbian government.

Serbia's replay to the ultimatum which was handed over on the 25th July of 1914 just within the time limit was very conciliatory but refused the demands which infringed Serbia's sovereignty.

Since Serbia's reply was not complete, Austro-Hungary soon declared war on Serbia on 28 July 1914 and beginning hostilities by bombarding Belgrade.

When the news reached Russia of Austro-Hungary's ultimatum to Serbia, the Russian council of ministers met on the Tsar instructions on 24 July 1914 to consider the ultimatum and what Russia's action should be. The council recommended that Russia should support Serbia even at the risk of war against Austro-Hungary and Germany.

The Russian government order partial mobilization against Austria only. This policy was militarily impossible, but its intention was the diplomatic one of putting pressure on Austria to hold back its attack on Serbia. Germany's war strategy was first to attack France by sweeping through Belgium. In the east, the Germans planned to stand on the defensive against Russia until France had been crushed, a task they thought would take only six weeks.

As both camps were in full scale war, they sought new allies. Turkey and Bulgaria joined the central powers. The first was because of its hostility to Russia whereas the latter was the enemy of Serbia.

In 1915, Italy joined the Triple Entente because the land what Italy wanted was still occupied by Austria and she got a promise of delivering the territories from the allies. Romania joined the allies in 1916 but was quickly defeated and driven from the war. In the far East, Japan honored its alliance with Britain and entered the war. The Japanese quickly overran the German colonies in China and the Pacific.

In December 1916, President Woodrow Wilson of the USA attempted to negotiate the two camps but neither of them accepted him. Nevertheless, when the German government announced the resumption of unrestricted submarine warfare in February 1917, on April 6, the USA declared war on the central powers.

COURSE OF THE WAR

Some of the very first actions of the war occurred far from Europe, including Africa and the Pacific Ocean. On August 8, 1914 the German protectorate of Togoland was invaded by a combined French and British force. On August 10, German forces based in South-West Africa attacked South Africa, and on August 11, Australian forces landed on the island of Neu-Pommern, which was part

of German New Guinea. Within several months' German forces in the Pacific had surrendered, or had been driven out, whereas sporadic and often fierce fighting continued in Africa for the remainder of the war.

In Europe, Germany and Austria-Hungary suffered from miscommunication regarding each army's intentions. Germany had originally guaranteed to support Austria-Hungary's invasion of Serbia, but the interpretations of this idea differed. Austro-Hungarian leaders thought that Germany would cover their northern flank against Russia, but Germany had planned for Austria-Hungary to focus the majority of its troops on Russia, while Germany dealt with France on the Western Front. This confusion forced the Austro-Hungarian army to split its troop concentrations from the south in order to meet the Russians in the north. The Serb army, which was coming up from the south of the country, met the Austrian army at the Battle of Cer on August 12, 1914.

The Serbians were set up in defensive positions against the Austrians. The first attack came on August 16th, between parts of the 21st Austro-Hungarian division and parts of the Serbian Combined division. In harsh night-time fighting, the battle ebbed and flowed, until the Serbian line was rallied under the leadership of Stepa Stepanovic. Three days later the Austrians retreated across the Danube, having suffered 21,000 casualties against 16,000 Serbian casualties. This marked the first allied victory of the war. The Austrians had not achieved their main goal of eliminating Serbia, and it became increasingly likely that Germany would be forced to maintain forces on both fronts.

Germany's plan, the Schlieffen Plan, to deal with the Franco-Russian alliance involved delivering a knock-out blow to the French and then turning to deal with the more slowly mobilized Russian army.

The Ottoman Empire joined the Central Powers in October-November 1914, due to the secret Turco-German Alliance signed on August 2, 1914, threatening Russia's Caucasian territories and Britain's communications with India and the East via the Suez Canal. British action opened another front in the South with the Gallipoli (1915) and Mesopotamia campaigns, though initially the Turks were successful in repelling enemy incursion. But in Mesopotamia, after the disastrous Siege of Kut (1915–16), the British reorganized and captured Baghdad in March 1917.

Russian armies generally had the best of it in the Caucasus. Enver Pasha, supreme commander of the Turkish armed forces, was a very ambitious man, with a dream to conquer central Asia. He was not a practical soldier. He launched an offensive with 100,000 troops against the Russians in the Caucasus in December of 1914. Insisting on a frontal attack against Russian positions in the mountains in the heart of winter, Enver lost 86% of his force.

Italy joined the Entente by signing the London Pact in April and declaring war on Austria-Hungary in May 1915; it declared war against Germany fifteen months later. In general, the Italians enjoyed numerical superiority, but were poorly equipped; instead, the Austro-Hungarian defense took advantage of the mostly mountainous terrain, which was anything but suitable for military offensives.

In December, the Central Powers signed an Armistice with Russia, thereby releasing troops from the eastern front for use in the west. Ironically, German troop transfers could have been greater if their territorial acquisitions had not been so dramatic. Early in 1917 Germany resumed its policy of unrestricted submarine warfare. This, combined with public indignation over the Zimmermann telegram, led to a final break of relations with the Central Powers. President Woodrow Wilson requested that the U.S. Congress declare war on Germany, which it did on April 6, 1917.

The British and French insisted that the United States emphasize sending infantry to reinforce the line. Pershing also maintained the use of frontal assaults, which had been discarded by that time by British and French commanders. As a result, the American Expeditionary Force suffered a very high rate of casualties in its operations in the summer and fall of 1918.

The Germans made plans for a 1918 general offensive along the Western Front. German strength in the West was additionally boosted by the recent transfer of divisions from the Eastern Front. The is known as the German Spring offensive of 1918.

The resulting Allied counter attack marked the first successful Allied offensive of the war. By July 20, 1918, the Germans were at their Kaiserschlacht starting lines. Following the last phase, the German Army never again held the initiative. Meanwhile, Germany was crumbling internally as well. Anti-war marches were a frequent occurrence and morale within the army was at low levels.

On August 8, 1918, the predicted counter-offensive occurred. It involved 414 tanks of the Mark IV and Mark V type, and 120,000 men. The allies had advanced twelve kilometres into German

territory in just seven hours. Erlich Ludendorff referred to this day as "the Black Day of the German army".

THE END OF THE WAR

Bulgaria was the first of the Central Powers to sign an armistice in September 29, 1918. Germany requested a cease-fire on October 3, 1918. On November 3 Austria-Hungary sent a flag of truce to the Italian Commander to ask an Armistice and terms of peace. The Armistice with Austria was granted to take effect at three o'clock on the afternoon of November 4. Austria and Hungary had signed separate armistices following the overthrow of the Habsburg monarchy.

Following the outbreak of the German Revolution, a Republic was proclaimed on November 9, marking the end of the German Empire. The Kaiser fled the next day to the Netherlands, which granted him political asylum. On November 11 Germany signed in a railroad car at Compiegne, in France, an armistice with the Allies. On the eleventh day of the eleventh month at the eleventh hour it was official, the war was over.

SOME EFFECTS OF THE WAR

One of the distinguishing features of the war was its totality. All aspects of the societies fighting were affected by the conflict, often causing profound societal change, even if the countries were not in the warzone.

One of the most dramatic such effects was the expansion of government, its powers and responsibilities in Britain, France, the United States, and the British dominions. At the same time, the war strained the abilities of the formerly large and bureaucratized governments such as in Austria-Hungary and Germany. Here, however, the long term effects were clouded by the defeat of these governments.

The First World War was different from prior military conflicts: it was a meeting of 20th century technology with 19th century mentality and tactics. This time, millions of soldiers, both volunteers and conscripts fought on all sides.

The First World War also saw the use of chemical warfare and aerial bombardment, both of which had been outlawed under the 1907 Hague Convention. Chemical warfare was a major

distinguishing factor of the war. Gases used ranged from tear gas to disabling chemicals such as mustard gas and killing agents like phosgene.

U-boats, or submarines, were first used in combat shortly after the war began. Alternating between restricted and unrestricted submarine warfare during the First Battle of the Atlantic, they were employed by the Kaiserliche Marine in a strategy of weakening the British Empire by attacking its merchant shipping. In 1915, the RMS Lusitania liner was sunk with United States citizens aboard, affecting the United States' entry into the war. Tanks were developed and used for the first time during this war.

No part of the world was unaffected by the war. About 8 million Soldiers died, and nearly three times as many were wounded. The war was costing \$ 10 million an hour. By November 1918, the total cost was about \$ 186 billion.

The First World War ended with a Europe scarred by trenches, spent of resources, and littered with the bodies of the millions who died in battle. The direct consequences of WWI brought many old regimes crashing to the ground, and ultimately, would lead to the end of 300 years of European hegemony.

THE PEACE SETTLEMENT

Soon after the end of the First World War, the following peace treaties were signed: Versailles Treaty (it was signed between the Allies and Germany in June 1919); St. Germain Treaty (between the Allies and Austria in September 1919); Trianon Treaty (between the Allies and Hungary in June 1920); Neville Treaty (between the Allies and Bulgaria in November 1919); and Sevres Treaty (between the Allies and Turkey in August 1920). The Peace negotiations were held in Paris in the period between 1919 and 1920 and the final treaties were signed in Ceremonies at different Palaces near Paris. It is from these Palaces that the treaties took their names.

The peace settlement, particularly in Europe, was determined by the "big four" President Wilson (USA) Prime Minister Clemenceau (France), Prime Minister Lloyd George (United Kingdom) and Orlando (Italy). In fact, the peace conference was really dominated the "Big Three" Wilson, Clemenceau, and Lloyd George. The Middle East settlement, however, was largely determined by Britain and France because Wilson returned to the USA and fallen sick.

The peace settlement after World War I was targeted at security (especially for France) against Germany in the future and punishment of former enemies.

UNIT FIVE

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION OF 1917

THE REVOLUTION

The Russian Revolution of 1917 was a political movement in Russia that climaxed in 1917 with the overthrow of the Provisional Government that had replaced the Russian Tsar system, and led to the establishment of the Soviet Union. The Revolution can be viewed in two distinct phases. The first one was that of the February Revolution of 1917, which displaced the autocracy of Tsar Nicholas II of Russia, the last effective Tsar of Russia, and sought to establish in its place a liberal republic. The second phase was the October Revolution, in which the Soviets, inspired and increasingly controlled by Vladimir Lenin's Bolshevik party, seized power from the Provisional Government. The revolution affected both the urban areas and the countryside. While many notable historical events occurred in Moscow and St. Petersburg, there was also a broad-based movement in the rural areas as peasants seized and redistributed land.

The Russian Revolution was one of the most important events in modern world history. Its impact was evident in both Europe and America. Although Communism did not spread directly as a result of the Russian Revolution, it did spread indirectly to third world countries. Russia served as the model for third world countries to modernize their government through Communism. In addition, the fear of Communism spreading to America during the Cold War also portrays the immense global impact of the Russian Revolution. In any case, the Russian Revolutions of 1917 were broken down into two main parts: the overthrow of the tsarist regime (February Revolution) and the creation of the world's first Communist state (October Revolution).

CAUSES OF THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

The causes of the Russian revolution encompass Russia's political, social, and economic situation. Politically, the people of Russia resented the dictatorship of Tsar Nicholas II. The losses that the Russians suffered during World War I further weakened Russia's view of Nicholas. Socially, the

despotic tsarist regime had oppressed the peasant class for centuries. This caused unrest within the lower peasant class causing riots to break out. Economically, widespread inflation and famine in Russia contributed to the revolution. Ultimately, weaknesses in Russian policy, society and economy were the causes of the Russian Revolution. The political causes of the Russian Revolution were mainly brought on by the dictatorship of Tsar Nicholas II and Russia's losses during World War I. Prior to the war, the educated classes (many educated in the West) of Russia resented the autocracy of Nicholas. After Russia had suffered staggering losses in World War I, however, the lower, uneducated classes came to despise him. In 1915, Nicholas took over command of the army, leaving his incapable wife Alexandra in charge of the government. By the end of October 1916, Russia had lost between 1.6 and 1.8 million soldiers, with an addition two million prisoners of war and one million who had gone missing. One can deduce that when one million men went missing, the morale of the Russian Army was not very high. Mutinies began to occur, and in 1916 reports of fraternizing with the enemy began to come in. Soldiers went hungry and lacked shoes, munitions, and even weapons. Rampant discontent lowered morale, only to be undermined by a series of military defeats. As this discontent and utter hate of Nicholas grew, the State Duma (lower class of Russian parliament comprised of landowners, townspeople, industrial workers, and peasants) issued a warning to Nicholas in November 1916 stating that disaster would overtake the country unless a constitutional form of government was put in place. Nicholas, however, ignored this. As a result, the tsarist regime in Russia collapsed a few months later during the February Revolution of 1917. In sum, Nicholas's ineptness in handling World War I caused mass disorder within Russia and eventually led to the collapse of the tsarist regime.

The social causes of the Russian Revolution mainly stemmed from centuries of oppression towards the lower classes and World War I. The peasant population of Russia, making up about 85% of the then entire population of Russia, had been under harsh oppression from the upper classes and the tsarist regime. Many would associate serfdom with the Middle Ages.

The economic causes of the Russian Revolution were brought on almost entirely by World War I. Over fifteen million men joined the army, leaving an insufficient number of workers in the factories and on the farms. As a result, there were widespread shortages on food and materials. The railway network and transportation system grew inefficient and disorganized.

THE BOLSHEVIKS

A Bolshevik (derived from a Russian word loosely translated as "majority") was a member of a faction of the Russian Social Democratic Labor Party (RSDLP), a Marxist political party. Bolsheviks led by Vladimir Lenin seized power in Russia in 1917, a world-historical event known as the October Revolution. The other faction of the RSDLP was known as the Mensheviks, derived from "minority". The split into two factions occurred at the Second Party Congress in 1903. After the split, the Bolshevik party was designated as RSDLP(b) (where "b" stands for "Bolsheviks").

Shortly after the Bolsheviks seized power during the Russian Revolution of 1917, they changed their name to the *All-Russian Communist Party (Bolsheviks)* in 1918 and were generally known as the Communist Party after that point. However, it was not until 1952 that the party formally dropped the word Bolshevik from its name. The word "Bolshevik" is sometimes used as a synonym of Communist. It was often used by right-wingers outside the Soviet Union as a derogatory term for left-wingers, not all of whom were necessarily Communists. The Bolshevik political platform has often been referred to as *Bolshevism*.

The Bolsheviks believed in organizing the party in a strongly centralized hierarchy that sought to overthrow the Tsar and achieve power. Although the Bolsheviks were not completely monolithic, they were characterized by a rigid adherence to the leadership of the central committee, based on the notion of democratic centralism. The Mensheviks favored open party membership and espoused cooperation with the other socialist and some non-socialist groups in Russia. Bolsheviks generally refused to co-operate with liberal or radical parties (which they labeled "bourgeois") or even eventually other socialist organizations, although Lenin sometimes made tactical alliances.

The Bolsheviks played a minor role in the 1905 revolution, and were a minority in the St. Petersburg Soviet of Workers' Deputies led by Trotsky. The less significant Moscow soviet, however, was dominated by the Bolsheviks. These soviets became the model for the soviets that were formed in 1917. During the First World War, the Bolsheviks took an internationalist stance that emphasized solidarity between the workers of Russia, Germany, and the rest of the world, and broke with the Second International when its leading parties ended up supporting their own nations in the conflict.

THE FEBRUARY 1917 REVOLUTION

February 1917 strikes and demonstrations by the workers of Petrograd escalated into a revolution which had not been planned by the Bolsheviks party or any other party. In short it came before their expectation. The Petrograd garrison joined the people and the Tsar government was collapsed. The Tsar himself was induced by his own generals and some Duma politicians to abdicate. They believed that without the discredited Nicolas as Tsar and with a more acceptable government it would be possible to avoid socialist revolution and continued the war to victory.

During the February Revolution the Petrograd workers re-established the Petrograd soviet which had first been established in 1905 Revolution, but had been crushed when the 1905 Revolution failed. The Petrograd soviets consisted of elect representatives from factory workers and soldiers of Petrograd. At first the Petrograd Soviet and its executive committee were dominated by the Mensheviks and Socialist Revolutionaries but later the Bolsheviks gained increasing control over it. The soviets soon spread all over Russia. This led to the formation of the All Russia Congress of Soviets. It conducted its first meeting in the summer of 1917. The second meeting was considered with the Bolshevik October Revolution. During the February Revolution members of Duma politicians established a provisional government.

The February Revolution was a bourgeois revolution it overthrew Tsarism and made Russia for a time more democratic but it was not a socialist revolution with socialist leaders in power and the means of production such as land, industries, banks, etc... were still in the hands of capitalists and landowners.

A new Provisional Government was formed, also called the Duma, while elections were being planned. Between February and October revolutionists attempted to foment further change, working through the Petrograd Soviet or more directly. In July, the Petrograd Bolsheviks, in combination with the Petrograd anarchists, fomented a civil revolt. But, this revolt failed.

THE OCTOBER 1917 REVOLUTION

After the February Revolution, Lenin, the leader of the Bolsheviks party, returned to Russia from Switzerland where he spent most of the war in exile. From April-October 1917 the situation in Russia was favorable to make revolution, because the war and the economic crisis discredited the provisional government and also the Mensheviks and Socialist Revolutionary Party that supported

or at least tolerated the provisional government. The Bolsheviks party, on the other hand, gained increasing support from the masses.

The Bolsheviks slogan at that time was "Peace! Bread! Land! All power to the Soviets!" gained the Bolsheviks strong support. The non-Russian nationalities were also dissatisfied with the lack of attention given to the demands of the nationalities by the provisional government whereas the Bolsheviks promised self-determination even up to secession if the nationalities demanded it.

On October 10, the Bolshevik Central Committee established a smaller Politburo to run party affairs due to the increased demands on the party for day-to-day direction. Bubnov, Zinoviev, Kamenev, Lenin, Sokolnikov, Stalin and Trotsky were elected to the body which operated for two weeks and dissolved on October 25, 1917, once the Bolsheviks had taken power in the October Revolution.

In October 1917, Lenin pushed the central committee of his party in a secret meeting to take the decision to carry out an insurrection and take power. On November 7, 1917, Bolshevik leader Vladimir Lenin led his leftist revolutionaries in a nearly bloodless revolt against the ineffective Provisional Government (Russia was still using the Julian Calendar at the time, so period references show an October 25 date). The Bolsheviks successively carried out an insurrection in Petrograd and also Moscow. The October Revolution was led by Lenin and was based upon the ideas of Karl Marx. It marked the beginning of the spread of communism in the twentieth century. It was far less sporadic than the revolution of February and came about as the result of deliberate planning and coordinated activity to that end. The October Revolution ended the phase of the revolution instigated in February, replacing Russia's short-lived provisional government with a Soviet one.

On October 26, 1917, having carried out the insurrection the Bolsheviks announced the transfer of power to the Second Congress of All Russian Congress of Soviet which was then meeting. In fact power was in the hands of the Bolshevik party. The Bolsheviks established a government called the *Soviet Council of People's Commissars* headed by Lenin and Trotsky as commissar of the Red Army and minister of foreign affairs and Bolsheviks taking the other positions of what was the new government of the country.

The Bolsheviks knew that Russia and Russian army wanted peace very quickly. Therefore, immediately after the October Revolution, the new Bolshevik government proposed peace negotiations to the belligerent powers even though this meant negotiating with capitalist government. The allied government ignored this appeal for peace negotiations and did not even recognize the new Bolshevik's government. However, the central powers agreed an armistice with Russia and unilateral peace negotiation between Russia and the central powers was carried out because it was also the interest of the central powers to get Russia out of the war. Russia made a separate peace with the central powers by the treaty of Brest Litovsk in March 1918. Germany dictated the terms of this treaty. Soviet Russia only got peace by ceding enormous areas of land including the whole Ukraine.

After October 1917, many Easers (Socialist-Revolutionaries) and Russian Anarchists opposed the Bolsheviks through the soviets. When this failed, they revolted in a series of events calling for "a third revolution." The most notable instances were the Tambov rebellion, 1919 - 1921, and the Kronstadt rebellion in March 1921. These movements, which made a wide range of demands and lacked effective coordination, were eventually crushed during the Civil War.

THE CIVIL WAR

The Civil War was fought between 1918 and 1922. Following the success of the Russian Revolution, the new Bolshevik government made peace with Germany at the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, ratified on March 6, 1918. This negotiated peace was the only option because the Russian army was in a chaotic and undisciplined state when the Germans advanced in February 1918, although the old Russian army had been re-organized in January into the "Workers' and Peasants' Red Army". This treaty galvanized a number of anti-Bolshevik groups inside and outside Russia to act against the new regime. For example, Winston Churchill declared that Bolshevism must be "strangled in its cradle".

The war was fought mainly between the "Reds" who were the communists and revolutionaries, and the "Whites" who were the monarchists, conservatives, liberals and socialists who opposed the Bolshevik Revolution. Also, a group of nationalist and anarchist movements known as the "Greens", or sometimes the Black Army for the latter, played a much smaller part in the war, harrying both the Reds and the Whites, and sometimes even each other. In addition, the Entente

and some other countries intervened on the side of the Whites, which aggravated the civil war. The war was fought across three main fronts the eastern, the southern and the northwestern. It can also be roughly split into three periods.

The first period lasted from the Revolution until the Armistice. The conflict began with dissenting Russian groups; the main force was the newly formed Volunteer Army in the Don region which was joined later by the Czecho-Slovak Legion in Siberia. Among the antagonists were the Czecho-Slovaks, known simply as the Czech Legion or White Czechs, the Poles of the Polish 5th Rifle Division and the pro-Bolshevik Red Latvian riflemen.

The second period of the war was the key stage, which lasted only from March to November 1919. At first the White armies' advances from the south (under Anton Denikin), the northwest (under Nikolai Nikolaevich Yudenich) and the east (under Aleksandr Vasilevich Kolchak) were successful, pushing back the new Red Army and advancing towards Moscow.

The final period of the war was the extended siege of the last White forces in the Crimea. Pyotr Nikolayevich Wrangel had gathered the remnants of the armies of Denikin and they had fortified their positions in the Crimea. They held these positions until the Red Army returned from Poland where they had been fighting the Polish-Soviet war from 1919 or earlier. When the full force of the Red Army was turned on them the Whites were soon overwhelmed, and the remaining troops were evacuated to Constantinople in November 1920.

The Bolsheviks controlled the most populous areas of Russia and, when the decisive battle took place, had more than 3 million men under arms. In 1921 they had 5 million, although desertion and disease depopulated the ranks. More than 75,000 ex-Tsarist officers served in the Red army. The strength of the White armies never exceeded 250,000. The Bolsheviks also controlled the main industrial regions and inherited almost all of the weapons of the Czarist(or Tsarist) army.

Other advantages the Red Army had over the Whites were leadership and discipline. Leon Trotsky was appointed as Commissar for War in 1918 after the signing of the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk. He was a brilliant speaker and military organizer. From a core of Red Guards, which had been armed by the Provisional Government during the Kornilov Revolt, Trotsky built up the Red Army through conscription. Trotsky, however, was not responsible for the conduct of the military operations, which remained in the hands of professional generals from the former Imperial army.

At the end of the Civil War, Soviet Russia was exhausted and ruined. The droughts of 1920 and 1921 and the 1921 famine worsened the disaster. The War had taken an estimated 8 million lives, only a few years after the nearly bloodless October Revolution, including at least one million soldiers of the Russian Red Army died in war action. Fifty thousand of Russian Communists were killed by the counter-revolutionary Whites. The economic loss to Soviet Russia was 50 billion of gold ruble. The industrial production value descent 4-20% of the value of 1913. Another million had left Russia through the Far East, or in numerous other ways in order to escape the ravages of the war, the famine, or the rule of either warring faction. These emigres included a large part of the educated and skilled population.

THE SOVIET STATE AND THE SOVIET ECONOMY

1917-41

THE SOVIET STATE

The dictatorship of the proletariat in alliance with the peasants and the rule of the Soviet was in practice was the dictatorship of the Bolshevik Party. Within the party itself inner party democracy soon disappeared. After the death of Lenin in 1924, Stalin took power and established a complete personal dictatorship by the 1930s over the party and the state.

The capital of Soviet Russia was moved in March 1918 from Petrograd to Moscow. And in 1924 after Lenin's death Petrograd was renamed Leningrad. In 1922, the state structure of Soviet Russia became the USSR, i.e., the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. This was an association in theory voluntary national republics which often had within them autonomous areas of minority nationalities. This new structure was supposed to solve the nationalities problem for the USSR or any other multi-national socialist state. In practice, the association was not voluntary and all important political and economic decisions for the USSR as a whole were taken as a center in Moscow by the party.

In its external relations, the Soviet state at first hoped that socialist revolution would spread to all economically advanced countries. In fact, many Bolsheviks at first believed that socialist power in Russia could only survive if socialist revolution spread to other countries particularly to the advance industrialized countries. Lenin and Trotsky said that the goal of socialism in Russia would

not be realized without the success of the world proletariat in other countries, e.g. without German Revolution.

In the period between 1936 and 1938 Stalin carried out the Great Purge which killed or sent to forced labor camps in the Arctic and elsewhere. Millions of Soviet citizens, party members and officers of the armed forces suffered severely by the Purge.

In the civil war period (1918-1921), the economic policy of the party was called “War Communism”. Under “War Communism” all industrial production and distribution were in the hands of the state. The peasants were not yet forced into socialist forms of agriculture but grain and other food supplies were requisitioned from the peasants without payment or with payments only inflicted worthless paper currency to feed the Red Army and the workers in the towns.

In the period between 1927 and 1929, Stalin reversed the “New Economic Policy” and went over to a fully socialist economy. In 1927, the USSR began the drive to rapid industrialization concentrating on heavy industry, oil production, hydro-electric power, railway construction and industrial expansion in Urals region and Siberia. All industries were now state owned and operated. The industrialization was carried out through five year plans.

In 1929 socialism was applied to agriculture and between 1929 and 1932 the peasants all over Russia were forced into collective farms and state farms. These collective and state farms were very large and were to be operated by agricultural machineries. The *Kulaks* (rich peasants) and all peasants who opposed collectivization were liquidated.

However, initially collectivization was disastrous for agricultural production. It resulted in a large scale man made famine in 1932-33 especially in the Ukraine and a big drop in agricultural production. Politically collectivization alienated the peasants who did not well come it though party propaganda said that peasants welcomed and liked collectivization. Nevertheless, peasant’s dissatisfaction was not critical unlike ten years before because the party of the state was powerful enough to break opposition.

UNIT SIX

THE INTER-WAR PERIOD 1918-1939

THE INTERNATIONAL CAPITALIST ECONOMY

1918-39 AND POLITICO-DIPLOMATIC SITUATION

THE GREAT DEPRESSION

Great Depression was a massive global economic recession (or "depression") that ran from 1929 to 1941. It led to massive bank failures, high unemployment, as well as dramatic drops in GDP, industrial production, stock market share prices and virtually every other measure of economic growth. It bottomed out in 1933, but it would be well after World War II before such indicators as industrial production, share prices and global GDP could surpass their 1929 levels.

The Great Depression can refer to the economic event, but it can also refer to the cultural period, often called simply "The Depression", and to the political response to the economic events.

Economists, historians, and political scientists have posed several theories for the cause, or causes, of the Great Depression with surprisingly little consensus. It remains one of the most studied events of history to economic historians. Major theories proposed include the stock market crash of 1929, collapse of the gold standard, collapse of international trade due to the Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act, Federal Reserve policy, and many other influences. The question in economic theory is which effects drove the Great Depression, and therefore which policy actions may have caused or should have been taken to prevent, ameliorate, or end, the Great Depression.

The cause of the Great Depression was in large part due to the collapse of international trade as the result of restrictive trade practices globally. Many nations experienced a decline, though the severity and timing differed from country to country. For example, Britain hit its trough in the third quarter of 1932, while France did not reach its low point until April of 1937.

In the first half of 1929 there was some sign of a down turn in US economy and coming depression. This economic catastrophe continued and reached its highest point in 1932. The Depression also spread from USA to the rest of the capitalist world. Europe especially Germany and Latin America were particularly hard hit by the secession of American capital export and the repatriation of American capital. The closure of the US market to exports from other countries to the USA.

The World Depression was an economic and political turning point in the inter war period. In the economic sphere it marked a failure of attempts to return into the pre-war integrated World Capitalist economy. Thus, the international economy disintegrated as each country try to save its economy by high protective tariffs. The political effects of the depression were disastrous internationally the depression helped the militarists to take power in Japan, and was the major factors in enabling Hitler and the Nazis to take power in Germany in January 1933. The world was then again on the road to war.

The depression and the apparent success of economic planning in USSR also helped to discredit the old *laissez faire* liberal economics of the 19th century and to give an impetus to the idea of economic and social planning even in capitalist countries.

Asia was also hit by the Great Depression due to its dependence on trade of rubber and tin with the West. These markets represented the biggest buyers of rubber and tin (for the automobile industry). Asian trade fell sharply as America and Europe became gripped in the depression. Companies in Asia responded by dismissing some of their workers. Many of those workers who managed to keep their jobs had their pay reduced. Many people had to depend on the aid of their friends or relatives to find a job.

THE RISE OF DICTATORS IN ITALY AND GERMANY

THE FASCISTS CAME TO POWER IN ITALY

Mussolini had first been a socialist journalist and wrote articles favoring the overthrow of capitalism. When World War I began he urged Italy to join the war on the side of the Allies. After the war, his socialist views began to change, and he wrote about Italy's need to become a great nation.

In 1919, he organized the Fascist party. As the symbol of their party, the Fascists chose an ancient Roman emblem of power, a battle-ax that was wrapped in reeds and was known as a faces. The party calls for glorification of the state, a single-party system with a strong ruler, and aggressive

nationalism. The Fascists soon got the support of the majority because they promised jobs to the unemployed, land to the peasants and protection from communism to business owners. In October 1922, the Fascists dressed their usual black shirts, began a march on Rome. King Victor Emmanuel III (r. 1900 - 1946) feared to use armed force against the march rather he asked Mussolini to become Prime-Minister. With this dictatorship took power in Italy.

THE NAZIS TOOK POLITICAL POWER IN GERMANY

The aftermath of World War I created conditions for the success of the Nazi party in Germany. Some of them were: German national pride had been deeply wounded; the Versailles Treaty was unpopular in Germany; the allies imposed boycott on Germany's military force; there was severe economic condition in Germany. Inflation made life very difficult in Germany in 1920 which was later followed by the Great Depression (\$1 = 4.2 trillion marks); and there was political discontent against the existed government Weimar Republic. The government was unpopular and accused as betray after it had signed the hated Versailles treaty.

In 1923, the Nazi party attempted to overthrow the Weimer Republic. This event causes the imprisonment of Hitler. When he was in prison Hitler wrote a book entitled *Mein Kampf* (meaning "My Struggle") which clearly expresses some of his ideas like - his ambition to create strong German nationalism, his hatred of the Jews, his ideas about a super race of the people. With these ideas he won support from people who feared communism, workers who wanted job, ex-soldiers, and offices who wanted promotion.

THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC ORIGINS OF FASCISM AND ITS SOCIAL BASE

Fascism might appeal to people in almost any class. It did not win over the organized proletariat, the proletariat that is attached firmly to the social Democratic or communist parties of Europe or the big labor unions. This is proved by the fact that up to the last elections in Germany the left wing vote held very steady in spite of the efforts of the Nazis. However, there were many of the proletariat not attached to the socialist parties and not enjoying the protection of any effective union. There were many unemployed proletarians too who were particularly open to the appeal of fascism. Hitler, at any rate, called his party National Socialist because he aimed to attract the masses and the name would help him to neutralize the attraction of socialism. The Nazi party was

not of course in reality socialist at all but Hitler specifically states in *Mein Kampf* of that he aimed at attracting the "Workers".

Fascism appealed also to youth. In the crisis-ridden economic of post-war Europe many of the young had poor career opportunities & were often unemployed. Post-war politics seemed disillusioning and uninspiring but fascism generated excitement emotion and commitment.

Fascism also appealed to some intellectuals, especially young intellectuals, who were dissatisfied with complacent orderly bourgeois society. The discredited ideas and shabby politics of the bourgeoisie led many young intellectuals to join either Marxism or fascism. Fascism also attracted some intellectuals and would be intellectuals, because it was elitist in the sense of stressing leaders and superior individuals, whereas Marxism stressed the masses.

Finally, fascism attracted gangsters and lumpen proletariats to whom its violence and brutality appealed and who found its slogans more appealing and its ideology easier to assimilate than Marxism.

Fascism was aggressive and violent and what drew its supporters together were to a large extent their fears and hates. The Fascists were:

Anti-Marxist: - This was common to all fascist movement and often why they gained support. Those who also disliked Marxism or had interests which would suffer from a victory of Marxism, turned to fascism or gave it material help (as for example, some German and Italian industrialists.) Fascism was opposed to Marxism because the Marxist parties also competed for the masses and fascists had dangerous competition with Marxists in the pursuit of power. Fascism emphasized the nation and its leader while Marxism was supposedly international and emphasized the role of the proletarian masses. To fascists Marxism seemed like treason to the nation and its doctrine destructive of individual patriotism and heroism.

Anti-Liberal: - Fascism disliked the Liberals and denied the liberal emphasis on individualism and individual rights. They believed that individual rights are abstract and priority should be given for the right of the nation.

Anti-Parliamentarian: - Because Fascism was anti-liberal it was also against the existence of liberal institutions especially democratically elected parliaments. Fascism believed that outstanding individual should lead with their belief, wisdom or capacity. The people should recognize and

accept their leaders, and condemned parliaments because parliamentary politicians stood for weak compromise evasion of real political task and self-interest.

Anti-Religious: - official religion and official churches were conservative and supported the existing order. Religion claimed loyalties, which might conflict with the absolute claims made by the leader and the party. Moreover, to fascists the ethics of Christianity were disliked as non-fascist "decadent" and "cowardly".

On the other hand, Fascism stood for extreme aggressive nationalism. Fascism put the rights of the nation supreme over individuals and the right of one's own nation superior to that of any other or rather it is not a question of abstract "rights". If the nation is strong, it can and will take what it needs at the expense of others. This is the "law of nature" said fascists-social Darwinism in action "he who has steel has beard" as Mussolini put it. Fascist nationalism also implies national unity a sense of solidarity. Fascism claimed that the Marxist doctrine of inevitable class war was false. The nation should come first but under fascism all groups within the nation could receive their just rights.

Fascists glorified war and violence. Extreme aggressive nationalism and a disbelief in abstract rights of individual or other nations, means of course war for national objectives. Mussolini made Italy fight for colonial territory the aggression against Ethiopia in 1935 and Hitler urged the necessity of war to revise the Versailles settlement and obtain new territory in the East (living space) for Germany's growing population.

The fascists therefore glorified strength and the military virtues. They believed that natural Law means the survival of the fittest among nations and the right to victory of the best and strongest in this world. Since the only reality is force the only virtue is Strength. Sometimes fascists went further and glorified war for its own sake and not just as a means of attaining concrete national objects.

Fascism stressed on the supreme importance of great men and the role of the national leader. Fascists believed that the progress of this world not springs from the mind of majorities but from the brains of individuals. The national leader will be originally elevated by the will of the people who recognize his genius and force of will. But once in power his authority is supreme. The leader

was elected but had to enjoy unconditional authority. The fascist state with these views on the nation and leadership it is clear that fascism must imply a very complete dictatorship and it did.

Fascism tends towards racism, the belief that certain ethnic groups are superior, that is in intelligence, creativity, moral will, power etc. Race is the key to Hitler's entire political philosophy. The highest race of all is the Aryan race. The Fascists said that the Aryan blood of the German is threatened by racial mixture with lower races. When this happens ultimately the higher Aryan race is reduced to the level. The most degenerate race of all, Hitler said, was the Jewish, the "culture destroyers." Hitler believed in a Jewish plot to dominate the world. He thought Jewish plans for world domination could adopt themselves to any socio-economic situation. So American capitalists and "Jew Bolshevism" in Russia were both aspects, however opposite they seemed. Moreover, part of the Jewish plot was to corrupt the blood of other people by mixing Jewish blood with it.

Germans must keep their Aryan stock pure and eliminate corrupt or alien intrusions of blood. Physically or mental defective individual must not breed. Only the healthy of good racial stock must be followed to marry and produce children. The Jews in Germany's midst must be driven out or liquidated.

UNIT SEVEN

THE WORLD WAR II

THE ALLIANCE SYSTEM OF WORLD WAR II

THE ALLIANCE OF JAPAN, GERMANY, AND ITALY: THE FORMATION OF THE FASCIST BLOCK.

In 1934, Germany started to rearm in violation of the Versailles treaty. A year later, Japan began to rebuild its naval force in violation of the Washington Agreement of 1922. In 1936, Hitler and Mussolini made an axis, or an alliance to encourage their common purpose. In an alliance known as the Rome-Berlin Axis, they agreed to help one another in their drive for power and conquest. In 1940, Japan's military leaders joined this alliance, forming the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis.

THE LEAGUE FAILED TO MAINTAIN PEACE

In 1931, Japan took over Manchuria. The League of Nations did not take any more action than condemnation. Japan didn't accept and left the League in 1933. Having observed the failure of the League as to Japan was concerned, Hitler began to violate international law. In October 1933, he withdrew Germany from the League of Nations. In 1936, he militarized the Rhineland, which was supposed to be a buffer zone between Germany and France. In 1938, Hitler sent his troops into Austria. This was in violation of the Versailles peace treaty.

Fascist Italy also felt that it should grip new territory as soon as possible. In 1935, Mussolini sent his new Italian army into Ethiopia, the League of Nations similarly unable to stop Mussolini's "adventure."

THE COURSE OF THE WAR

War began in Europe on 1 September 1939, with the German invasion of Poland. France and the United Kingdom honored their defensive alliance of March 1939 by declaring war two days later on 3 September. Only partly mobilized, Poland fared poorly against the Wehrmacht's superior numbers and strategy of "blitzkrieg". In accordance with the Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact, the Soviet Red Army invaded Poland from the east on 17 September. Hours later, the Polish government escaped to Romania. The last Polish Army unit was defeated on 6 October. The Tripartite Pact was signed between Germany, Italy, and Japan on 27 September 1940, formalizing their alignment as the "Axis Powers."

The Soviet Union invaded Finland on 30 November 1939, beginning the Winter War, which lasted until March of 1940 with Finland ceding territory to the Soviet Union. Suddenly, Germany invaded Denmark and Norway on 9 April 1940, in Operation Weserubung, ostensibly to counter the threat of an Allied invasion from the region. Heavy fighting ensued on land and at sea in Norway. British, French and Polish forces landed to support the Norwegians at Namsos, Andalsnes and Narvik, with most success at the last. By early June, all Allied forces were evacuated and the Norwegian Army surrendered.

In June 1940, the Soviet Union occupied Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia, and annexed Bessarabia and Northern Bukovina from Romania. Not having secured a rapid peace with the United Kingdom, Germany began preparations to invade with the Battle of Britain. Fighter aircraft fought

overhead for months as the Luftwaffe and Royal Air Force fought for control of Britain's skies. The Luftwaffe initially targeted RAF Fighter Command, but turned to terror bombing London. Germany was defeated and Operation Sealion the proposed invasion of the British Isles, was abandoned. Similar efforts were made, though at sea, in the Battle of the Atlantic.

Italy invaded Greece on 28 October 1940, from bases in Albania. Although outnumbered, Greek forces successfully repelled the Italian attacks and launched a full-scale counterattack deep into Albania. By mid-December they had liberated one-fourth of Albania. Claimed to be the first Allied victory of the war, that battle was actually The Battle of Narvik, in which Norwegian, British and French forces reconquered Narvik from the Germans.

In April 1941, Yugoslavia was occupied within eleven days of the invasion. Thousands of Yugoslavs, however, continued to fight an effective guerilla war. The struggle lasted somewhat longer in Greece. The main mass of the Greek army was already engaged against Italian forces in Albania. Seeing the bleakness of the situation, about 58,000 British soldiers were sent to the aid of the Greeks. The German invasion developed along the Greek-Bulgarian border where they met stiff resistance from the fortifications of the Metaxas Line. The rapid downfall of Yugoslavia, however, allowed German forces to pour into Greece with little resistance and were able to surround the Greek positions. German soldiers entered Athens on April 27, 1941, symbolizing the end of organized Greek resistance. The British managed to evacuate about 43,000 of their men. The intervention in Greece delayed the German invasion of the Soviet Union by six weeks, which proved disastrous when the German army became bogged down on the outskirts of Moscow as a result of the Russian winter.

The Germans attacked the island simultaneously on the three airfields. Their invasion on two of the airfields failed miserably, but they successfully captured one, which allowed them to reinforce their position by landing reinforcements (about three transport planes every five minutes). After a week it was decided that so many German troops had been flown in that there was no way to defeat them. The Allied soldiers had grown exhausted and were by now numerically inferior. An evacuation took place and about 17,000 British and Commonwealth soldiers were evacuated. About 12,000 Commonwealth and 5,500 Greek troops were made prisoners; however, over 10,000 Greek and 500 Commonwealth troops remained at large and caused serious problems for the

German occupiers over the next four years. The Germans suffered over 17,000 casualties in Crete. So heavy were the losses that Hitler never launched another airborne assault.

Germany declared war on the United States on 11 December 1941, following the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor. It was not obligated to do so under the Tripartite Pact of 1940. Hitler made the declaration in the hopes that Japan would support him by attacking the Soviet Union. Japan did not oblige him, and this diplomatic move proved a catastrophic blunder which gave President Franklin D. Roosevelt the pretext needed for the United States joining the fight in Europe with full commitment and with no meaningful opposition from Congress.

In 1942, an aborted German offensive was launched towards the Caucasus to secure oil fields and German armies reached Stalingrad. The siege of Stalingrad continued for many months, with vicious urban warfare leading to high casualties on both sides. At night, the Soviet forces were resupplied from the east bank of the Volga, and the Wehrmacht forces were eventually ground down; especially after Hitler diverted the armor of the Sixth Army to the Caucasus. By early February 1943, it was clear that the Sixth Army would have to surrender. The Fuhrer made General Friedrich Paulus, who was in charge of the German forces, a Field Marshal in the vain hope it would deter him from surrendering. It didn't, and he surrendered completely on February 2. The results were the destruction of the city, millions of casualties, and the collapse of Germany's Sixth Army as a viable fighting force. Nazi Propaganda Minister Joseph Goebbels responded with his Sportpalast speech to the German people. Some historians cite this as the European war's "turning point."

German forces repulsed Red Army offensives along the Don basin near Stalingrad in January 1943. In July, the Wehrmacht launched a much-delayed offensive against the Soviet Union at Kursk. Their intentions were known by the Soviets, and the Battle of Kursk ended in a Soviet counteroffensive that threw the German Army back.

By early 1944, the Red Army had reached the border of Poland and lifted the Siege of Leningrad. Shortly after Allied landings at Normandy, on 9 June, the Soviet Union began an offensive on the Karelian Isthmus that after three months would force Nazi Germany's co-belligerent Finland to an armistice. Operation Bagration, a Soviet offensive involving 2.5 million men and 6,000 tanks, was launched on 22 June, destroying the German Army Group Center and taking 350,000 prisoners.

Finland's defense had been dependent on active, or in periods passive, support from the German Wehrmacht that also provided defense for the chiefly uninhabited northern half of Finland. After the Wehrmacht retreated from the southern shores of the Gulf of Finland, Finland's defense was untenable. The Allies' armistice conditions included further territorial losses and the internment or expulsion of German troops on Finnish soil executed in the Lapland War, now as co-belligerents of the Allies, who also demanded the political leadership to be prosecuted in "war-responsibility trials" that by the Finnish public were perceived as a mockery of the rule of law.

Romania surrendered in August of 1944 and Bulgaria in September. British forces attempted a fast advance into Germany with Operation Market Garden in September, but were repulsed. The Warsaw Uprising was fought between 1 August and 2 October. Germany withdrew from the Balkans and held Hungary until February 1945. In December of 1944, the German Army made its last major offensive in the West, attempting to capture the vital port of Antwerp and cripple the Allies in the Battle of the Bulge. At first, Germans scored successes against the Americans stationed in the Ardennes. However, with the German failure to capture Bastogne and the arrival of Gen. Patton's Third Army, the German forces were forced to retreat back into Germany. The offensive was defeated. By now, the Soviets had reached the eastern borders of pre-war Germany.

In February 1945, Winston Churchill, Franklin D. Roosevelt and Joseph Stalin met at Yalta to make plans to end the war and to discuss the future of Eastern Europe. Germany itself was to be divided into American, British and French Military Zones. Trials of Nazi war criminals would take place.

At Potsdam, in July 1945, they agreed on the peace settlement with Germany and drew up plans for Japan's surrender and occupation. An important result of these series of meetings between the victorious leaders was in the establishment of UN. In April 1945, 51 nations signed the charter they agreed to set up a new international organization that would be strong enough to prevent war. Most wars, in history, ended with the signing of peace treaties. But no general treaty was signed at the end of World War II. The nations who had been able to unite for war were not able to unite for peace. Soon after the war had been over the Allies could not agree among themselves.

Churchill, Stalin, and Franklin D. Roosevelt made arrangements for post-war Europe at the Yalta Conference in February 1945. It resulted in an April meeting to form the United Nations: nation-

states were created in Eastern Europe; it was agreed Poland would have free elections (in fact elections were heavily rigged by Soviets); Soviet nationals were to be repatriated, and the Soviet Union was to attack Japan within three months of Germany's surrender.

The Red Army began its final assault on Berlin on 16 April. Hitler and his staff moved into the Farer bunker, a concrete bunker beneath the Chancellery, where on 30 April 1945, he committed suicide. The Soviets took a massive toll of 100,000 men killed. Karl Donitz became leader of the German government and quickly dispatched the German High Command to travel to Reims, France, to sign an unconditional surrender with the Allies. Field Marschal Jodl surrender unconditionally on 7 May. The Western Allies celebrated "V-E Day" on 8 May and the Soviet Union "Victory Day" on 9 May. The Soviet Union forcefully occupied the Baltic states as part of Stalin's campaign to subjugate the nations of Eastern Europe.

Japan's surrender to the United States did not end the war, because Japan and the Soviet Union never signed a peace agreement. In the last days of the armed conflict, the Soviet Union occupied the Southern Kurile Islands, an area previously held by Japan and claimed by the Soviets. Multiple efforts to bring to a peace agreement, and officially end the war.

U.S. capture of islands such as Iwo Jima and Okinawa brought the Japanese homeland within range of naval and air attack. Amongst dozens of other cities, Tokyo was firebombed and on the initial attack alone upwards of 90,000 people died as the fire raced unchecked through the city. The high loss of life was attributed to the dense living conditions around production centers and the wood and paper residential construction common to that period. Later on 6 August 1945, the B-29 "Enola Gay", piloted by Col. Paul Tibbets, dropped an atomic bomb (Little Boy) on Hiroshima, effectively destroying it. On 8 August 1945 the Soviet Union declared war on Japan, as had been agreed to at Yalta, and launched a large scale invasion of Japanese occupied Manchuria (Operation August Storm). On August 9, the B-29 "Bock's Car", piloted by Maj. Charles Sweeney, dropped an atomic bomb (Fat Man) on Nagasaki.

The combination of the use of atomic weapons and the new inclusion of the Soviet Union in the war were both highly responsible for the surrender of Japan, although the importance of the Soviet incursion has been largely overlooked in conventional American histories of the conflict. The

Japanese surrendered on August 14, 1945, signing official surrender papers on September 2, 1945, aboard the USS *Missouri* in Tokyo Bay.

GENOCIDE, ATROCITIES, WAR CRIMES, AND INTERNMENT

Acts of genocide against or mass internment of civilian populations occurred in the territories and/or occupied territories of greatest powers of the war, including Germany, Japan, the United States, and the Soviet Union. Some of these were so unimaginably immense and horrific that they changed the psyche of Western civilization; bringing to an end the optimistic beliefs in continual improvement in human nature which had supported western civilization in its education and imperialism up to that point.

The worst conditions were imposed in Nazi concentration camps. Most camps were specialized into variously forced labour camps, starvation camps (Buchenwald) or later extermination camps (Treblinka, Sobibor); though Auschwitz, the largest and most infamous, had a separate camp devoted to each purpose. In the Holocaust “Death-camps” large numbers of people were killed using gas, usually immediately they disembarked from trains under the pretense of being given a shower to prevent disease. Grounds for this mass murder were variously racist (Jews, Roma [Gypsies]) “eugenic” (mental patients, homosexuals), and military/political opposition: initially anarchist and communist militant opponents, then ideological opponents (pacifists, Jehovah’s Witnesses), then citizens of occupied countries (like Poles), later Soviet prisoners of wars and then military and underground opposition. Jews were the largest group of people killed, approximately 6 million. Next in reducing order were Poles, other Slavs, Soviet prisoners of wars and then other groups.

Conditions as horrific as, or even worse than, Nazi concentration camps were in the USSR's gulags. Japanese prisoners of war camps also had high death rates. Many citizens of occupied countries like Poland, Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia as well as German prisoners of wars and even Soviet citizens themselves died in the Soviet Gulags or Labor camps, along with many opponents of Stalin's regime and large proportions of some ethnic groups (particularly Chechens). Many Japanese prisoners of war camps were used as labour camps and starvation conditions among the mainly U.S. and Commonwealth prisoners were little better than many German concentration

camps. Thousands of Japanese Americans were interned by the U.S. government and this has caused postwar outrage and compensation claims; but these seem based more in insulted patriotism, anti-racial prejudice (most German-Americans weren't interned), and economic loss than atrocious conditions.

President Truman's order the use of a new atomic bomb to be dropped on the city of Hiroshima on August 6, 1945 and on August 9 on Nagasaki. The bomb destroyed more than 160,000 and 120,000 peoples, respectively. Soon after the World War II had bee over, the leaders of the victor's powers made series of meetings.

Few forms of atrocity were excluded from the Eastern European theatre, including the killing of millions of Poles, Ukrainians and Belarusians in the name of Lebensraum, of over a million Yugoslavs in disproportionate reprisal killings for Partisan activity, plus medical experimentation on concentration camp inmates. The population of Kiev dropped by 90% between the early 1930s and 1945, partly from starvation under Stalin, mostly under the Nazis.

Japan was not a signatory to the Geneva Convention until after the war, and millions of Asian civilians and Allied prisoners of wars were killed by its military and/or used as forced labour. The most notorious atrocities occurred in China, including the Nanjing Massacre and Unit 731's experiments with biological warfare in Manchuria, with a view to killing a large part of the Chinese population. Japanese war crimes also included rape, pillage, murder, cannibalism and forcing female civilians to become sex slaves, known as "comfort women".

In 1940, the Soviet Union murdered over 22,000 citizens of Poland, mainly Polish officers, but also scientists, politicians, doctors, lawyers, priests and others. This genocide is known as the Katyn Massacre. Soviet occupation of Poland between 1939 and 1941 resulted in the death or deportation of least 1.8 million former Polish citizens.

Germany has been bombing civilian targets from the first days of the war. In the first months of the war the British Government ordered the RAF to adhere strictly to the draft rules, but this restriction was progressively relaxed and abandoned altogether in 1942. By 1945 the strategic

bombing of cities had been employed extensively by all sides. German bombing of Poland, Britain and the USSR initially caused shock but was soon exceeded by allied bombing. The deliberate firestorm bombing of Japanese and German cities, including Tokyo, Hamburg and Dresden by Anglo-American forces and the American atomic bombing of 2 Japanese civilian populations Hiroshima and Nagasaki, have been subject to criticism during the post-war era as possible war crimes; no action was taken against those responsible.

From 1945 to 1951, German and Japanese officials and personnel, but no Allied personnel, were prosecuted by Allied tribunals for war crimes. Accused of genocide and atrocities, many German officials were tried at the Nuremberg Trials, and many Japanese officials at the Tokyo War Crime Trial and other war crimes trials in the Asia-Pacific region. Such a trial for Allied war crimes, especially Soviet war crimes, has not taken place. During the Allied advances of 1943-45, many surrendering or abject Japanese were killed by Allied personnel. For identical behaviour against Americans during the Battle of the Bulge, German SS commanders were tried for war crimes after the war. As a consequence, the war crimes trials — as opposed to trials for crimes against humanity have been described as an example of hypocritical "winners' justice".

CONSEQUENCES OF THE WAR

In contrast to World War I, the Western victors in the Second World War did not demand compensation from the defeated nations. On the contrary, a plan created by U. S. Secretary of State George Marshall, the "European Recovery Program", better known as the Marshall Plan, called for the U.S. Congress to allocate billions of dollars for the reconstruction of Europe. Also as part of the effort to rebuild global capitalism and spur post-war reconstruction, the Bretton Woods system was put into effect after the war.

The end of the war is also seen by many as the end of Britain's position as a global super power and the emergence of the United States and the Soviet Union as the dominant powers in the world. Friction had been building up between the two before the end of the war, and with the collapse of Nazi Germany relations spiraled downward. The Cold War had begun.

At the end of the second world war, the European economy had collapsed, and 70% of the European industrial infrastructure was destroyed. There was also a moral crisis, because people could not understand how Western civilization could produce death camps and atom bombs. Millions of refugees were homeless.

After the war, some German and Japanese leaders were tried for crimes against humanity. On the political side, the war increased the strength of independence movements in the European Powers' African, Asian, and American colonies, and most of them became independent in the following twenty years.

Since the League of Nations had obviously failed to prevent the war, a new international order was constructed. In 1945 the United Nations was founded. Also, in order to prevent such devastating war from occurring again and to establish a lasting peace in Europe, the European Coal and Steel Community was born in 1951 (Treaty of Paris (1951)), the predecessor of the European Union.

In the Paris Peace Treaty, the Soviet Union's enemies, Hungary, Finland and Romania, were required to pay war reparations of \$300,000,000 each (in 1938 dollars) to the Soviet Union. Italy was required to pay \$360,000,000, shared chiefly between Greece, Yugoslavia and the Soviet Union.

In the areas occupied by Western Allied troops, democratic governments were created; in the areas occupied by Soviet troops, including the territories of former Allies like Poland, communist puppet governments were created, giving rise to the western betrayal sentiment in many of those countries. Soviet pressure further delayed their economic development, forcing them to ignore the Marshall Plan. Germany was partitioned into four zones of occupation, with the American, British and French zones grouped as West Germany and the Soviet zone as East Germany. Austria was once again separated from Germany and it, too, was divided into four zones of occupation, which eventually re-united and became the state of Austria. The Cold War had begun, and soon NATO and the Warsaw Pact would form.

The massive research and development involved in the Manhattan Project in order to quickly achieve a working nuclear weapon design greatly impacted the scientific community, among other things creating a network of national laboratories in the United States. In addition, the pressing need for numerous calculations for various projects like code breaking and ballistics tables kick-started the development of electronic computer technology. While the war stimulated many technologies: radio development accelerated, and radar developed; it retarded others, most notably popular television which the BBC had been developing, but which was shelved, as it also was in Germany and the United States, until the end of the war.

The Jet aircraft age began during the war with the development of the Heinkel He 178, the first true turbojet, the Messerschmitt 262—the first jet in combat, and the Gloster Meteor, the first reliable and useful jet fighter. The Nazi terror weapon, the V-2 rocket, was the first step into the space age as its trajectory took it through the stratosphere, higher than any aircraft. It led directly to the development of the ICBM. Wernher Von Braun led the V2 development team and later immigrated to the United States where he developed the Saturn 5 rocket, which took men to the moon in 1969.

