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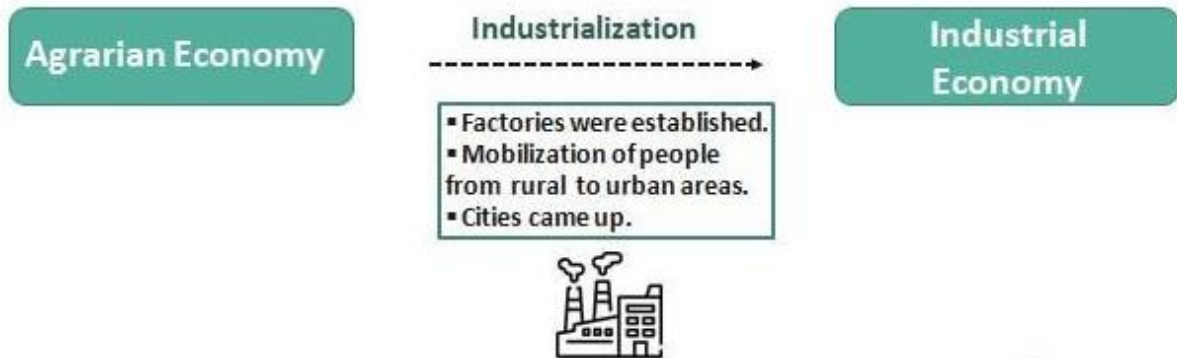
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**Industrial Revolution****About**

- The Industrial Revolution was the transition to new manufacturing processes in Europe and the United States in the period from between 1760 to 1820 and 1840. This transition included going from hand production methods to machines, new chemical manufacturing and iron production processes, the increasing use of steam power and water power, the development of machine tools, and the rise of the mechanized factory system. The Industrial Revolution also led to an unprecedented rise in the rate of population growth.
- It is the process of change from an agrarian and handicraft economy to one dominated by industry and machine manufacturing. These technological changes introduced novel ways of working and living and fundamentally transformed society.
- The Industrial Revolution marks a major turning point in history; almost every aspect of daily life was influenced in some way. In particular, average income and population began to exhibit unprecedented, sustained growth. Some economists have said the most important effect of the Industrial Revolution was that the standard of living for the general population in the Western world began to increase consistently for the first time in history, although others have said that it did not begin to meaningfully improve until the late 19th and 20th centuries.

**Characteristics of the Industrial Revolution**

- The main features involved in the Industrial Revolution were technological, socio-economic, and cultural. The technological changes included the following:

- the use of new basic materials, chiefly iron and steel.
  - the use of new energy sources, including both fuels and motive power, such as coal, the steam engine, electricity, petroleum, and the internal combustion engine.
  - the invention of new machines, such as the spinning jenny and the power loom, that permitted increased production with a smaller expenditure of human energy.
  - a new organization of work known as the factory system, which entailed increased division of labour and specialization of function.
  - important developments in transportation and communication, including the steam locomotive, steamship, automobile, airplane, telegram, and radio.
  - the increasing application of science to industry.
- These technological changes made possible a tremendously increased use of natural resources and the mass production of manufactured goods.

### Reasons for Industrial Revolution

- The Industrial Revolution began in Britain in the 1760s, largely with new developments in the textile industry.
- The causes of the Industrial Revolution were complicated and remain a topic for debate. Geographic factors include Britain's vast mineral resources. In addition to metal ores, Britain had the highest quality coal reserves known at the time, as well as abundant water power, highly productive agriculture, and numerous ports and navigable waterways.

### Economic and political competition (colonialism)

- The European states are competing among themselves for the global resources, and most of them are rising colonial powers. This competition and desperation to dominate made them innovate labour and cost saving machinery.

### Scientific Revolution in Europe

- The rise in scientific temperament and a society more open to ideas formed a fertile ground for innovations and newer ideas.

### Agricultural Revolution in Britain

- Under the enclosure movement, the big landlords of Britain started taking away the lands of small farmers and peasants, which created unemployment in the Agri sector and this unemployed labour fulfilled the demands of the industrial sector.

### Geographical discoveries and world trade

- With the beginning of geographical discoveries, new lands were introduced while the west had direct contact with the East, which increased the demand of the products, and this became the basic factor for the industrial revolution.

### Capitalism and capitalist class:

- The ideology of capitalism created a new capitalist class (investors) who invested heavily in capital goods.

### Availability of coal and iron:

- Coal and iron reserves in England were also one of the causes of the Industrial Revolution.

### Inventions that created Industrial Revolution

In an explosion of creativity, inventions now revolutionized industry. Britain's textile industry clothed the world in wool, linen, and cotton. This industry was the first to be transformed. Cloth merchants boosted their profits by speeding up the process by which spinners and weavers made cloth.

### Major Inventions in the Textile Industry

- By 1800, several major inventions had modernized the cotton industry. One invention led to another. In 1733, a machinist named John Kay made a shuttle that sped back and forth on wheels. This flying shuttle, a boat-shaped piece of wood to which yarn was attached, doubled the work a weaver could do in a day.
- Because spinners could not keep up with these speedy weavers, a cash prize attracted contestants to produce a better spinning machine. Around 1764, a textile worker

named James Hargreaves invented a spinning wheel he named after his daughter. Hargreaves's spinning jenny allowed one spinner to work eight threads at a time.

- At first, textile workers operated the flying shuttle and the spinning jenny by hand. Richard Arkwright invented the water frame in 1769. The machine used the water-power from rapid streams to drive spinning wheels.
- In 1779, Samuel Crompton combined features of the spinning jenny and the water frame to produce the spinning mule. The spinning mule made thread that was stronger, finer, and more consistent than earlier spinning machines. Run by water-power, Edmund Cartwright's power loom sped up weaving after its invention in 1787.
- The water frame, the spinning mule, and the power loom were bulky and expensive machines. They took the work of spinning and weaving out of the house. Wealthy textile merchants set up the machines in large buildings called factories. At first the new factories needed waterpower, so they were built near sources of water such as rivers and streams.
- England's cotton came from plantations in the American South in the 1790s. Removing seeds from the raw cotton by hand was hard work. In 1793, an American inventor named Eli Whitney invented a machine to speed up the chore. His cotton gin multiplied the amount of cotton that could be cleaned. American cotton production skyrocketed from 1.5 million pounds in 1790 to 85 million pounds in 1810.

### Improvements in Transportation:

- Progress in the textile industry spurred other industrial improvements. The first such development, the steam engine, stemmed from the search for a cheap, convenient source of power. The earliest steam engine was used in mining as early as 1705. But this early model gobbled great quantities of fuel, making it expensive to run.
- James Watt, a mathematical instrument maker at the University of Glasgow in Scotland, thought about the problem for two years. In 1765, Watt figured out a way to make the steam engine work faster and more efficiently while burning less fuel. In 1774, Watt joined with a businessman named Matthew Boulton. This entrepreneur—

a person who organizes, manages, and takes on the risks of a business—paid Watt a salary and encouraged him to build better engines.


### Water Transportation

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- Steam could also be used to propel boats. An American inventor named Robert Fulton ordered a steam engine from Boulton and Watt. After its first successful trip in 1807, Fulton's steamboat, the Clermont, ferried passengers up and down New York's Hudson River.
- In England, water transportation improved with the creation of a network of canals, or human-made waterways. By the mid-1800s, 4,250 miles of inland channels slashed the cost of transporting raw materials.

### Road Transportation

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- British roads improved, too, thanks largely to the efforts of John McAdam, a Scottish engineer. Working in the early 1800s, McAdam equipped roadbeds with a layer of large stones for drainage.
  - On top, he placed a carefully smoothed layer of crushed rock. Even in rainy weather heavy wagons could travel over the new “**macadam**” roads without sinking in mud. Private investors formed companies that built roads and then operated them for profit. People called the new roads turnpikes because travelers had to stop at toll gates (turnstiles or turnpikes) to pay a toll before traveling farther.

### The Railways

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- Steam-driven machinery propelled English factories in the late 1700s. A steam engine on wheels—the railroad locomotive—drove the English industry after 1820.
- In 1804, an English engineer named Richard Trevithick won a bet of several thousand dollars. He did this by hauling ten tons of iron over nearly ten miles of track in a steam-driven locomotive. Other British engineers soon built improved versions of Trevithick's locomotive. One of these early railroad engineers was George Stephenson.
- He had gained a solid reputation by building some 20 engines for mine operators in northern England. In 1821, Stephenson began work on the world's first railroad line.

It was to run 27 miles from the Yorkshire coalfields to the port of Stockton on the North Sea. In 1825, the railroad opened. It used four locomotives that Stephenson had designed and built.

### The Liverpool-Manchester Railroad

- News of this success quickly spread throughout Britain. The entrepreneurs of northern England wanted a railroad line to connect the port of Liverpool with the inland city of Manchester. The track was laid.
- In 1829 trials were held to choose the best locomotive for use on the new line. Five engines entered the competition. None could compare with the Rocket, designed by Stephenson and his son. Smoke poured from its tall smokestack, and its two pistons pumped to and fro as they drove the front wheels. The Rocket, hauled a 13-ton load at an unheard-of speed—more than 24 miles per hour. The Liverpool-Manchester Railway opened officially in 1830. It was an immediate success.

### Railroads Revolution in Britain

- First, railroads spurred industrial growth by giving manufacturers a cheap way to transport materials and finished products.
- Second, the railroad boom created hundreds of thousands of new jobs for both railroad workers and miners. These miners provided iron for the tracks and coal for the steam engines.
- Third, the railroads boosted England's agricultural and fishing industries, which could transport their products to distant cities.
- Finally, by making travel easier, railroads encouraged country people to take distant city jobs. Also, railroads lured city dwellers to resorts in the countryside. Like a locomotive racing across the country, the Industrial Revolution brought rapid and unsettling changes to people's lives.

### Effects of Industrial Revolution

#### Economic:

- Rise of capitalists.

- International economic dependence.
- Improved standard of living.
- Increased Agricultural productivity
- Laissez Faire economies.

**Political:**

- Adoption of democracies.
- Liberal political atmosphere. (Liberalism)
- Rise of new political ideologies like Socialism, Marxism, Anarchism.

**Social:**

- New class formation.
- Nuclear Families.
- Increased crime.
- New professions.

**Environmental:**

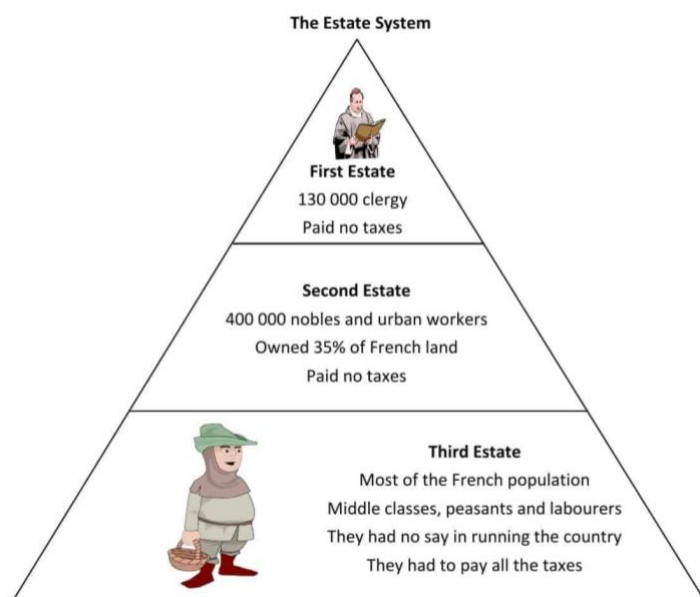
- Rise of pollution
- Degradation of Nature-Rivers,Lakes,Forests,etc
- Unsustainable extraction of natural resources.
- Ecological collapse.

**French Revolution****Beginning**

- In 1774, Louis XVI of the Bourbon family of kings ascended the throne of France. He was 20 years old and married to the Austrian princess Marie Antoinette. Upon his accession, the new king found an empty treasury. Long years of war had drained the financial resources of France. Added to this was the cost of maintaining an extravagant court at the immense palace of Versailles.
- Under Louis XVI, France helped the thirteen American colonies to gain their independence from the common enemy, Britain. The war added more than a billion livres to a debt that had already risen to more than 2 billion livres. Lenders who gave the state credit now began to charge 10 percent interest on loans.
- So, the French government was obliged to spend an increasing percentage of its budget on interest payments alone. To meet its regular expenses, such as the cost of maintaining an army, the court, running government offices, or universities, the state was forced to increase taxes. Yet even this measure would not have sufficed. French society in the eighteenth century was divided into three estates, and only members of the third estate paid taxes. The society of estates was part of the feudal system that dated back to the Middle Ages.
- The term Old Regime is usually used to describe the society and institutions of France before 1789.

**Old Regime**

- In the 1770s, the system of feudalism left over from the Middle Ages—called the Old Regime—remained in place. The people of France were still divided into three large social classes, or estates.
- The Privileged Estates Two of the estates had privileges, including access to high offices





and exemptions from paying taxes, that were not granted to the members of the third. The Roman Catholic Church, whose clergy formed the First Estate, owned 10 percent of the land in France. It provided education and relief services to the poor and contributed about 2 percent of its income to the government.

- The Second Estate was made up of rich nobles, much of whose wealth was in land. Although they made up only 2 percent of the population, the nobles owned 20 percent of the land and paid almost no taxes. Most of the clergy and the nobility scorned Enlightenment ideas as radical notions that threatened their status and power as privileged persons.
- The Third Estate About 98 percent of the people belonged to the Third Estate. The three groups that made up this estate differed greatly in their economic conditions.
  - The first group—the bourgeoisie—were merchants and artisans. They were well-educated and believed strongly in the Enlightenment ideals of liberty and equality. Although some of the bourgeoisie were as rich as nobles, they paid high taxes and lacked privileges like the other members of the Third Estate. Many felt that their wealth entitled them to a greater degree of social status and political power.
  - The workers of France's cities—cooks, servants, and others—formed the second group within the Third Estate, a group poorer than the bourgeoisie. Paid low wages and frequently out of work, they often went hungry. If the cost of bread rose, mobs of these workers might attack carts of grain and bread to steal what they needed.
  - Peasants formed the largest group within the Third Estate—more than 80 percent of France's 26 million people. Peasants paid about half their income in dues to nobles, tithes to the church, and taxes to the king's agents. They even paid taxes on such basic staples as salt. Peasants joined the urban poor in resenting the clergy and the nobles for their privileges and special the heavily taxed and discontented Third Estate was eager for change.

### Other Forces of Change

- In addition to the growing resentment of the lower classes, other factors were contributing to the revolutionary mood in France.
  - **Enlightenment Ideas:** New views about power and authority in government were spreading among the Third Estate. The people began questioning long-standing

notions about the structure of society and using words like equality, liberty, and democracy. The success of the American Revolution inspired them, and they discussed the radical ideas of Rousseau and Voltaire.

- **Economic Woes:** France's once prosperous economy was failing. The population was expanding rapidly, as were trade and production. However, the heavy burden of taxes made it impossible to conduct business profitably within France. The cost of living rose for everyone. In addition, bad weather in the 1780s caused widespread crop failures, resulting in a severe shortage of grain. The price of bread doubled in 1789, and many people faced starvation.
- During this period, France's government sank deeply into debt. Extravagant spending by the king and queen was part of the problem. Louis XVI, who became king in 1774, inherited part of the debt from his predecessors. He also borrowed heavily in order to help the American revolutionaries in their war against Great Britain—France's chief rival—thereby nearly doubling the government's debt. When bankers, in 1786, refused to lend the government any more money, Louis faced serious problems.
- A Weak Leader Strong leadership might have prevented the coming crisis, but Louis XVI was indecisive and allowed matters to drift. He paid little attention to his government advisers, preferring to spend his time hunting or tinkering with locks rather than attending to the details of governing.
- Louis had married his wife, Marie Antoinette, when he was 15 and she was 14. Because Marie was a member of the royal family of Austria, France's long-time enemy, she became unpopular as soon as she set foot in France. As queen, Marie spent so much money on gowns, jewels, and gifts that she became known as Madame Deficit.
- The population of France rose from about 23 million in 1715 to 28 million in 1789. This led to a rapid increase in the demand for grains. Production of grains could not keep pace with the demand. So, the price of bread, which was the staple diet of the majority, rose rapidly. Most workers were employed as labourers in workshops whose owners fixed their wages. But wages did not keep pace with the rise in prices. So, the gap between the poor and the rich widened. Things became worse whenever drought or hail reduced the harvest.

## End to Privileges

- In addition to merchants and manufacturers, the third estate included professions such as lawyers or administrative officials. All of these were educated and believed that no group in society should be privileged by birth. Rather, a person's social position must depend on his merit. These ideas, envisaging a society based on freedom and equal laws and opportunities for all, were put forward by philosophers such as John Locke and Jean Jacques Rousseau.
- In his Two Treatises of Government, Locke sought to refute the doctrine of the divine and absolute right of the monarch. Rousseau carried the idea forward, proposing a form of government based on a social contract between people and their representatives.
- In The Spirit of the Laws, Montesquieu proposed a division of power within the government between the legislative, the executive, and the judiciary. This model of government was put into force in the USA after the thirteen colonies declared their independence from Britain. These ideas spread among the French intellectuals and also the common man. The news that Louis XVI planned to impose further taxes to be able to meet the expenses of the state generated anger and protest against the system of privileges.

## Revolution breaks out

- In France of the Old Regime the monarch did not have the power to impose taxes according to his will alone. Rather he had to call a meeting of the Estates General which would then pass his proposals for new taxes. The Estates General was a political body to which the three estates sent their representatives. However, the monarch alone could decide when to call a meeting of this body.
- The last time it was done was in 1614. On 5 May 1789, Louis XVI called together an assembly of the Estates General to pass proposals for new taxes. A resplendent hall in Versailles was prepared to host the delegates. The first and second estates sent 300 representatives each, who were seated in rows facing each other on two sides, while the 600 members of the third estate had to stand at the back. The third estate was represented by its more prosperous and educated members. Peasants, artisans and women were denied entry to the assembly. However, their grievances and demands were listed in some 40,000 letters which the representatives had brought with them. Voting in the Estates General in the past had been conducted according to the principle that each estate had one vote.

- The clergy and the nobles had dominated the Estates-General throughout the Middle Ages and expected to do so in the 1789 meeting. Under the assembly's medieval rules, each estate's delegates met in a separate hall to vote, and each estate had one vote. The two privileged estates could always outvote the Third Estate.
- This time too Louis XVI was determined to continue the same practice. But members of the third estate demanded that voting now be conducted by the assembly as a whole, where each member would have one vote. This was one of the democratic principles put forward by philosophers like Rousseau in his book *The Social Contract*. When the king rejected this proposal, members of the third estate walked out of the assembly in protest.
- **The National Assembly:** The Third Estate delegates, mostly members of the bourgeoisie whose views had been shaped by the Enlightenment, were eager to make changes in the government. They insisted that all three estates meet and that each delegate have a vote. This would give the advantage to the Third Estate, which had as many delegates as the other two estates combined.
- The representatives of the third estate viewed themselves as spokesmen for the whole French nation. On 20 June they assembled in the hall of an indoor tennis court in the grounds of Versailles. They declared themselves a National Assembly and swore not to disperse till they had drafted a constitution for France that would limit the powers of the monarch.
- After a long night of excited debate, the delegates of the Third Estate agreed. On June 17, 1789, they voted to establish the National Assembly, in effect proclaiming the end of absolute monarchy and the beginning of representative government. This vote was the first deliberate act of revolution.
- Three days later, the Third Estate delegates found themselves locked out of their meeting room. They broke down a door to an indoor tennis court, pledging to stay until they had drawn up a new constitution. Their pledge was called the Tennis Court Oath.
- While the National Assembly was busy at Versailles drafting a constitution, the rest of France seethed with turmoil. After spending hours in long queues at the bakery, crowds of angry women stormed into the shops. At the same time, the king ordered troops to move into Paris. On 14 July, the agitated crowd stormed and destroyed the Bastille.
- **Storming the Bastille:** Louis tried to make peace with the Third Estate by yielding to the National Assembly's demands. He ordered the nobles and the clergy to join the Third Estate

in the National Assembly. At the same time, sensing trouble, the king stationed his mercenary army of Swiss guards in Paris, since he no longer trusted the loyalty of the French soldiers.

- In Paris, rumors flew that foreign troops were coming to massacre French citizens. People gathered weapons in order to defend Paris against the king's foreign troops. On July 14, a mob tried to get gunpowder from the Bastille, a Paris prison. The angry crowd overwhelmed the king's soldiers, and the Bastille fell into the control of the citizens. The fall of the Bastille became a great symbolic act of revolution to the French people. Ever since, July 14 has been a French national holiday, similar to the U.S. Fourth of July. (Fall of Bastille)

### Great fear spreads

- Before long, rebellion spreads from Paris into the countryside. From one village to the next, wild rumors circulated that the nobles were hiring outlaws to terrorize the peasants. A wave of senseless panic called the Great Fear rolled through France. When the peasants met no enemy bandits, they became outlaws themselves. Waving pitchforks and torches, they broke into nobles' manor houses, tore up the old legal papers that bound them to pay feudal dues, and in some cases burned the manor houses as well.
- In October 1789, approximately 6,000 Parisian women rioted over the rising price of bread. Their anger quickly turned against the king and queen. Seizing knives and axes, the women and a great many men marched on Versailles. They broke into the palace and killed two guards. The women demanded that Louis and Marie Antoinette come to Paris. Finally, the king agreed to take his wife and children to Paris.
- Three hours later the king, his family, and servants left Versailles, never again to see their magnificent palace. Their exit signaled the change of power and radical reforms about to overtake France.

### The Assembly Reforms France

- Throughout the night of August 4, 1789, noblemen made grand speeches, declaring their love of liberty and equality. Although motivated more by fear than by idealism, they joined other members of the National Assembly in sweeping away the feudal privileges of the First Estate and the Second Estate, thus making commoners and peasants equal to the nobles and the clergy. By morning, the Old Regime was dead.

- **The Rights of Man** : Three weeks later, on August 27, the National Assembly adopted a statement of revolutionary ideals called “A Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen,” commonly known as the Declaration of the Rights of Man. Reflecting the influence of Enlightenment ideas and of the Declaration of Independence, the document stated that “men are born and remain free and equal in rights” and that “the aim of all political association is the preservation of the natural . . . rights of man. These rights are liberty, property, security, and resistance to oppression.” Other articles of the famous document guaranteed citizens equal justice, freedom of speech, and freedom of religion. As the French people embraced the principles of the declaration, the expression “Liberty, Equality, Fraternity” became the slogan of the Revolution.
- However, the Declaration of the Rights of Man did not apply to women. When Olympe de Gouges wrote a declaration of the rights of women, not only were her ideas rejected, but she eventually lost her head as an enemy of the Revolution.
- **A State-Controlled Church** During 1790, many of the National Assembly’s reforms focused on the relationship between church and state. The assembly took over church lands and declared that church officials and priests were to be elected by property owners and paid as state officials. Thus, the Catholic Church lost both its lands and its political independence. The reasons for the assembly’s actions were economic. The delegates hesitated to further tax the bourgeoisie, who were strong supporters of the Revolution. However, the delegates were willing to sell church lands to help pay off France’s large debt.
- The assembly’s actions alarmed millions of devout French peasants, who rallied to the support of their parish priests. Many French peasants, like their priests, were conservative Catholics. Although the assembly’s move to make the church a part of the state was in accord with Enlightenment philosophy, it offended such Catholics, who believed that the pope should rule over a church independent of the state.
- These changes in the church drove a wedge between the peasants and the bourgeoisie. From this time on, the peasants often opposed further revolutionary changes.
- **Louis Tries to Escape:** As the National Assembly restructured the relationship between church and state, Louis XVI pondered his fate as a monarch. Some of the king’s advisers warned Louis that he and his family were in danger. Many supporters of the monarchy thought France unsafe and left the country. Then, in June 1791, Louis and his family tried to escape from France to the Austrian Netherlands. As they neared the French border, however,

a postmaster recognized the king from his portrait on some paper money. The royal family was returned to Paris under guard. By his attempted escape, Louis XVI had increased the influence of his radical enemies and sealed his own doom.

### Conflicting Goals Cause Divisions

- For two years, the National Assembly argued over a new constitution for France. By 1791, the delegates had made significant changes in France's government and society.
- A Limited Monarchy: The National Assembly created a limited constitutional monarchy. The new constitution stripped the king of much of his authority and gave the Legislative Assembly the power to create French law. Although the king and his ministers would still hold the executive power to enforce laws, France's assemblymen would be the lawmakers in the country.
- In September 1791, the National Assembly completed its new constitution, which Louis reluctantly approved, and then handed over its power to a new assembly—the Legislative Assembly. This assembly had the power to create laws and to approve or prevent any war the king declared on other nations.
- Factions Split France Despite the new government, old problems, such as food shortages and government debt, remained. Angry cries for more liberty, more equality, and more bread soon caused the revolution's leaders to turn against one another. The Legislative Assembly split into three general groups, each of which sat in a different part of the meeting hall.

### French Revolution

#### Monarchy to Republic:

- The situation in France continued to be tense during the following years. Although Louis XVI had signed the Constitution, he entered into secret negotiations with the King of Prussia. Rulers of other neighboring countries too were worried by the developments in France and made plans to send troops to put down the events that had been taking place there since the summer of 1789.
- Before this could happen, the National Assembly voted in April 1792 to declare war against Prussia and Austria. Thousands of volunteers thronged from the



provinces to join the army. They saw this as a war of the people against kings and aristocracies all over Europe. Among the patriotic songs they sang was the Marseillaise, composed by the poet Roget de L'Isle. It was sung for the first time by volunteers from Marseilles as they marched into Paris and so got its name. The Marseillaise is now the national anthem of France. The revolutionary wars brought losses and economic difficulties to the people. While the men were away fighting at the front, women were left to cope with the tasks of earning a living and looking after their families. Large sections of the population were convinced that the revolution had to be carried further, as the Constitution of 1791 gave political rights only to the richer sections of society.

- Political clubs became an important rallying point for people who wished to discuss government policies and plan their own forms of action. The most successful of these clubs was that of the Jacobins, which got its name from the former convent of St Jacob in Paris.
- Women too, who had been active throughout this period, formed their own clubs. Section 4 of this chapter will tell you more about their activities and demands. The members of the Jacobin club belonged mainly to the less prosperous sections of society. They included small shopkeepers, artisans such as shoemakers, pastry cooks, watchmakers, and printers, as well as servants and daily-wage workers. Their leader was Maximilian Robespierre. A large group among the Jacobins decided to start wearing long striped trousers similar to those worn by dock workers. This was to set themselves apart from the fashionable sections of society, especially nobles, who wore knee breeches. It was a way of proclaiming the end of the power wielded by the wearers of knee breeches. These Jacobins came to be known as the sans-culottes, literally meaning 'those without knee breeches'. There is no hereditary monarchy. Louis XVI was sentenced to death by a court on the charge of treason. On 21 January 1793, he was executed publicly at the Place de la Concorde. The queen, Marie Antoinette, met with the same fate shortly after.

### Reign of Terror:

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- The period from 1793 to 1794 is referred to as the Reign of Terror. Robespierre followed a policy of severe control and punishment. All those whom he saw as being 'enemies' of the republic—ex-nobles and clergy, members of other political parties, even members of his own party who did not agree with his methods—were arrested, imprisoned, and then tried by a revolutionary tribunal. If the court found them 'guilty,' they were guillotined.
- The guillotine is a device consisting of two poles and a blade with which a person is beheaded. It was named after Dr. Guillotin, who invented it. Robespierre's government issued laws placing a maximum ceiling on wages and prices. Meat and bread were rationed. Peasants were forced to transport their grain to the cities and sell it at prices fixed by the government. The use of more expensive white flour was forbidden; all citizens were required to eat the pain d'égalité (equality bread), a loaf made of wheat. Equality was also sought to be practiced through forms of speech and address. Instead of the traditional Monsieur (Sir) and Madame (Madam) all French men and women were henceforth Citoyen and Citoyenne (Citizen). Churches were shut down, and their buildings were converted into barracks or offices. Robespierre pursued his policies so relentlessly that even his supporters began to demand moderation. Finally, he was convicted by a court in July 1794, arrested, and on the next day sent to the guillotine.
- The fall of the Jacobin government allowed the wealthier middle classes to seize power. A new constitution was introduced that denied the vote to non-propertied sections of society. It provided for two elected legislative councils. These then appointed a Directory, an executive made up of five members. This was meant as a safeguard against the concentration of power in a one-man executive, as under the Jacobins. However, the directors often clashed with the legislative councils, who then sought to dismiss them.
- The political instability of the Directory paved the way for the rise of a military dictator, Napoleon Bonaparte. Through all these changes in the form of government, the ideals of freedom, of equality before the law, and of fraternity remained inspiring ideals that motivated political movements in France and the rest of Europe during the following century.

**Conclusion:**

- In 1804, Napoleon Bonaparte crowned himself Emperor of France. He set out to conquer neighbouring European countries, dispossessing dynasties and creating kingdoms where he placed members of his family. Napoleon saw his role as a moderniser of Europe. He introduced many laws such as the protection of private property and a uniform system of weights and measures provided by the decimal system. Initially, many saw Napoleon as a liberator who would bring freedom for the people.
- But soon the Napoleonic armies came to be viewed everywhere as an invading force. He was finally defeated at Waterloo in 1815. Many of his measures that carried the revolutionary ideas of liberty and modern laws to other parts of Europe had an impact on people long after Napoleon had left. The ideas of liberty and democratic rights were the most important legacy of the French Revolution. These spread from France to the rest of Europe during the nineteenth century, where feudal systems were abolished. Colonised peoples reworked the idea of freedom from bondage into their movements to create a sovereign nation state. Tipu Sultan and Rammohan Roy are two examples of individuals who responded to the ideas coming from revolutionary France.

## Rise of Nationalism in Europe

- Nationalism was the most powerful idea of the 1800s. Its influence stretched throughout Europe and the Americas. It shaped countries by creating new ones or breaking up old ones. In Europe, it also upset the balance of power set up at the Congress of Vienna in 1815, affecting the lives of millions. Empires in Europe were made up of many different groups of people. Nationalism fed the desire of most of those groups to be free of the rule of empires and govern themselves in their traditional lands.

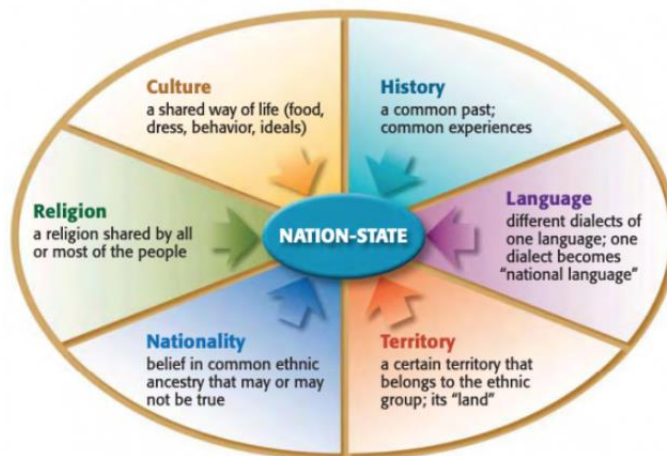
## Nationalism: A Force for Unity or Disunity

- During the 1800s, nationalism fueled efforts to build nation-states. Nationalists were not loyal to kings, but to their people—to those who shared common bonds. Nationalists believed that people of a single “nationality,” or ancestry, should unite under a single government. However, people who wanted to restore the old order from before the French Revolution saw nationalism as a force for disunity. Gradually, authoritarian rulers began to see that nationalism could also unify masses of people. They soon began to use nationalist feelings for their own purposes. They built nation-states in areas where they remained firmly in control.

### Nationalism

Nationalism—the belief that people should be loyal to their nation—was not widespread until the 1800s. The rise of modern nationalism is tied to the spread of democratic ideas and the growth of an educated middle class. People wanted to decide how they were governed, instead of having monarchs impose government on them.

### Bonds That Create a Nation-State



## Positive and Negative Results of Nationalism

Nationalism has not always been a positive influence. For example, extremely strong nationalistic feelings sometimes lead a group to turn against outsiders. The chart below lists some positive and negative results of nationalism. Note how some results, such as competition, can be both positive and negative.

Positive Results	Negative Results
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• People within a nation overcoming their differences for the common good</li> <li>• The overthrow of colonial rule</li> <li>• Democratic governments in nations throughout the world</li> <li>• Competition among nations spurring scientific and technological advances</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Forced assimilation of minority cultures into a nation's majority culture</li> <li>• Ethnic cleansing, such as in Bosnia and Herzegovina in the 1990s</li> <li>• The rise of extreme nationalistic movements, such as Nazism</li> <li>• Competition between nations leading to warfare</li> </ul>

### Impact of Nationalism on 3 Empires

- Three aging empires—the Austrian Empire of the Hapsburgs, the Russian Empire of the Romanovs, and the Ottoman Empire of the Turks—contained a mixture of ethnic groups. Control of land and ethnic groups moved back and forth between these empires, depending on victories or defeats in war and on royal marriages. When nationalism emerged in the 19th century, ethnic unrest threatened and eventually toppled these empires.
- **The Breakup of the Austrian Empire:** The Austrian Empire brought together Slovenes, Hungarians, Germans, Czechs, Slovaks, Croats, Poles, Serbs, and Italians. In 1866, Prussia defeated Austria in the Austro-Prussian War. With its victory, Prussia gained control of the newly organized North German Confederation, a union of Prussia and 21 smaller German political units. Then, pressured by the Hungarians, Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria split his empire in half, declaring Austria and Hungary independent states, with himself as ruler of both. The empire was now called Austria-Hungary or the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Nationalist disputes continued to weaken the empire for more than 40 years. Finally, after World War I, Austria-Hungary broke into several separate nation-states.

- **The Russian Empire Crumbles:** Nationalism also helped break up the 370-year-old empire of the czars in Russia. In addition to the Russians themselves, the czar ruled over 22 million Ukrainians, 8 million Poles, and smaller numbers of Lithuanians, Latvians, Estonians, Finns, Jews, Romanians, Georgians, Armenians, Turks, and others. Each group had its own culture. The ruling Romanov dynasty of Russia was determined to maintain iron control over this diversity. They instituted a policy of Russification, forcing Russian culture on all the ethnic groups in the empire. This policy actually strengthened ethnic nationalist feelings and helped to disunify Russia. The weakened czarist empire finally could not withstand the double shock of World War I and the communist revolution. The last Romanov czar gave up his power in 1917.
- **The Ottoman Empire Weakens:** The ruling Turks of the Ottoman Empire controlled Greeks, Slavs, Arabs, Bulgarians, and Armenians. In 1856, under pressure from the British and French, the Ottomans granted equal citizenship to all the people under their rule. That measure angered conservative Turks, who wanted no change in the situation, and caused tensions in the empire. For example, in response to nationalism in Armenia, the Ottomans massacred and deported Armenians from 1894 to 1896 and again in 1915. Like Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire broke apart soon after World War I.



## Unification of Italy and Germany

### Unification of Italy

- **Cavour Unites Italy:** While nationalism destroyed empires, it also built nations. Italy was one of the countries to form from the territory of crumbling empires. Between 1815 and 1848, fewer and fewer Italians were content to live under foreign rulers.
- **Cavour Leads Italian Unification:** Italian nationalists looked for leadership from the kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia, the largest and most powerful of the Italian states. The kingdom had adopted a liberal constitution in 1848. So, to the liberal Italian middle classes, unification under Piedmont-Sardinia seemed a good plan.

- In 1852, Sardinia's king, Victor Emmanuel II, named Count Camillo di Cavour as his prime minister. Cavour was a cunning statesman who worked tirelessly to expand Piedmont-Sardinia's power. Using skillful diplomacy and well-chosen alliances, he set about gaining control of northern Italy for Sardinia.

- Cavour realized that the greatest roadblock to annexing northern Italy was Austria. In 1858, the French emperor Napoleon III agreed to help drive Austria out of the northern Italian provinces.



Cavour then provoked a war with the Austrians. A combined French-Sardinian army won two quick victories. Sardinia succeeded in taking all of northern Italy, except Venetia.

- **Garibaldi Brings Unity:** As Cavour was uniting northern Italy, he secretly started helping nationalist rebels in southern Italy. In May 1860, a small army of Italian nationalists led by a bold and visionary soldier, Giuseppe Garibaldi, captured Sicily. In battle, Garibaldi always wore a bright red shirt, as did his followers. As a result, they became known as the Red Shirts.
- From Sicily, Garibaldi and his forces crossed to the Italian mainland and marched north. Eventually, Garibaldi agreed to unite the southern areas he had conquered with the kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia. Cavour arranged for King Victor Emmanuel II to meet Garibaldi in Naples. “The Red One” willingly agreed to step aside and let the Sardinian king rule. In 1866, the Austrian province of Venetia, which included the city of Venice, became part of Italy. In 1870 Italian forces took over the last part of a territory known as the Papal States. With this victory, the city of Rome came under Italian control. Soon after, Rome became the capital of the United Kingdom of Italy. The pope, however, would continue to govern a section of Rome known as Vatican City.

### Unification of Germany

- **Bismarck Unites Germany:** Like Italy, Germany also achieved national unity in the mid-1800s. Beginning in 1815, 39 German states formed a loose grouping called the German Confederation. The Austrian Empire dominated the confederation. However, Prussia was ready to unify all the German states.
- **Prussia Leads German Unification:** Prussia enjoyed several advantages that would eventually help it forge a strong German state. First of all, unlike the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Prussia had a mainly German population. As a result, nationalism actually unified Prussia. In contrast, ethnic groups in Austria-Hungary tore the empire apart. Moreover, Prussia’s army was by far the most powerful in central Europe. In 1848, Berlin rioters forced a constitutional convention to write up a liberal constitution for the kingdom, paving the way for unification.
- **Bismarck Takes Control:** In 1861, Wilhelm I succeeded Frederick William to the throne. The liberal parliament refused him money for reforms that would double the strength of the

army. Wilhelm saw the parliament's refusal as a major challenge to his authority. He was supported in his view by the Junkers, strongly conservative members of Prussia's wealthy landowning class. In 1862, Wilhelm chose a conservative Junker named Otto von Bismarck as his prime minister. Bismarck was a master of what came to be known as realpolitik (This German term means "the politics of reality"). The term is used to describe tough power politics with no room for idealism.)

- **Otto von Bismarck (1815–1898):** To some Germans, Bismarck was the greatest and noblest of Germany's statesmen. They say he almost single-handedly unified the nation and raised it to greatness. To others, he was nothing but a devious politician who abused his powers and led Germany into dictatorship. His speeches, letters, and memoirs show him to be both crafty and deeply religious. At one moment, he could declare, "It is the destiny of the weak to be devoured by the strong." At another moment he might claim, "We Germans shall never wage aggressive war, ambitious war, or a war of conquest."
- With realpolitik as his style, Bismarck would become one of the commanding figures of German history. With the king's approval, Bismarck declared that he would rule without the consent of parliament and without a legal budget. Those actions were in direct violation of the constitution. In his first speech as prime minister, he defiantly told members of the Prussian parliament, **"It is not by means of speeches and majority resolutions that the great issues of the day will be decided—that was the great mistake of 1848 and 1849—but by blood and iron."**
- **Prussia Expands:** In 1864, Bismarck took the first step toward molding an empire. Prussia and Austria formed an alliance and went to war against Denmark to win two border provinces, Schleswig and Holstein. A quick victory increased national pride among Prussians. It also won new respect from other Germans and lent support for Prussia as head of a unified Germany. After the victory, Prussia governed Schleswig, while Austria controlled Holstein.
- **Seven Weeks' War:** Bismarck purposely stirred up border conflicts with Austria over Schleswig and Holstein. The tensions provoked Austria into declaring war on Prussia in 1866. This conflict was known as the Seven Weeks' War. The Prussians used their superior



training and equipment to win a devastating victory. They humiliated Austria. The Austrians lost the region of Venetia, which was given to Italy. They had to accept Prussian annexation of more German territory.

- With its victory in the Seven Weeks' War, Prussia took control of northern Germany. For the first time, the eastern and western parts of the Prussian kingdom were joined. In 1867, the remaining states of the north joined the North German Confederation, which Prussia dominated completely.



- **The Franco-Prussian War:** By 1867, a few southern German states remained independent of Prussian control. The majority of southern Germans were Catholics. Many in the region resisted domination by a Protestant Prussia. However, Bismarck felt he could win the support of southerners if they faced a threat from outside. He reasoned that a war with France would rally the south.
- Bismarck was an expert at manufacturing “incidents” to gain his ends. For example, he created the impression that the French ambassador had insulted the Prussian king. The French reacted to Bismarck’s deception by declaring war on Prussia on July 19, 1870. The Prussian army immediately poured into northern France. In September 1870, the Prussian army surrounded the main French force at Sedan. Among the 83,000 French prisoners taken was Napoleon III himself. Parisians withstood a German siege until hunger forced them to surrender.

- The Franco-Prussian War was the final stage in German unification. Now the nationalistic fever also seized people in southern Germany. They finally accepted Prussian leadership. On January 18, 1871, at the captured French palace of Versailles, King Wilhelm I of Prussia was crowned kaiser, or emperor. Germans called their empire the Second Reich. (The Holy Roman Empire was the first.) Bismarck had achieved Prussian dominance over Germany and Europe “by blood and iron.”
- **A Shift in Power:** The 1815 Congress of Vienna had established five Great Powers in Europe— Britain, France, Austria, Prussia, and Russia. In 1815, the Great Powers were nearly equal in strength. The wars of the mid-1800s greatly strengthened one of the Great Powers, as Prussia joined with other German states to form Germany.
- By 1871, Britain and Germany were clearly the most powerful, both militarily and economically. Austria and Russia lagged far behind. France struggled along somewhere in the middle. The European balance of power had broken down. This shift also found expression in the art of the period. In fact, during that century, artists, composers, and writers pointed to paths that they believed European society should follow.



## Colonialism

Colonialism implies domination of people's lives and culture. The main goal of colonialism is extraction of economic benefits from the colony. Colonialism results in control over the lives of natives in political, economic, cultural, and social spheres. It is more subtle, whereas imperialism is more formal and aggressive.

### Types of Colonialism

- **Settler colonialism:** Settler colonialism involves large-scale immigration, often motivated by religious, political, or economic reasons. It aims largely to replace any existing population. **Australia, Canada, the United States, Apartheid South Africa (and, to a more controversial extent, Israel) are examples of settler-colonial societies.**

- **Exploitation**

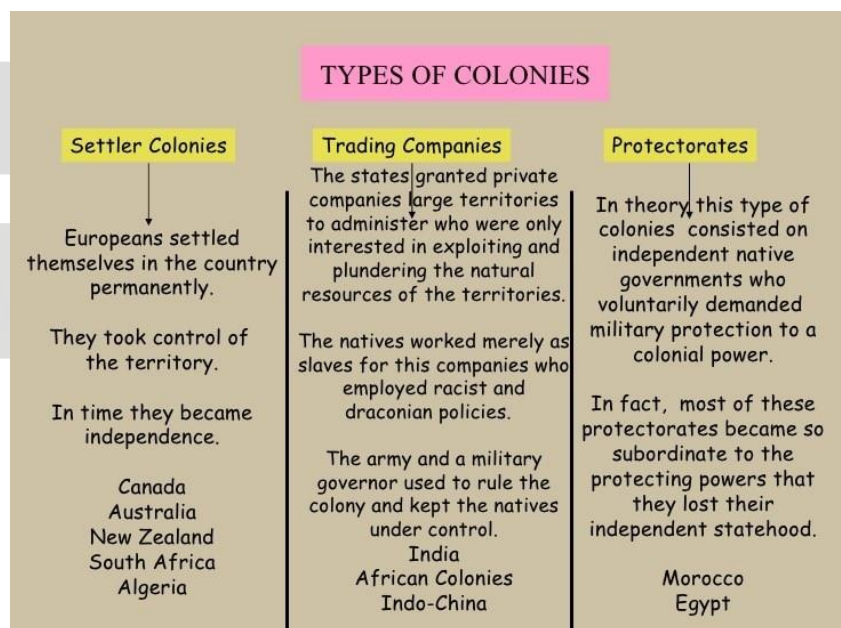
**colonialism:** it involves fewer colonists and focuses on the

exploitation of natural resources or labor to the benefit of the metropole.

This category includes trading posts as well as larger colonies where colonists would constitute much of the

political and economic administration.

- **Surrogate colonialism:** Surrogate colonialism involves a settlement project supported by a colonial power, in which most of the settlers do not come from the same ethnic group as the ruling power.
- **Internal colonialism:** Internal colonialism is a notion of uneven structural power between areas of a state. The source of exploitation comes from within the state. This is demonstrated in the way control and exploitation may pass from people from the colonizing country to an immigrant population within a newly independent country.



- **National colonialism:** National colonialism is a process involving elements of both settler and internal colonialism, in which nation-building and colonization are symbiotically connected, with the colonial regime seeking to remake the colonized peoples into their own cultural and political image. The Republic of China in Taiwan is the archetypal example of a national-colonialist society.
- **Trade Colonialism:** Trade Colonialism is a focus on control over the trading relationships of the colony. A good example of trade colonialism is the British trade coercion post-1842 Opium war in China forcing the opening of additional ports for foreign trade.

### Reasons for Colonization

- **Requirements of Raw Material:** It is necessary to maintain low costs of production compared to competing nations in the market. The desire to create a monopoly in the market and the need to procure raw materials at cheaper rates were two major factors that made it essential for the European nations to establish clear supremacy.
- **Investing Surplus Capital:** The Industrial Revolution added to the wealth of the European capitalists, who were already rich. They started searching for secure markets to invest their surplus funds. The markets in the less developed countries were quite secure from this point of view. Thus, the availability of surplus capital facilitated the rise of colonialism.
- **Sources of Minerals:** The countries in Asia and Africa had rich sources of minerals like gold, diamonds, silver, coal, etc. This attracted the European merchants to various regions of Asia and Africa.
- **Geographic Importance:** European nations had realized that the geographic location of some regions in Asia and Africa are advantageous for trade. Malta, Gibraltar, Aden, Singapore, Andaman, and Nicobar were some such regions where the British established their hold.
- **Availability of Labor: European** merchants needed a large number of labourers at a very cheap rate. The colonies fulfilled this need. Later, it contributed to the boom in the slave trade.
- **Religious Reasons:** Protestant groups, like the Pilgrims and Puritans, came to the Americas to establish their own communities, where they could worship God in their

own way. Catholics, Quakers, and Jews later came to the colonies seeking freedom of worship.

### Merits of Colonialism

- **Industrial growth:** Colonialism contributed for the industrial growth of the mother country. Raw materials were brought to the mother country from her colonies. The factories ran quite well and produced more and more which were sent again to colonies for sale.
- **The mother country sent many powerful and genius people to different colonies. They became the head of administration or army.** They received their salary from the colonies. Thus, the mother country could very well govern her colonies
- Colonialism increased the prestige of the mother country. The more colonies a country possessed the more prestige it had before others. It also considered herself more powerful.
- Colonialism also helped in the promotion of education, agriculture, administration, industry, trade and commerce. In due course of time, these colonies became self-sufficient.
- Colonialism taught the people about '**Nationalism**', '**Democracy**' and '**Constitutionalism**'. In later times, these ideas helped the people of the colonies to achieve independence.
- **This helped a lot to the missionaries.** They taught English to the people at different colonies. This educated people who knew many new ideas and spread them among the native people.

### Impact of Colonialism

- **Columbian Exchange:** The term Columbian Exchange refers to the widespread exchange of plants, animals, culture, human populations, technology, and ideas that occurred between the new world (Americas) and the Old World (Eurasia) in the 15<sup>th</sup> and 16<sup>th</sup> centuries, as a result of European colonization and trade.
- **Slave Trade:** To effectively utilize the resources, colonizers needed immense amount of labour. During the initial years, the European settlers met labour requirements by



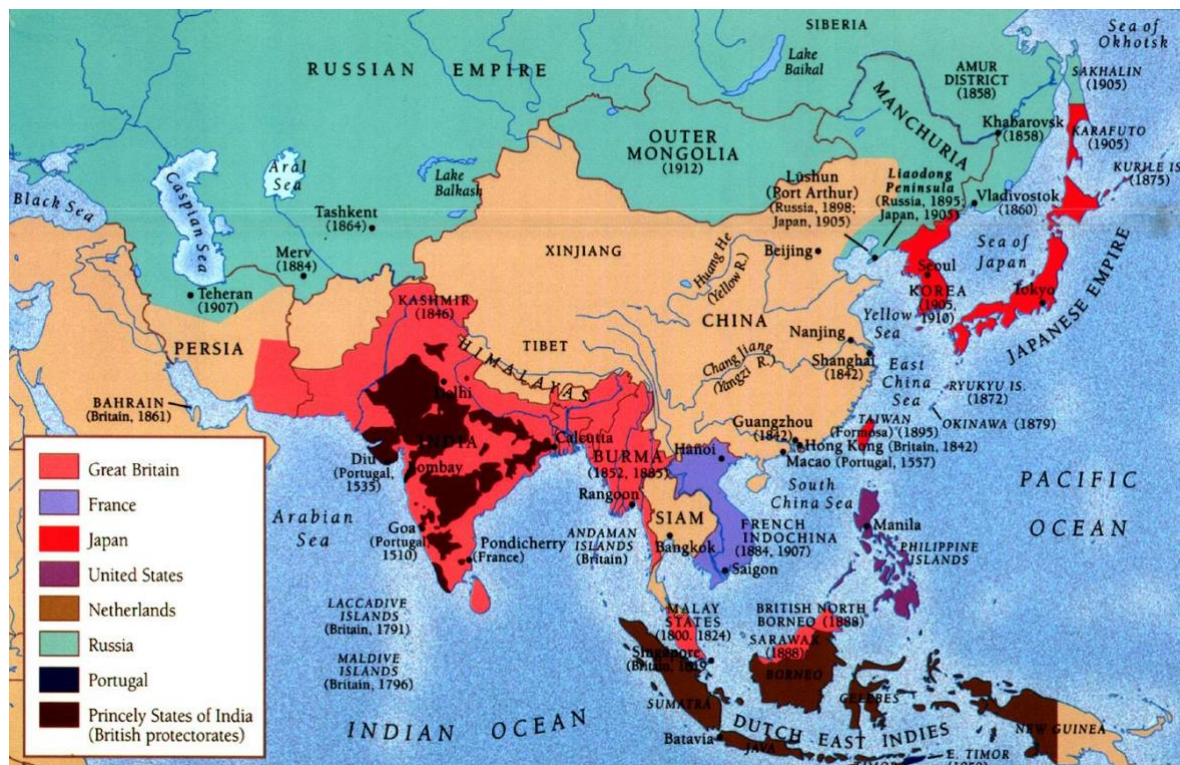
enslaving the native populations. However, the decline in the native population led to importing slaves from Africa, which emerged as a lucrative alternative.

- **Boost to Mercantilism:** Mercantilism, in a way, was both the cause and the effect of colonialism. Mercantile economic policies were definitely an impetus for the start of colonization. But subsequently, the benefits due to colonial exploitation further reinforced the ideology of mercantile capitalism and augmented its spread across Europe.
- **Military innovation:** Conquering forces have throughout history applied innovation in order to gain an advantage over the armies of the people they aim to conquer. Greeks developed the phalanx system, which enabled their military units to present themselves to their enemies as a wall, with foot soldiers using shields to cover one another during their advance on the battlefield.
- **Introduced diseases:** Encounters between explorers and populations in the rest of the world often introduced new diseases, which sometimes caused local epidemics of extraordinary virulence. For example, smallpox, measles, malaria, yellow fever, and others were unknown in pre-Columbian America.

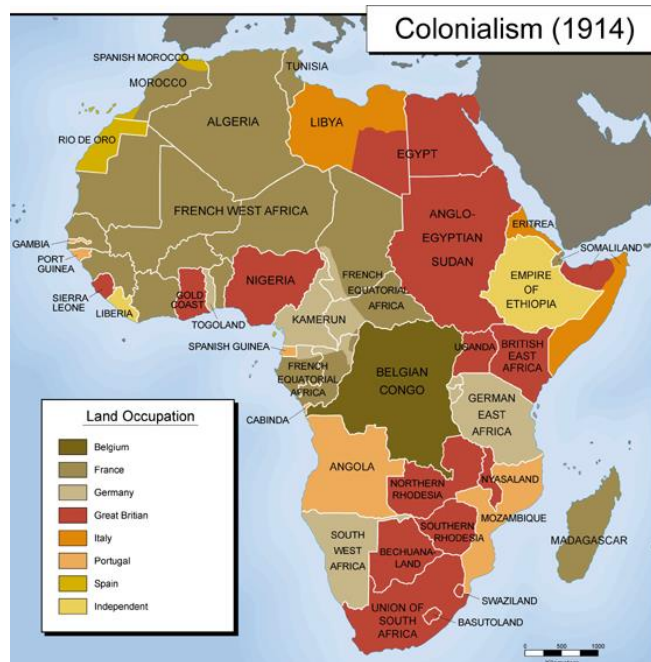
### Colonialism in Asia

India	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• The Portuguese first entered into India and established their colonies in Goa, Daman and Diu.</li><li>• After that the Dutch, French, and English had their colonies in India.</li><li>• At last, in the game of power politics, the English became successful and ruled India for about two hundred years.</li></ul>
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<b>South-East Asia</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Portuguese first established their colonies in South-East Asia. They had first occupied Malacca.</li> <li>• After that, the Dutch established their colonies in Java, Sumatra, Borneo, and Bali.</li> <li>• The English also occupied Burma. They got Hong Kong from China in 1819.</li> <li>• The French received Sigan from China.</li> <li>• Russia occupied Arthur Harbor and a large portion of Manchuria.</li> <li>• Germany occupied Kiachou.</li> <li>• Japan occupied Korea and Formosa.</li> </ul>
<b>Central Asia</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In Central Asia, Russia and England established their colonies. Russia occupied Tashkent, Samarkand and Bokhara</li> <li>• The northern part of Persia was retained by Russia and its southern part came under the sway of England.</li> </ul>



## Colonialism in Africa



### Social and Economic Impact of Colonialism on India

#### Social Impact

- Exposure to modern ideas and institution such as Rationalism, liberalism, humanism, Parliament, etc led to social reforms in Indian society in form of Abolition of sati, widow remarriage, girls' education, etc
- It also led to growth of a nationalist and anti-colonial consciousness.
- The knowledge of English has given Indians an edge in the global market, was introduced during colonial period. Though, English continues to be mark of privilege in some pockets of India, it has become necessity and an important tool of communication.
- It led to considerable movement of people from one part to another within India and Outside India for employment in tea plantation, as government employees and professionals like doctors and lawyers. This helped in better integration of India and national consciousness.
- Due to growth of urbanization and industrialization, employment opportunities grew and the remittances were used for the development of the villages- establishment of educational institute, trusts, fashionable houses, etc.



- To prevent opposition from Indian people, British imposed laws to curtail expression of public opinion. They excluded Indians from responsible position in government and discriminated against them in other institutions and in social life
- The role of moneylender, Zamindars changed the social structure in villages. The relationship of tribes with forests was changed.
- Movement of people from India to other colonies threatened the change in social system of caste. It also involved the oppression of laborers by curtailing their freedom and exploiting them.
- Industrialization also led to growth of new social grouping in the society and new social relationship, which further caused division within society.

### Economic impact

- Industrialization in India was started with the setup of cotton mills in India
- Railway construction was started on large scale to extend the Indian market for British Goods.
- New urban centers sprawled up like Bombay and Madras, which was at the cost of decline of old urban centers such as Surat and Masulipatnam.
- Led to growth of commercial farming and production of cash crops in India.
- Industrial revolution in England, led to pouring of British goods in India at an unprecedented rate, which ruined the Indian handicraft Industry and led to de-industrialization in some sectors. For example- traditional exports of silk and cotton manufactures declined in India.
- Money, resources were drained out of India and India's interests were subordinated more and more to British interests
- It changed the land ownership laws and decided what crops to be grown and what ought not be grown.

### Conclusion

The Colonialism of the West could not last long. During the World War I, it got a severe jolt. The Press, education and political consciousness which grew in these colonies made the people conscious about their rights. On the other hand, the capitalist countries could not fulfill the social

and political needs of the people of different colonies. Nationalism grew in these countries and after World War II, the colonies declared their independence one after another.

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## American Revolution

### American Colonies and their relation to Britain

- By the mid 18th Century, the 13 colonists were thriving and started to lose their British identity.
- A new sense of identity was emerging in the colonists' minds. By the mid-1700s, colonists had been living in America for nearly 150 years. Each of the 13 colonies had its own government, and people were used to a great degree of independence. Colonists saw themselves less as British and more as Virginians or Pennsylvanians. However, they were still British subjects and were expected to obey British law.
- In the 1660s, Parliament had passed trade laws called the **Navigation Acts**. These laws prevented colonists from selling their most valuable products to any country except Britain. In addition, colonists had to pay high taxes on imported French and Dutch goods. However, colonists found ways to get around these laws.
- For many years, Britain felt no need to tighten its hold on the colonies. Despite the smuggling, Britain's **mercantilist policies** had made colonial trade very profitable. Britain bought American raw materials for low prices and sold manufactured goods to the colonists. And despite British trade restrictions, colonial merchants also thrived. However, after the French and Indian War ended in 1763, Britain toughened its trade laws. These changes sparked growing anger in the colonies.

### Independence

- In 1760, when George III took the throne, most Americans had no thoughts of either revolution or independence. They still thought of themselves as loyal subjects of the British king. Yet by 1776, many Americans were willing to risk their lives to break free of Britain.
- During the French and Indian War, Great Britain had run up a huge debt in the war against France. Because American colonists benefited from Britain's victory, Britain expected the colonists to help pay the costs of the war. In 1765, Parliament passed the **Stamp Act**. According to this law, colonists had to pay a tax to have an official stamp put on wills, deeds, newspapers, and other printed material.
- American colonists were outraged. They had never paid taxes directly to the British government before. Colonial lawyers argued that the stamp tax violated colonists' natural rights. In Britain,

citizens consented to taxes through their representatives in Parliament. Because the colonists had no such representatives, Parliament could not tax them(**No Taxation without Representation**). The colonists demonstrated their defiance of this tax with angry protests and a boycott of British manufactured goods. The boycott proved so effective that Parliament gave up and repealed the Stamp Act in 1766.

### Growing Hostility Leads to War

- Over the next decade, further events steadily led to war. Some colonial leaders, such as Boston's Samuel Adams, favored independence from Britain. They encouraged conflict with British authorities. At the same time, George III and his ministers made enemies of many moderate colonists by their harsh stands. In 1773, to protest an import tax on tea, Adams organized a raid against three British ships in Boston Harbor. The raiders dumped 342 chests of tea into the water. George III, infuriated by the "**Boston Tea Party**," as it was called, ordered the British close the port of Boston. British troops occupied the city.
- In September 1774, representatives from every colony except Georgia gathered in **Philadelphia** to form the **First Continental Congress**. This group protested the treatment of Boston. When the king paid little attention to their complaints, all 13 colonies decided to form the **Second Continental Congress** to debate their next move.
- On April 19, 1775, British soldiers and American militiamen exchanged gunfire on the village green in Lexington, Massachusetts. The fighting spread to nearby Concord. When news of the fighting reached the Second Continental Congress, its members voted to raise an army under the command of a Virginian named **George Washington**. The American Revolution had begun.

### Enlightenment Ideas Influence American Colonists:

- Although a war had begun, the American colonists still debated their attachment to Great Britain. Many colonists wanted to remain part of Britain. A growing number, however, favored independence. They heard the persuasive arguments of colonial leaders such as **Patrick Henry, John Adams, and Benjamin Franklin**. These leaders used Enlightenment ideas to justify independence. The colonists had asked for the same political rights as people in Britain, they

said, but the king had stubbornly refused. Therefore, the colonists were justified in rebelling against a tyrant who had broken the social contract.

- In July 1776, the Second Continental Congress issued the Declaration of Independence. This document, written by **Thomas Jefferson**, was firmly based on the ideas of John Locke and the Enlightenment. The Declaration reflected these ideas in its eloquent argument for natural rights. Since Locke had asserted that people had the right to rebel against an unjust ruler, the Declaration of Independence included a long list of George III's abuses. The document ended by breaking the ties between the colonies and Britain.

### Reasons for the Success for the Colonists:

- When the war was first declared, the odds seemed heavily weighted against the Americans. Washington's ragtag, poorly trained army faced the well-trained forces of the most powerful country in the world. In the end, however, the Americans won their war for independence.
- Several reasons explain their success.
  - First, The motivation of Americans was high as they were fighting for their motherland.
  - Second, the overconfident British generals made several mistakes.
  - Third, time itself was on the side of the Americans. The British Army is fighting a war away from their homeland and it is expensive.
  - Finally, The French Army's entry into the war in 1778 was decisive. In 1781, combined forces of America and French trapped a British army commanded by **Lord Cornwallis(later he came to India as Governor)** at Yorktown, Virginia. Unable to escape, Cornwallis surrendered. The Americans were victorious.

### Americans Create a Republic:

- Shortly after declaring their independence, the 13 individual states recognized the need for a national government. In 1781 all 13 states ratified the constitution. This plan of government was known as the Articles of Confederation. The Articles established the United States as a republic—a government in which citizens rule through elected representatives.

- **The Articles Create a Weak National Government:** To protect their authority, the 13 states created a loose confederation in which they held most of the power. Thus, the Articles of Confederation deliberately created a weak national government.
- **A New Constitution:** leaders such as George Washington and James Madison felt the need for a strong national government. In February 1787, Congress approved a Constitutional Convention to revise the Articles of Confederation. The Constitutional Convention held its first session in May 1787. The 55 delegates were experienced statesmen who were familiar with the political theories of Locke, Montesquieu, and Rousseau.
- **The Federal System :** Like Montesquieu, the delegates distrusted a powerful central government controlled by one person or group. They, therefore, established three separate branches—legislative, executive, and judicial. This provided a built-in system of checks and balances, with each branch checking the actions of the other two. For example, the president received the power to veto legislation passed by Congress. However, Congress could override a presidential veto with the approval of two-thirds of its members.
- Although the Constitution created a strong central government, it did not eliminate local governments. Instead, the Constitution set up a federal system in which power was divided between national and state governments. The delegates agreed with Locke and Rousseau that governments draw their authority from the consent of the governed.
- **The Bill of Rights** The delegates signed the new Constitution on September 17, 1787. In order to become law, however, the Constitution required approval by conventions in at least 9 of the 13 states. These conventions were marked by sharp debate. Supporters of the Constitution, called the Federalists, argued that the new government would provide a better balance between national and state powers. Their opponents, the Anti-Federalists, feared that the Constitution gave the central government too much power. They also wanted a bill of rights to protect the rights of individual citizens.
- In order to gain support, the Federalists promised to add a bill of rights to the Constitution. This promise cleared the way for approval. Congress formally added to the Constitution the ten amendments known as the Bill of Rights. These amendments protected such basic rights as freedom of speech, press, assembly, and religion. Many of these rights had been advocated by Voltaire, Rousseau, and Locke.
- The Constitution and Bill of Rights marked a turning point in people's ideas about government. Both documents put Enlightenment ideas into practice. They expressed an optimistic view that



reason and reform could prevail and that progress was inevitable. Such optimism swept across the Atlantic. However, the monarchies and the privileged classes didn't give up power and position easily.

## U.S. Constitution: An Enlightenment Document

Enlightenment Idea	U.S. Constitution
<b>Locke</b> A government's power comes from the consent of the people	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Preamble begins "We the people of the United States" to establish legitimacy.</li> <li>• Creates representative government</li> <li>• Limits government powers</li> </ul>
<b>Montesquieu</b> Separation of powers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Federal system of government</li> <li>• Powers divided among three branches</li> <li>• System of checks and balances</li> </ul>
<b>Rousseau</b> Direct democracy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Public election of president and Congress</li> </ul>
<b>Voltaire</b> Free speech, religious toleration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bill of Rights provides for freedom of speech and religion.</li> </ul>
<b>Beccaria</b> Accused have rights, no torture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bill of Rights protects rights of accused and prohibits cruel and unusual punishment.</li> </ul>

## Enlightenment and Revolution, 1550–1789

### Scientific Revolution

- Heliocentric theory challenges geocentric theory.
- Mathematics and observation support heliocentric theory.
- Scientific method develops.
- Scientists make discoveries in many fields.

A new way of thinking about the world develops—based on observation and a willingness to question assumptions.

### Enlightenment

- People try to apply the scientific approach to all aspects of society.
- Political scientists propose new ideas about government.
- Philosophes advocate the use of reason to discover truths.
- Philosophes address social issues through reason.

Enlightenment writers challenge many accepted ideas about government and society.

### Spread of Enlightenment Ideas

- Enlightenment ideas appeal to thinkers and artists across Europe.
- Salons help spread Enlightenment thinking.
- Ideas spread to literate middle class.
- Enlightened despots attempt reforms.

Enlightenment ideas sweep through European society and also to colonial America.

### American Revolution

- Enlightenment ideas influence colonists.
- Britain taxes colonies after French and Indian War.
- Colonists denounce taxation without representation.
- War begins in Lexington and Concord.

Colonists declare independence, defeat Britain, and establish republic.



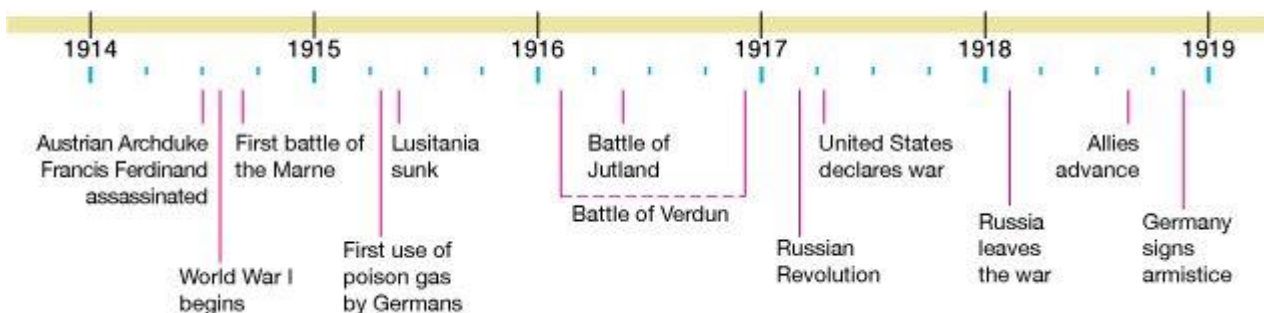
## World War-I

### Introduction

- **World War I**, often abbreviated WW1, also known as the First World War and contemporaneously known as the **Great War**, was an international conflict that began on 28 July 1914 and ended on 11 November 1918
- The war pitted the **Central Powers**—mainly Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey—against the **Allies**—mainly France, Great Britain, Russia, Italy, Japan, and, from 1917, the United States
- It ended with the defeat of the Central Powers.
- The war was virtually unprecedented in the slaughter, carnage, and destruction it caused.
- World War I was one of the **great watersheds** of 20th-century geopolitical history.
  - It led to the **fall of four great imperial dynasties** (in Germany, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey), resulted in the **Bolshevik Revolution** in Russia, and, in its **destabilization of European society**, laid the groundwork for World War II

### Timeline

#### Chief Events of World War I, 1914–18



### WW1: Causes

#### Mutual Defense Alliances

- Countries throughout the world have always made mutual defense agreements with their neighbours, treaties that could pull them into battle. These treaties meant that if one country was attacked, the allied countries were bound to defend them
- Hence, as a result of these agreements, many passively affected countries were pulled into the war

## Imperialism

- Before World War I, several European countries had made competing imperialistic claims in Africa and parts of Asia, making them points of contention. Because of the raw materials these areas could provide, tensions around which country had the right to exploit these areas ran high.
- The increasing competition and desire for greater empires led to an increase in confrontation that helped push the world into World War I.

## Nationalism

- Much of the origin of the war was based on the desire of the Slavic peoples in Bosnia and Herzegovina to no longer be part of Austria-Hungary, but instead be part of Serbia
- This specific essentially nationalistic and ethnic revolt led directly to the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand, which was the event that tipped the scales to war
- But more generally, nationalism in many of the countries throughout Europe contributed not only to the beginning but to the extension of the war across Europe and into Asia

## World War 1: A Glimpse

### • The Start of the War

- World War I began on July 28, 1914, when **Austria-Hungary** declared war on **Serbia**.

- This seemingly small conflict between two countries spread rapidly: soon, Germany, Russia, Great Britain, and France were all drawn into the war, largely because they were involved in Treaties that obligated them to defend certain other nations

- **The Western and Eastern Fronts**

- The first month of combat consisted of bold attacks and rapid troop movements on both fronts.
- In the west, Germany attacked first Belgium and then France. In the east, Russia attacked both Germany and Austria-Hungary. In the south, Austria-Hungary attacked Serbia
- Following the Battle of the Marne (September 5–9, 1914), the western front became entrenched in central France and remained that way for the rest of the war. The fronts in the east also gradually locked into place.

- **The Ottoman Empire**

- Late in 1914, the Ottoman Empire was brought into the fray as well
- First, Britain and France launched a failed attack on the Dardanelles. This campaign was followed by the British invasion of the Gallipoli Peninsula. Britain also launched a separate campaign against the Turks in Mesopotamia

- **Trench Warfare**

- The middle part of the war, 1916 and 1917, was dominated by continued Trench Warfare in both the east and the west.
- Soldiers fought from dug-in positions, striking at each other with Machine Guns, Heavy Artillery, and Chemical Weapons.
- Though soldiers died by the millions in brutal conditions, neither side had any substantive success or gained any advantage

- **The United States' Entrance and Russia's Exit**

- Despite the stalemate on both fronts in Europe, two important developments in the war occurred in 1917
- In early April, the United States, angered by attacks upon its ships in the Atlantic, declared war on Germany
- Then, in November, the Bolshevik Revolution prompted Russia to pull out of the war

- **The End of the War and Armistice**

- Although both sides launched Renewed Offensives in 1918 in an all-or-nothing effort to win the war, both efforts failed.
- A deadly **outbreak of Influenza**, meanwhile, took heavy tolls on soldiers of both sides.
- The **war ended** in the late fall of **1918**, after the member countries of the Central Powers signed Armistice Agreements one by one
- As a result of these agreements, Austria-Hungary was broken up into several smaller countries.
- Germany, under the **Treaty of Versailles**, was severely punished with hefty economic reparations, territorial losses, and strict limits on its rights to develop militarily.

### WW1: Consequences

World War I was the first truly global war and had a profound effect on the 20th century as follows:

- **New technology**
  - One of the most significant impacts of World War One was huge advances in technology, which would transform the way that people all around the world **travelled and communicated**, in particular, in the years after the conflict
  - **New weapons and technologies** were developed and used that led to more destruction than any war had seen in the past
    - The scientists and engineers worked hard to develop planes that were stronger, quicker and capable of being used in battle
    - The first bombs were dropped from the air (by hand at first by the pilot!) and planes were used to spy on enemy territory.
    - Also, **tanks** were also used for the first time, which could drive across muddy battlefields and fire lethal weapons
    - **New methods of photography**, sound recording and ways to communicate were developed during the war, which had a long-lasting impact
- **Medical innovation**

- The war meant that medicine had to catch up to be able to deal with new Medical problems
- Donating and giving blood started during World War One during need of intense casualties
- A special rod called a Thomas splint, which was used on soldiers who had broken their leg, was also developed
- **Role of women**
  - Up until the war, women were perceived in a certain way in society. Their role was traditionally to stay in the home.
  - When war broke out and the men went off to fight, it was women who took on their jobs and kept things running back in Britain.
    - By late 1918, nine in every ten workers in the munitions industry were female – jobs which traditionally would have been done by men
  - Many women also had to return to a more domestic life when the men came home as a result of a law called 1919 Restoration of Pre-War Practices Act.
  - So, there was a long way to go for **Women Equality**
- **Reshaping of politics**
  - World War One spelled the end of the Ottoman Turkish empire and also contributed to the Russian revolution, which marked the beginning of a new politics system in action – communism.
- **Contribution to World War Two**
  - It is accepted that the punishments put on Germany as a result of the Treaty of Versailles after World War One contributed to WW2
    - In 1919, this treaty imposed harsh terms on Germany forcing them to accept the blame for the war and pay huge sums for the damages of the war
    - Thus, at a time when the country was politically unstable and extremely poor, it was the perfect climate for Adolf Hitler

- **India's contribution**

- India made a huge contribution to Britain's war effort. It sent staggering numbers of volunteers to fight and die on behalf of the allied forces
- The country also supplied 170,000 animals, 3,7 million tonnes of supplies, jute for sandbags, and a large loan (the equivalent of about £2 billion today) to the British government

- **India's reaction to the War**

- The nationalist response to British participation in the First World War was three-fold:
  - the Moderates supported the empire in the war as a matter of duty
  - the Extremists, including Tilak (who was released in June 1914), supported the war efforts in the mistaken belief that Britain would repay India's loyalty with gratitude in the form of self-government
  - the revolutionaries decided to utilise the opportunity to wage a war on British rule and liberate the country

- **Impact of WW1 on India**

- **Political influence**

- The withdrawal of Punjabi troops into India after the end of the war stimulated political activities against colonial rule in the province which later took the form of widespread protests. Also after the war, a large section of soldiers became active in Punjab to spread nationalism in a big way
    - Nationalism and mass civil disobedience emerged in India when the 1919 Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms failed to meet the expectations of 'home rule'.
    - The resentment generated by the forced recruitment of soldiers for the war set the backdrop for the **promotion of nationalism**

- **Social Impact**

- Between 1911 and 1921, there was a significant increase in the **literacy rate** among the enlisted military communities. In those days, soldiers learned to read and write for their foreign campaigns



- In addition, a large number of non-combatants were also recruited from India – such as nurses, doctors, etc. Therefore, during this war, the work area of **women** also expanded and they also gained social importance
- **Economic impact**
  - The demand for Indian goods in Britain increased rapidly as the war on production capabilities in Britain was adversely affected
  - Although the war caused a disruption in the shipping lanes, it meant that Indian industries had to suffer inconvenience due to the lack of inputs previously imported from Britain and Germany. Hence **supply constraints** were present along with **additional demand**
  - Inflation was a consequence of war as well
    - Industrial prices almost doubled in the six years after 1914 and the rise in rising prices benefited Indian industries.
  - **Food inflation** also increased drastically due to an increase in demand for food supplies, especially grain.
  - Export of cash crops like jute also suffered heavy losses due to loss of European market
    - It is noteworthy that in the meantime there was a shortage of workers engaged in jute production in India due to increase in the demands of the soldiers and the production of jute mills of Bengal was also damaged
  - At the same time, the decline in British products in domestic manufacturing sectors like **cotton** also benefited which dominated the pre-war market.

### Russian Revolution

- The Russian Revolution was like a firecracker with a very long fuse. The explosion came in 1917. Yet the fuse had been burning for nearly a century. The cruel, oppressive rule of most 19th-century czars caused widespread social unrest for decades. Anger over social inequalities and the ruthless treatment of peasants grew. The czars' unfair governing sparked many violent reactions. Army officers revolted in 1825. Hundreds of peasants rioted. Secret revolutionary groups formed and plotted to overthrow the government. In 1881, student revolutionaries were angry over the slow pace of political change. They assassinated the reform-minded czar, Alexander II. Russia was heading toward a full-scale revolution.

### Alexander III Upholds the Autocracy

- In 1881, Alexander III succeeded his father, Alexander II, to the throne and halted all reforms in Russia. Like his grandfather, Nicholas I, Alexander III clung to the principles of autocracy, a government in which he had total power. Alexander III was determined to strengthen “autocracy, orthodoxy, and nationality.” Anyone who questioned the absolute authority of the czar, worshiped outside the Russian Orthodox Church, or spoke a language other than Russian was tagged as dangerous.
- To wipe out revolutionaries, Alexander III used harsh measures. He imposed strict censorship codes on published materials and written documents, including private letters. His secret police carefully watched both secondary schools and universities. Teachers had to send detailed reports on every student. Political prisoners were exiled to Siberia, a region of eastern and central Russia.
- To establish a uniform Russian culture, Alexander III oppressed other national groups within Russia. He made Russian the official language of the empire and forbade the use of minority languages, such as Polish, in schools. Alexander made Jews the target of persecution. He subjected them to new laws that encouraged prejudice. Jews could not buy land or live among other Russians. Universities set strict quotas for Jewish students.
- A wave of **pogroms**—organized violence against Jews—broke out in many parts of Russia. Police and soldiers stood by and watched Russian citizens loot and destroy Jewish homes, stores, and synagogues.

### Nicholas II Resists Change

- When Nicholas II became czar in 1894, he announced, “The principle of autocracy will be maintained by me as firmly and unswervingly as by my lamented father [Alexander III].” Nicholas stubbornly refused to surrender any of his power. His trust in the tradition of Russian autocracy blinded him to the changing conditions of his times. Yet the sweeping forces of change would override his pledge to preserve the czarist rule of Russia’s past.
- **Economic Growth and Its Impact :** The number of factories more than doubled between 1863 and 1900. In spite of this, at the beginning of Nicholas II’s reign, Russia lagged behind the industrial nations of western Europe. In the 1890s, Sergey Witte, the czar’s most capable minister, launched a program to move the country forward. Through higher taxes and foreign investments, Witte helped finance the buildup of Russian industries. Witte’s steps also boosted the growth of heavy industry, particularly steel. By around 1900, Russia had become the world’s fourth-ranking producer of steel. Only the United States, Germany, and Great Britain produced more steel.
- Witte also pushed for the building of the great **Trans-Siberian Railway**—the world’s longest continuous rail line. With the help of British and French investors, work began in 1891. The Trans-Siberian Railway was completed in 1904. It connected European Russia in the west with Russian ports on the Pacific Ocean in the east.
- **The Revolutionary Movement Grows:** Rapid industrialization also stirred discontent among the people of Russia. The growth of factories brought new problems. Among these problems were grueling working conditions, miserably low wages, and child labor. Trade unions were outlawed. Still, exploited laborers who worked in factories and built the railway lines organized strikes. Workers were unhappy with their low standard of living and lack of political power. The gap between rich and poor was enormous.
- Amid the widespread unrest of workers and other members of Russian society, various revolutionary movements began to grow. They also competed for power. The group that would eventually succeed in establishing a new government in Russia followed the views of Karl Marx. These revolutionaries believed that the industrial class of workers would overthrow the czar. The industrial class would then form “a dictatorship of the proletariat.” In such a state, the workers would rule.

- In 1903, Russian Marxists split into two groups over revolutionary tactics. The Mensheviks wanted a broad base of popular support for the revolution. The **Bolsheviks** supported a small number of committed revolutionaries willing to sacrifice everything for radical change.
- The major leader of the Bolsheviks was Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov. He adopted the name of **Lenin**. He had an engaging personality and was an excellent organizer. He was also ruthless. These traits would ultimately help him gain command of the Bolsheviks. In the early 1900s, Lenin fled to western Europe to avoid arrest by the czarist regime. He maintained contact with other Bolsheviks. Lenin then waited until he could safely return to Russia.

### Crises at Home and Abroad

- The revolutionaries would not have to wait long to realize their visions. Between 1904 and 1917, Russia faced a series of crises. These events showed the czar's weakness and paved the way for revolution.
- **The Russo-Japanese War** In the late 1800s, Russia and Japan were imperialist powers. They both competed for control of Korea and Manchuria. The two nations signed a series of agreements over the territories, but Russia broke them. In retaliation, Japan attacked the Russians at Port Arthur, Manchuria, in February 1904.
- Though Russian soldiers and sailors went confidently to war, the Japanese defeated them. News of repeated losses sparked unrest at home and led to revolt in the midst of the war.

### Rasputin 1872–1916

- Born a peasant in Siberia, Rasputin became a religious teacher, although he was never ordained as a priest. The sinister monk seemed to cast a hypnotic spell on people, especially Czarina Alexandra and her ailing son.
- Rasputin's reputation for having mysterious powers followed him to his grave. In December 1916, a small group of young aristocrats plotted his assassination because he was reportedly taking control of the government. They lured him to a mansion and fed him poisoned cakes.
- The poison apparently had no effect on Rasputin's extraordinary strength. The conspirators then shot him several times. Assuming he was finally dead, they threw him in the Neva River. When his body was discovered three days later, doctors confirmed the cause of his death—drowning. Rasputin's death threw the czarina into shock. His prediction haunted her: "If I die or you desert me, in six months you will lose your son and your throne."

### Bloody Sunday

- **The Revolution of 1905** On January 22, 1905, about 200,000 workers and their families approached the czar's Winter Palace in St. Petersburg. They carried a petition asking for better working conditions, more personal freedom, and an elected national legislature. Nicholas II was not at the palace. His generals and police chiefs were. They ordered the soldiers to fire on the crowd. Between 500 and 1,000 unarmed people were killed. Russians quickly named the event "Bloody Sunday." Lenin called the incident a "dress rehearsal" for the later revolution that would usher in a Communist regime.
- Bloody Sunday provoked a wave of strikes and violence that spread across the country. Though Nicholas still opposed reform, in October 1905 he reluctantly promised more freedom. He approved the creation of the **Duma**—Russia's first parliament. The first Duma met in May 1906. Its leaders were moderates who wanted Russia to become a constitutional monarchy similar to Britain. Hesitant to share his power, the czar dissolved the Duma after ten weeks. Other Dumas would meet later. Yet none would have real power to make sweeping reforms.

### World War I: The Final Blow

- In 1914, Nicholas II made the fateful decision to drag Russia into World War I. Russia, though, was unprepared to handle the military and economic costs. Russia's weak generals and poorly equipped troops were no match for the German army. Before a year had passed, more than 4 million Russian soldiers had been killed, wounded, or taken prisoner. German machine guns mowed down advancing Russians by the thousands. Defeat followed defeat. As in the Russo-Japanese War, Russia's involvement in World War I revealed the weaknesses of czarist rule and military leadership.
- In 1915, Nicholas moved his headquarters to the war front. From there, he hoped to rally his discouraged troops to victory. His wife, Czarina Alexandra, ran the government while he was away. She ignored the czar's chief advisers. Instead, she continued to fall under the influence of the mysterious **Rasputin**—a self-described "holy man." He claimed to have magical healing powers.
- Alexis, Nicholas and Alexandra's son, suffered from hemophilia, a life-threatening disease. Rasputin seemed to ease the boy's symptoms. To show her gratitude, Alexandra allowed

Rasputin to make key political decisions. He opposed reform measures and obtained powerful positions for his friends. He spread corruption throughout the royal court. In 1916, a group of nobles murdered Rasputin. They feared his increasing role in government affairs.

- Meanwhile, the war was destroying the morale of Russian troops. Soldiers mutinied, deserted, or ignored orders. On the homefront, food and fuel supplies were dwindling. Prices were wildly inflated. People from all classes were clamoring for change and an end to the war. Neither Nicholas nor Alexandra proved capable of tackling these enormous problems.

### The March Revolution

- In March 1917, women textile workers in Petrograd led a citywide strike. Soon afterward, riots flared up over shortages of bread and fuel. Nearly 200,000 workers swarmed the streets. At first the soldiers obeyed orders to shoot the rioters but later sided with them. The soldiers fired at their commanding officers and joined the rebellion. Large crowds gathered, shouting “Down with the autocracy!” and “Down with the war!”
- **The Czar Steps Down** The local protest exploded into a general uprising—the March Revolution. It forced Czar Nicholas II to abdicate his throne. A year later revolutionaries executed Nicholas and his family. The czarist rule of the Romanovs, which spanned over three centuries, had finally collapsed. The March Revolution succeeded in bringing down the czar. Yet it failed to set up a strong government to replace his regime.
- Leaders of the Duma established a **provisional government**, or temporary government. It was eventually headed by Alexander Kerensky. His decision to continue fighting the war cost him the support of both soldiers and civilians. As the war dragged on, conditions inside Russia worsened. Angry peasants demanded land. City workers grew more radical. Social revolutionaries, competing for power, formed soviets. **Soviets** were local councils consisting of workers, peasants, and soldiers. In many cities, especially Petrograd, the soviets had more influence than the provisional government.
- **Lenin Returns to Russia** The Germans launched their own “secret weapon” that would erode the provisional government’s authority. They arranged Lenin’s return to Russia after many years of exile. The Germans believed that Lenin and his Bolshevik supporters would stir unrest in Russia and hurt the Russian war effort. Traveling in a sealed railway boxcar, Lenin reached Petrograd in April 1917.



## The Bolshevik Revolution

- Lenin and the Bolsheviks recognized their opportunity to seize power. They soon gained control of the Petrograd soviet, as well as the soviets in other major Russian cities. By the fall of 1917, people in the cities were rallying to the call, “All power to the soviets.” Lenin’s slogan—“Peace, Land, and Bread”—was gaining widespread appeal. Lenin decided to take action.
- **The Provisional Government Topples** In November 1917, without warning, Bolshevik Red Guards made up of armed factory workers stormed the Winter Palace in Petrograd. They took over government offices and arrested the leaders of the provisional government. The Bolshevik Revolution was over in a matter of hours. Kerensky and his colleagues disappeared almost as quickly as the czarist regime they had replaced.



## V. I. Lenin 1870–1924:

- A brilliant student, Lenin enrolled in law school as a young man but was expelled for taking part in a student protest meeting. In 1887, when he was 17, his brother, Alexander, was hanged for plotting to kill the czar. Legend has it that this event turned Lenin into a revolutionary. Though Alexander’s execution influenced Lenin, Lenin already harbored feelings against the government.
- By the early 1900s, he planned to overthrow the czar. After 1917, Russians revered him as the “Father of the Revolution.” Following Lenin’s death in 1924, the government placed his tomb

in Red Square in Moscow. His preserved body, encased in a bulletproof, glass-topped coffin, is still on display. Many Russians, though, favor moving Lenin's corpse away from public view.

### Lenin Restores Order

- War and revolution destroyed the Russian economy. Trade was at a standstill. Industrial production dropped and many skilled workers fled to other countries. Lenin, who helped mastermind the Bolshevik Revolution, shifted his role. He turned to reviving the economy and restructuring the government.
- **New Economic Policy** In March 1921, Lenin launched the New Economic Policy (NEP) by temporarily putting aside his plan for a state-controlled economy. Instead, he resorted to a small-scale version of capitalism. The reforms under the NEP allowed peasants to sell their surplus crops instead of turning them over to the government. Individuals could buy and sell goods for profit. The government kept control of major industries, banks, and means of communication, but it let some small factories, businesses, and farms operate under private ownership. Lenin also tried to encourage foreign investment.
- **Political Reforms** The many different nationalities within Russia had always posed an obstacle to national unity. Communist leaders also saw nationalism as a threat to unity and party loyalty. To keep nationalism in check, Lenin organized Russia into several self-governing republics under the central government. In 1922, the country was named the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), in honor of the councils that helped launch the Bolshevik Revolution. Each republic was controlled from the new capital—Moscow.
- The Bolsheviks also renamed their party the Communist Party. The name came from the writings of Karl Marx. He had used the word communism to describe the classless society that would exist after workers had seized power. In 1924, the Communists created a constitution based on socialist and democratic principles. The Communist Party held all the power. Lenin had established a dictatorship of the Communist Party, not “a dictatorship of the proletariat,” as Marx had promoted.
- Thanks partly to the new policies and to the peace that followed the civil war, the USSR slowly recovered. By 1928, the country's farms and factories were producing as much as they had before World War I. Lenin did not live to see this recovery. He had several strokes and spent the

last 18 months of his life as a semi-invalid. His death in 1924 opened a power struggle for control of the party and the country

### The Great Depression

- By the late 1920s, European nations were rebuilding war-torn economies. They were aided by loans from the more prosperous United States. In the United States, Americans seemed confident that the country would continue on the road to even greater economic prosperity. One sign of this was the booming stock market. Yet the American economy had serious weaknesses that were soon to bring about the most severe economic downturn the world had yet known.

### Europe After the War

- In both human suffering and economic terms, the cost of World War I was immense. The Great War left every major European country nearly bankrupt. Only the United States and Japan came out of the war in better financial shape than before. Neither had been a wartime battlefield. In fact, both had expanded their trade during the war. In addition, Europe's domination in world affairs had declined since the war. The long and brutal fight had drained the continent's resources.
- **New Democracies were Unstable:** War's end saw the sudden rise of new democracies. From 1914 to 1918, Europe's last absolute rulers had been overthrown. The dynasties of the Hohenzollerns in Germany, the Hapsburgs in Austria-Hungary, the Romanovs in Russia, and the Ottomans in Turkey all ended. The first of the new governments was formed in Russia in 1917. The Provisional Government, as it was called, hoped to establish constitutional and democratic rule. However, within months it had fallen to a Communist dictatorship. Even so, for the first time, most European nations had democratic governments.
- Many citizens of the new democracies had little experience with representative government. For generations, kings and emperors had ruled Germany and the new nations formed from Austria-Hungary. Even in France and Italy, whose parliaments had existed before World War I, the large number of political parties made effective government difficult. Some countries had a dozen or more political groups. In these countries, it was almost impossible for one party to win enough support to govern effectively. When no single party won a majority, a coalition government, or temporary alliance of several parties, was needed to form a parliamentary

majority. Because the parties disagreed on so many policies, coalitions seldom lasted very long. France, for example, endured some 40 changes of government from 1919 to 1939.

- Frequent changes in government made it hard for democratic countries to develop strong leadership and move toward long-term goals. In peaceful times, a country could get by with weak leadership. However, the weaknesses of a coalition government became a major problem in times of crisis. Voters in several countries were then willing to sacrifice democracy for strong, totalitarian leadership.
- **Weimar Republic was Weak:** Germany's new democratic government was set up in 1919. Known as the Weimar Republic, it was named after the city where the national assembly met. The Weimar Republic had serious weaknesses from the start. First, Germany lacked a strong democratic tradition. Furthermore, postwar Germany had several major political parties and many minor ones. Worst of all, millions of Germans blamed the Weimar government, not their wartime leaders, for the country's defeat and postwar humiliation. It was, after all, the Weimar government that had signed the **Treaty of Versailles**.
- **Inflation Causes Crisis in Germany:** Germany also faced enormous economic problems that began during the war. Unlike Britain and France, Germany did not greatly increase its wartime taxes. To pay the expenses of the war, the Germans simply printed money. After Germany's defeat, this paper money steadily lost its value. Burdened with heavy reparations payments to the Allies and with other economic problems, Germany printed even more money. The result was the value of the mark, as Germany's currency was called, fell sharply. Severe inflation set in. Germans needed more and more money to buy even the most basic goods. For example, in Berlin a loaf of bread cost less than a mark in 1918, more than 160 marks in 1922, and some 200 billion marks by late 1923. People took wheelbarrows full of money to buy food. The mark had become worthless.
- Consequently, people with fixed incomes saw their life savings become worthless. The money people had saved to buy a house now barely covered the cost of a table. Many Germans also questioned the value of their new democratic government.
- **Attempts at Economic Stability:** Germany recovered from the 1923 inflation thanks largely to the work of an international committee. The committee was headed by Charles Dawes, an American banker. The Dawes Plan provided for a \$200 million loan from American banks to stabilize German currency and strengthen its economy. The plan also set a more realistic schedule for Germany's reparations payments.

- Put into effect in 1924, the Dawes Plan helped slow inflation. As the German economy began to recover, it attracted more loans and investments from the United States. By 1929, German factories were producing as much as they had before the war.
- **Efforts at a Lasting Peace:** As prosperity returned, Germany's foreign minister, Gustav Stresemann, and France's foreign minister, Aristide Briand, tried to improve relations between their countries. In 1925, they met in Locarno, Switzerland, with officials from Belgium, Italy, and Britain. They signed a treaty promising that France and Germany would never again make war against each other. Germany also agreed to respect the existing borders of France and Belgium. It then was admitted to the League of Nations.
- In 1928, the hopes raised by the "**spirit of Locarno**" led to the **Kellogg-Briand peace pact**. Frank Kellogg, the U.S. Secretary of State, arranged this agreement with France's Briand. Almost every country in the world, including the Soviet Union, signed. They pledged "to renounce war as an instrument of national policy."
- Unfortunately, the treaty had no means to enforce its provisions. The League of Nations, the obvious choice as enforcer, had no armed forces. The refusal of the United States to join the League also weakened it. Nonetheless, the peace agreements seemed a good start. In addition, Europeans were enjoying an economic boom based largely on massive American investment.

### The Great Depression

- In the late 1920s, the world economy was like a delicately balanced house of cards. The key card that held up the rest was American economic prosperity. If the United States economy weakened, the whole world's economic system might collapse. In 1929, it did.
- **A Flawed U.S. Economy:** Despite prosperity, three weaknesses in the U.S. economy caused serious problems. These were:
  1. Uneven distribution of wealth
  2. Overproduction by business and agriculture
  3. Lessening demand for consumer goods.
- By 1929, American factories were turning out nearly half of the world's industrial goods. The rising productivity led to enormous profits. However, this new wealth was not evenly distributed. The richest 5 percent of the population received 33 percent of all personal income in 1929. Yet 60 percent of all American families earned less than \$2,000 a year. Thus, most

families were too poor to buy the goods being produced. Unable to sell all their goods, store owners eventually cut back their orders from factories. Factories in turn reduced production and laid off workers. A downward economic spiral began. As more workers lost their jobs, families bought even fewer goods. In turn, factories made further cuts in production and laid off more workers.

- During the 1920s, overproduction affected American farmers as well. Scientific farming methods and new farm machinery had dramatically increased crop yields. American farmers were producing more food. Meanwhile, they faced new competition from farmers in Australia, Latin America, and Europe. As a result, a worldwide surplus of agricultural products drove prices and profits down.
- Unable to sell their crops at a profit, many farmers could not pay off the bank loans that kept them in business. Their unpaid debts weakened banks and forced some to close. The danger signs of overproduction by factories and farms should have warned people against gambling on the stock market. Yet no one heeded the warning.

### Life in the Depression

- During the Great Depression of 1929 to 1939, millions of people worldwide lost their jobs or their farms. They faced a future without hope. At first the unemployed had to depend on the charity of others to survive. Many jobless and their families begged for food, clothing, and shelter. Some lost their homes and had to live in shanties, or shacks. Others turned to thievery or abandoned their families. Local governments and charities opened soup kitchens to provide free food. There were long lines of applicants for what work was available, and these jobs usually paid low wages. Conditions improved when national governments established programs for relief. However, recovery came slowly. The Depression ended only when nations began gearing up for war.

### The Stock Market Crashes:

- In 1929, Wall Street, in New York City, was the financial capital of the world. Banks and investment companies lined its sidewalks. At Wall Street's New York Stock Exchange, optimism about the booming U.S. economy showed in soaring prices for stocks. To get in on the boom, many middle-income people began buying stocks on margin. This meant that they paid a



small percentage of a stock's price as a down payment and borrowed the rest from a stockbroker. The system worked well as long as stock prices were rising. However, if they fell, investors had no money to pay off the loan.

- In September 1929, some investors began to feel that stock prices were unnaturally high. They started selling their stocks, believing the rates would soon go down. By Thursday, October 24, the gradual lowering of stock prices had become an all-out slide downward. A panic resulted. Everyone wanted to sell stocks, and no one wanted to buy. Prices sank quickly. The wild shouting of 1,000 brokers and their assistants at the Stock Exchange became what one observer called a "weird roar." Prices plunged to a new low on Tuesday, October 29. A record 16 million stocks were sold. Then the market collapsed.
- In the stock market crash, billions of dollars in "paper wealth" simply vanished. People could not pay the money they owed on margin purchases. Stocks they had bought at high prices were now worthless. Within months of the crash, unemployment rates began to rise as industrial production, prices, and wages declined. A long business slump, or depression, followed. The **Great Depression**, as it came to be called, touched every corner of the American economy. By 1932, factory production had been cut in half. Thousands of businesses failed, and banks closed. Around 9 million people lost the money in their savings accounts when banks had no money to pay them. Many farmers lost their lands when they could not make mortgage payments. By 1933 one-fourth of all American workers had no jobs.

### A Global Depression

- The collapse of the American economy sent shock waves around the world. Worried American bankers demanded repayment of their overseas loans, and American investors withdrew their money from Europe. The American market for European goods dropped sharply as the U.S. Congress placed high tariffs on imported goods so that American dollars would stay in the United States and support American workers. The government was trying to force Americans to buy American goods. This policy backfired. Conditions worsened for the United States. Many countries who depended on exporting goods to the United States also suffered. Moreover, when the United States raised tariffs, it set off a chain reaction. Other nations imposed their own higher tariffs. World trade dropped by 65 percent. This contributed further to the economic downturn. Unemployment rates soared.

- Because of war debts and dependence on American loans and investments, Germany and Austria were particularly hard hit. In 1931, Austria's largest bank failed. This started a financial panic in central European countries and sent their economies plunging.
- In Asia, the Japanese economy also slumped. Japanese farmers suffered greatly during the Depression. In the rice- growing areas of the northeast, crop failures in 1931 led to famine. Starving families ate tree bark and the roots of wild plants. City workers suffered, too, as the value of exports fell by half between 1929 and 1931. As many as 3 million workers lost their jobs, forcing many to go back to their rural villages.
- The economic crisis fell heavily in Latin America as well. Many of its nations were tied to the global economy by trade in such cash crops or raw materials as sugar, beef, copper, and tin. During the 1920s, world prices and market demand for these products were already dropping. As European and U.S. demand for Latin American products dried up in the 1930s, prices for these goods collapsed. At the same time, the cost of imported goods rose, pushed up by high tariffs. Latin American nations that had borrowed heavily from other nations could not repay their debts. The worldwide crisis spread rapidly.

### **The World Responds to the Crisis**

- The Depression confronted democracies with a serious challenge to their economic and political systems. Each country met the crisis in its own way.
- **Britain Takes Steps to Improve Its Economy:** Because its economy depended on foreign trade, the Depression hit Britain severely. To meet the emergency, British voters elected a multi-party coalition known as the National Government. This government's policies were designed to rescue the nation from economic calamity. It passed high protective tariffs, increased taxes, and regulated the currency. It also lowered interest rates to encourage industrial growth. These measures brought about a slow but steady recovery. By 1937, unemployment had been cut in half, and production had risen above 1929 levels. Britain avoided political extremes and preserved democracy.
- **France Responds to Economic Crisis:** Unlike Britain, France had a more self-sufficient economy. In 1930, it was still heavily agricultural and less dependent on foreign trade. Thus, France was somewhat cushioned against the Depression. Nevertheless, by 1935, one million French workers were unemployed.
- The economic crisis contributed to political instability. In 1933, five coalition governments formed and fell. Many political leaders were frightened by the growth of anti-democratic forces

both in France and in other parts of Europe. So in 1936, moderates, Socialists, and Communists formed a coalition. The Popular Front, as it was called, passed a series of reforms to help the workers. These reforms included pay increases, holidays with pay, and a 40-hour work week. Unfortunately, price increases quickly offset wage gains. Unemployment remained high. Yet France also preserved democratic government.

- **Socialist Governments Find Solutions:** The Socialist governments in the Scandinavian countries of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway also met the challenge of the economic crisis successfully. They built their recovery programs on an existing tradition of cooperative community action. In Sweden the government sponsored massive public works projects that kept people employed and producing. All the Scandinavian countries raised pensions for the elderly and increased unemployment insurance, subsidies for housing, and other welfare benefits. To pay for these benefits, the governments taxed all citizens. Under this program, both private and cooperative businesses prospered. Democracy remained intact.
- **Recovery in the United States:** In 1932, in the first presidential election after the Depression had begun, U.S. voters elected **Franklin D. Roosevelt**. His confident manner appealed to millions of Americans who felt bewildered by the Depression. On March 4, 1933, the new president sought to restore Americans' faith in their nation.
- Roosevelt immediately began a program of reform that he called the **New Deal**. Large public works projects helped to provide jobs for the unemployed. New government agencies gave financial help to businesses and farms. Large amounts of public money were spent on welfare and relief programs. Roosevelt and his advisers believed that government spending would create jobs and start a recovery. Regulations were imposed to reform the stock market and the banking system. Despite these efforts, recovery was slow.
- The New Deal did eventually reform the American economic system. Roosevelt's leadership preserved the country's faith in its democratic political system. It also established him as a leader of democracy in a world threatened by ruthless dictators

## Fascism

- Many democracies, including the United States, Britain, and France, remained strong despite the economic crisis caused by the Great Depression. However, millions of people lost faith in democratic government. In response, they turned to an extreme system of government called fascism.

### Fascist Beliefs and Policies

- This new, militant political movement called **fascism emphasized loyalty to the state and obedience to its leader**. Fascists promised to revive the economy, punish those responsible for hard times, and restore national pride. Their message attracted many people who felt frustrated and angered by the peace treaties that followed World War I and by the Great Depression.
- Unlike communism, fascism had no clearly defined theory or program. Nevertheless, most Fascists shared several ideas. They preached an **extreme form of nationalism, or loyalty to one's country**. Fascists believed that nations must struggle—peaceful states were doomed to be conquered. They pledged loyalty to an authoritarian leader who guided the state. In each nation, Fascists wore uniforms of a certain color, used special salutes, and held mass rallies.
- In some ways, fascism was similar to communism. Both systems were ruled by dictators who allowed only their political party (one-party rule). Both denied individual rights. In both, the state was supreme. Neither practiced any kind of democracy. However, unlike Communists, Fascists did not seek a classless society. Rather, they believed that each class had its place and function. Communism claimed to be a dictatorship of the working class. In most cases, fascist parties were made up of aristocrats and industrialists, war veterans, and the lower middle class. Also, Fascists were nationalists, and Communists were internationalists, hoping to unite workers worldwide.

### Benito Mussolini 1883–1945

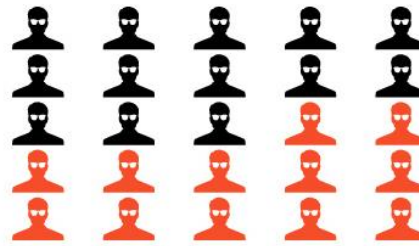
- Mussolini was a dazzling orator. Because he was of modest height, he usually chose a location for his speeches where he towered above the crowds—often a balcony high above a public square. He then roused audiences with his emotional speeches and theatrical gestures and body movements. Vowing to lead Italy “back to her ways of ancient greatness,” Mussolini peppered his speeches with aggressive words such as “war” and “power.” Mussolini wanted to win support for an overseas empire in Africa and a militaristic state at home. So, he often used settings and symbols from the period of Italy’s glory—the Roman Empire.

### Mussolini Comes to Power in Italy

- Fascism's rise in Italy was fueled by bitter disappointment over the failure to win large territorial gains at the 1919 Paris Peace Conference. Rising inflation and unemployment also contributed to widespread social unrest. Italy's upper and middle classes feared a Communist revolution, as in Russia. To growing numbers of Italians, their democratic government seemed helpless to deal with the country's problems. They wanted a leader who would take action.
- **The Rise of Mussolini:** A newspaper editor and politician named **Benito Mussolini** boldly promised to rescue Italy by reviving its economy and rebuilding its armed forces. He vowed to give Italy strong leadership. Mussolini had founded the Fascist Party in 1919. At first, he failed to win widespread support. As economic conditions worsened, however, his popularity rapidly increased. Finally, Mussolini publicly criticized Italy's government. Groups of Fascists wearing black shirts attacked Communists and Socialists on the streets. This campaign of terror weakened his opponents. Because Mussolini played on the fear of a workers' revolt, he began to win support from the middle classes, the aristocracy, and industrial leaders.
- In October 1922, about 30,000 Fascists marched on Rome. They demanded that King Victor Emmanuel III put Mussolini in charge of the government. The king decided that Mussolini was the best hope for his dynasty to survive, so he let Mussolini form a government. Thus, after widespread violence and a threat of armed uprising, Mussolini took power "legally." At the time, a foreign diplomat described him as "an actor, a dangerous rascal, and possibly slightly off his head."
- **Il Duce's Leadership:** Mussolini was now Il Duce, or the leader. He abolished democracy and outlawed all political parties except the Fascists. Secret police jailed his opponents. Government censors forced radio stations and publications to broadcast or publish only Fascist doctrines. Mussolini outlawed strikes. He sought to control the economy by allying the Fascists with the industrialists and large landowners.
- Under his leadership, Italy became the model for fascists in other countries. However, Mussolini never had the total control achieved by Joseph Stalin in the Soviet Union or Adolf Hitler in Germany.

### Characteristics of Fascism

1. Powerful and Continuing Nationalism
2. Disdain for the Recognition of Human Rights
3. Identification of Enemies/Scapegoats as a Unifying Cause
4. Supremacy of the Military
5. Rampant Sexism
6. Controlled Mass Media
7. Obsession with National Security
8. Religion and Government are Intertwined
9. Corporate Power is Protected
10. Labor Power is Suppressed
11. Disdain for Intellectuals and the Arts



**Fascism = "Where the state has totalitarian control over every aspect of national life."**



12. Obsession with Crime and Punishment
13. Rampant Cronyism and Corruption
14. Fraudulent Elections



### Nazism

- When Mussolini became dictator of Italy in the mid-1920s, **Adolf Hitler** was a little-known political leader whose early life had been marked by disappointment. Born in a small town in Austria in 1889, he dropped out of high school and failed as an artist. When World War I broke out, Hitler found a new beginning. He would fight to defend Germany and crush its opponents. He volunteered for the German army and was twice awarded the Iron Cross, a medal for bravery.

### The Rise of the Nazis

- At the end of the war, Hitler settled in Munich. In early 1920, he joined a tiny right-wing political group. This group shared his belief that Germany had to overturn the Treaty of Versailles and combat communism. The group later named itself the National Socialist German Workers' Party, called Nazi for short. Its policies, supported by people in the middle and lower middle classes, formed the German brand of fascism known as **Nazism**. The party adopted the swastika, or hooked cross, as its symbol. The Nazis also set up a private militia called the storm troopers or Brownshirts.
- Within a short time, Hitler's success as an organizer and speaker led him to be chosen Fuhrer, the leader, of the Nazi party. These skills also helped make the Nazis a growing political force. Inspired by Mussolini's march on Rome, Hitler and the Nazis plotted to seize power in Munich in 1923. The attempt failed, and Hitler was arrested. He was tried for treason, but sympathetic judges sentenced him to only five years in prison. He served less than nine months.
- While in jail, Hitler wrote Mein Kampf. This book set forth his beliefs and his goals for Germany. It became the blueprint, or plan of action, for the Nazis. Hitler asserted that the Germans, especially those who were blond and blue-eyed—whom he incorrectly called "Aryans"—were a "master race." He declared that non-Aryan "races"—such as Jews, Slavs, and Gypsies—were inferior or subhuman. He called the Versailles Treaty an outrage and vowed to regain the lands taken from Germany. Hitler also declared that Germany was overcrowded and needed more living space. He promised to get that space by conquering Eastern Europe and Russia.
- After leaving prison in 1924, Hitler revived the Nazi party. Most Germans ignored him and his angry message until the Depression ended the nation's brief postwar recovery. When American

loans stopped, the German economy collapsed. Factories ground to a halt and banks closed. Nearly six million people, about 30 percent of Germany's workforce, were unemployed in 1932. Civil unrest broke out. Frightened and confused, Germans now turned to Hitler, hoping for security and firm leadership.

- **Hitler Becomes Chancellor:** The Nazis had become the largest political party by 1932. Conservative leaders mistakenly believed they could control Hitler and use him for their purposes. In January 1933, they advised President Paul von Hindenburg to name Hitler chancellor. Only Hitler, they said, could stand up to the strong Communist party in Germany. Thus, Hitler came to power legally.
- Once in office, Hitler acted quickly to strengthen his position. He called for new elections, hoping to win a parliamentary majority. Six days before the election, a fire destroyed the Reichstag building where parliament met. The Nazis blamed the Communists. By stirring up fear of the Communists, the Nazis and their allies won a slim majority.
- With majority control, Hitler demanded dictatorial, or absolute, power for four years. Only one deputy dared to speak against the resulting Enabling Act. Hitler used his new power to turn Germany into a totalitarian state. He banned all other political parties and had opponents arrested. Meanwhile, an elite, black-uniformed unit called the SS (or protection squad) was created. It was loyal only to Hitler. In 1934, the SS arrested and murdered hundreds of Hitler's enemies. This brutal action and the terror applied by the Gestapo, the Nazi secret police, shocked most Germans into total obedience.
- The Nazis quickly took command of the economy. New laws banned strikes, dissolved independent labor unions, and gave the government authority over business and labor. Hitler put millions of Germans to work. They constructed factories, built highways, manufactured weapons, and served in the military. As a result, unemployment dropped from about 6 to 1.5 million in 1936.
- **The Fuhrer Is Supreme:** Hitler wanted more than just economic and political power—he wanted control over every aspect of German life. To shape public opinion and to win praise for his leadership, Hitler turned the press, radio, literature, painting, and film into propaganda tools. Books that did not conform to Nazi beliefs were burned in huge bonfires. Churches were forbidden to criticize the Nazis or the government. Schoolchildren had to join the Hitler Youth (for boys) or the League of German Girls. Hitler was greatly influenced by Social Darwinism

He believed that a continuous struggle brought victory to the strong. He twisted the philosophy of Friedrich Nietzsche to support his use of brute force to maintain power and his glorification of war.

- **Hitler Makes War on the Jews:** Hatred of Jews, or anti-Semitism, was a key part of Nazi ideology. Although Jews were less than one percent of the population, the Nazis used them as scapegoats for all Germany's troubles since the war. This led to a wave of anti-Semitism across Germany. Beginning in 1933, the Nazis passed laws depriving Jews of most of their rights. Violence against Jews mounted. On the night of November 9, 1938, Nazi mobs attacked Jews in their homes and on the streets and destroyed thousands of Jewish-owned buildings.
- This rampage, called Night of the Broken Glass, signaled the real start of the process of eliminating the Jews from German life.

### Other Countries Fall to Dictators

- While Fascists took power in Italy and Germany, the nations formed in eastern Europe after World War I also were falling to dictators. The parliamentary governments that had been set up in these countries rarely lasted. In Hungary in 1919, after a brief Communist regime, military forces and wealthy landowners joined to make Admiral Miklós Horthy the first European postwar dictator. In Poland, Marshal Joseph Pilsudski seized power in 1926. In Yugoslavia, Albania, Bulgaria, and Romania, kings turned to strongman rule. They suspended constitutions and silenced foes. In 1935, one democracy, Czechoslovakia, remained in eastern Europe.
- Elsewhere in Europe, only in nations with strong democratic traditions—Britain, France, and the Scandinavian countries—did democracy survive. With no democratic experience and severe economic problems, many Europeans saw dictatorship as the only way to prevent instability. Although all of these dictatorships restricted civil rights, none asserted control with the brutality of the Russian Communists or the Nazis.
- By the mid-1930s, the powerful nations of the world were split into two antagonistic camps—democratic and totalitarian. And to gain their ends, the Fascist dictatorships had indicated a willingness to use military aggression.

**Differences between Fascism and Nazism**

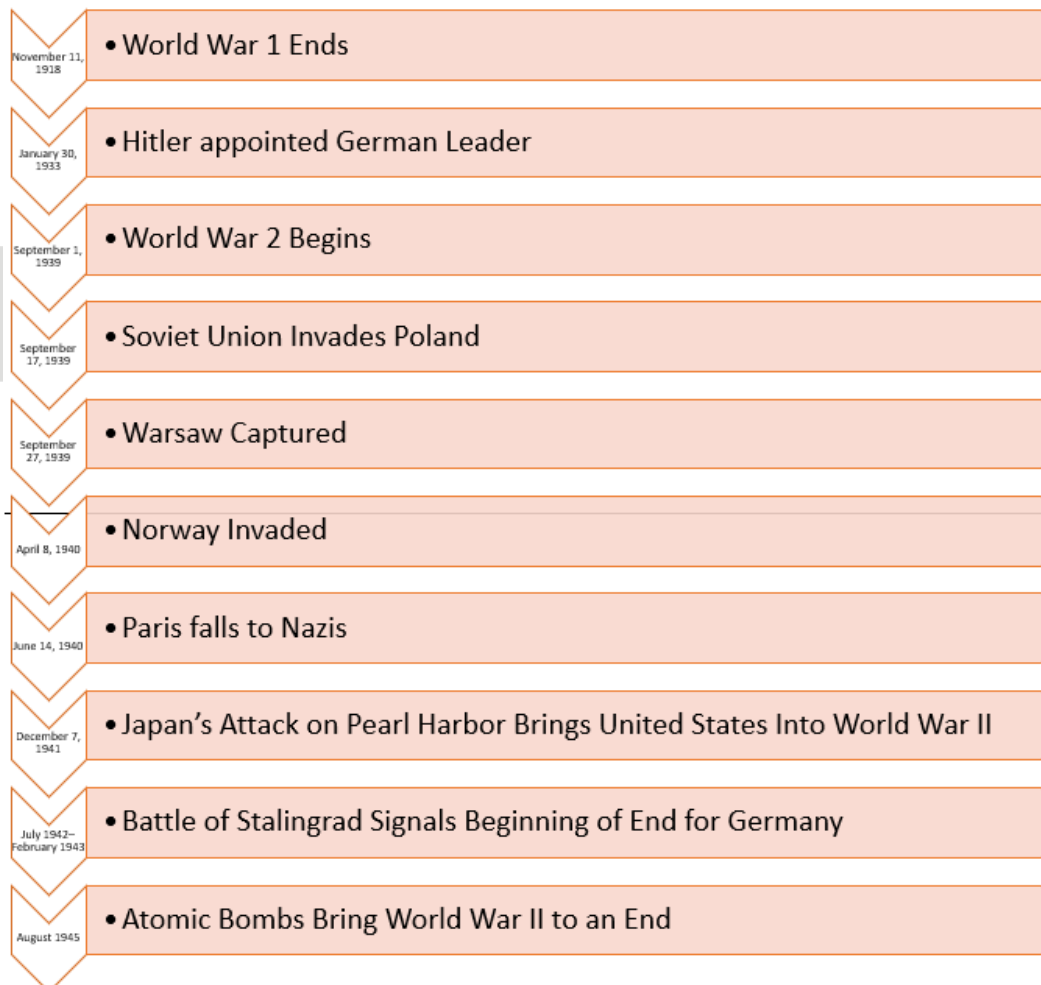
<b>Areas of Differentiation</b>	<b>Fascism</b>	<b>Nazism</b>
Source of Origin	Benito Mussolini (of Italy)	Adolf Hilter (of Germany)
Area of Practice	Mainly in Italy	Mainly in Germany
Armed paramilitary organization	Blackshirts	Gangs of Nazis or the 'Brownshirts'
Beliefs	Organize all people and institutions under state control/power	Supported racial superiority
Class system	Supported using the class system to promote better social order	Considered class system to be a hindrance
Origins of name	Italian word	From the National Socialist German Workers party

## World War II

## Introduction

- World War II, also called Second World War, was a conflict that involved virtually every part of the world during the years **1939–45**
- The principal belligerents were the **Axis powers**—Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the **Allies**—France, Great Britain, the United States, the Soviet Union, and, to a lesser extent, China
- The war was in many respects a **continuation**, after an **uneasy 20-year hiatus**, of the disputes left unsettled by World War I

## WW2: Timeline



## WW2: Causes

### The Treaty of Versailles

- In 1919, representatives from more than two dozen countries gathered in France to draft peace treaties that would set the terms for the end of World War I
- Negotiations dragged on for months, but in the end, the Treaty of Versailles forced **Germany to accept blame for the conflict**, give up its overseas colonies and 13 percent of its European territory, limit the size of its army and navy, and pay reparations (financial damages) to the war's winners.
- Germans were incensed and staged protests over what they saw as harsh and humiliating terms
  - Further, one of the central tenets of the Nazi party was to undo the deal, and campaign promises like those helped the group gain followers.

### The League of Nations and Diplomatic Idealism

- The League of Nations emerged from the Treaty of Versailles with thirty-two member countries, including most of the victors of World War I, and eventually expanded to include Germany and the other defeated nations
  - Under the organization's founding agreement, these countries promised not to resort to war again
- Traumatized and weakened from the First World War, the League's great powers proved not only **unable to respond** to these security threats but uninterested in addressing them
- By the onset of World War II, the League had been effectively **side-lined from international politics**
  - The League's powers were limited to persuasion and various levels of moral and economic sanctions that the members were free to carry out as they saw fit

### The Rise of Hitler

- Back-to-back crises hit the German economy



- In the early 1920s, the country experienced hyperinflation, a situation in which prices skyrocketed so quickly that German currency lost much of its value
- After a period of economic recovery—and a moment in which it seemed democracy could take hold in Germany—the Great Depression kicked off a new era of financial and political turmoil.
- Between 1929 and 1932, German unemployment skyrocketed nearly fivefold, eventually affecting a quarter of the labour force.
- At this moment, the Nazi party capitalised the situation, and promised to undo the Treaty of Versailles
  - They also sought to create a much larger, racially pure Germany. Under Nazi ideology, Germans were racially superior and entitled to greater territory or lebensraum (living space) in the east
- The appointment of Hitler as Chancellor further, poised the situation for racism and extremism in politics eventually setting up for War

### Japanese Imperialism

- Japan had long sought to accumulate imperial power.
  - Taiwan became Japan's first colony in 1895, and more territory followed.
  - In 1931, Japan invaded China's Manchuria region
- But Japan's ascendancy and the conflict in Europe concerned USA
- So, the United States declared war on Japan on December 8, 1941, one day after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbour

### WW2: A Glimpse

- **German Aggression**

- The war in Europe began in September 1939, when Germany, under Chancellor Adolf Hitler, invaded Poland. Britain and France responded by declaring war on Germany

- Consequently, Germany launched attacks on Norway, Denmark, Belgium, Italy, Greece
- **The USSR**
  - Later in 1941, Germany began its most ambitious action yet, by invading the Soviet Union.
  - Although the Germans initially made swift progress and advanced deep into the Russian heartland, the invasion of the USSR would prove to be the downfall of Germany's war effort.
  - In 1943, after the battles of Stalingrad and Kursk, Germany was forced into a full-scale retreat
- **The Normandy Invasion**
  - In June 1944, British and American forces launched the D-Day Invasion, landing in German-occupied France via the coast of Normandy.
  - Soon the German army was forced into retreat from that side as well.
- **The Pacific Theatre**
  - The war in the Pacific began on December 7, 1941, when warplanes from Japan launched a surprise attack on the U.S. Navy base at Pearl Harbour
  - In late spring of 1942, the United States and Japan engaged in a series of naval battles, climaxing in the Battle of Midway on June 3–6, 1942, in which Japan suffered a catastrophic defeat.
  - This process continued through the summer of 1945 until finally, in early August, the United States dropped two **Atomic Bombs** on the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Stunned by the unexpected devastation, Japan surrendered a few days later.
- **The surrender**
  - The German Instrument of Surrender ended World War II in Europe in 1945
  - Also, the surrender of Japan was announced by Imperial Japan on August 15 and formally signed on September 2, 1945, bringing the hostilities of World War II to a close.
  - Further, The Treaty of Peace with Italy (one of the Paris Peace Treaties) was signed on February 10, 1947 between Italy and the victorious powers of World War II, formally ending hostilities. It came into general effect on September 15, 1947

**WW2: Aftermath**

- Around 75 million people died in World War II, including about 20 million military personnel and 40 million civilians, many of whom died because of deliberate genocide, massacres, mass-bombings, disease, and starvation
- A denazification program in Germany led to the prosecution of Nazi war criminals in the **Nuremberg trials**
  - Germany lost a quarter of its pre-war (1937) territory
- Post-war division of the world was formalised by two international military alliances, the **United States-led NATO** and the **Soviet-led Warsaw Pact**
- In Asia, the United States led the occupation of Japan and administered Japan's former islands in the Western Pacific, while the Soviets annexed South Sakhalin and the Kuril Islands
- In China, nationalist and communist forces resumed the civil war in June 1946. Communist forces were victorious and established the People's Republic of China on the mainland, while nationalist forces retreated to Taiwan in 1949
- The global economy suffered heavily from the war, although participating nations were affected differently.
  - The United States emerged much richer than any other nation, and it dominated the world economy.
- **Recovery** began with the mid-1948 currency reform in Western Germany, and was sped up by the liberalization of European economic policy that the Marshall Plan (1948–1951) both directly and indirectly caused
- The Soviet Union, despite enormous human and material losses, also experienced rapid increase in production in the immediate post-war era.

**WW2: Outcomes**

- **The Atlantic Charter**
  - The Atlantic Charter set goals for the post-war world and inspired many of the international agreements that shaped the world thereafter, most notably the **United Nations**.

- The Charter stated the ideal goals of the war with eight principal points:
  - No territorial gains were to be sought by the United States or the United Kingdom.
  - Territorial adjustments must be in accord with the wishes of the peoples concerned.
  - All people had a right to self-determination.
  - Trade barriers were to be lowered.
  - There was to be global economic cooperation and advancement of social welfare;
  - The participants would work for a world free of want and fear.
  - The participants would work for freedom of the seas.
  - There was to be disarmament of aggressor nations, and a post-war common disarmament.
- The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), the post-war independence of European colonies, and many other key policies are derived from the Atlantic Charter
- **The United Nations**
  - As a replacement for the ineffective League of Nations, the United Nations organization was established after World War II to prevent another such conflict
  - The United Nations Charter was drafted at a conference in April–June 1945; this charter took effect October 24, 1945, and the UN began operation
  - The great powers that were the victors of the war—France, China, the United Kingdom, the Soviet Union and the United States—became the permanent members of the UN’s Security Council
- **The Universal Declaration of Human Rights**
  - The Universal Declaration of Human Rights is a non-binding declaration adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1948, partly in response to the barbarism of World War II.
    - The UDHR urged member nations to promote a number of human, civil, economic, and social rights, asserting these rights are part of the “foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world.”
- **Advances in technology and warfare**

- During the War, Aircraft were used for reconnaissance, as fighters, bombers, and ground-support, and each role was advanced considerably
  - **Innovation** included **airlift** (the capability to quickly move limited high-priority supplies, equipment, and personnel); and of **strategic bombing**
  - **Anti-aircraft weaponry** also advanced, including defences such as radar and surface-to-air artillery
  - Advances were made in nearly every aspect of naval warfare, most notably with aircraft carriers and submarines
- **Land warfare** changed from the static front lines of trench warfare of World War I, which had relied on improved artillery that outmatched the speed of both infantry and cavalry, to **increased mobility and combined arms**
  - **The tank**, which had been used predominantly for infantry support in the First World War, had evolved into the **primary weapon**
- Most major belligerents attempted to solve the problems of complexity and security involved in using **large codebooks for cryptography** by designing ciphering machines, the most well-known being the **German Enigma machine**
- Other technological and engineering feats achieved during, or as a result of, the war include the **world's first programmable computers** (Z3, Colossus, and ENIAC), guided missiles and modern rockets, the **Manhattan Project's development** of nuclear weapons, operations research and the development of artificial harbours and oil pipelines under the English Channel

### World War 2 and India

- During the Second World War (1939–1945), India was a part of the British Empire, with the British holding territories in India that included over six hundred autonomous Princely States
  - So, the British Raj, as part of the **Allied Nations**, sent over two and a half million soldiers to fight under British command against the Axis powers
- Indians fought with distinction throughout the world, including in the European theatre against Germany, in North Africa against Germany and Italy, in the South Asian region defending India against the Japanese and fighting the Japanese in Burma

- At the height of the second World War, more than **5 million Indian troops** were fighting Axis forces around the globe
  - Further, About 15 percent of all the Victoria Crosses — Britain's highest decoration for valour — awarded during the Second World War went to Indian and Nepalese troops.
- Also, India's strategic location at the tip of the Indian Ocean, its large production of armaments, and its huge armed forces played a decisive role in halting the progress of Imperial Japan in the South-East Asian theatre

- **Reaction from Indians**

- Viceroy Linlithgow declared that India was at war with Germany without consultations with Indian politicians
- Political parties such as the Muslim League and the Hindu Mahasabha supported the British war effort
- While the Indian National Congress, demanded independence before it would help Britain

- **Impact on India**

- **Marks of Progress**

- In India, there were massive training, airfield-construction and port-development efforts, which completely transformed the dockyards of Bombay, Calcutta, Cochin and Trincomalee
- The number of airfields in the country increased from less than a dozen at the start of the war to over 200. Most airports in India today are legacies of that effort

- **Ruin of Rural economies**

- Period of WW2 was a period of utter ruination of rural economies in India, partly because of the diversion of food to the war effort
- A great example could be of the **Bengal Famine in 1943**, which was devastating for the Indian people but with the British refusing to stop supplies from India in favour of those suffering in the country, only strengthened the resolve of the nationalists in their call for freedom.
- Some of the key reasons for this famine are:

- British export of food and material for the war in Europe;
- Japanese invasion of Burma which cut off food and other essential supplies to the region;
- British denial orders destroying essential food transportation throughout the Eastern region;
- British banned transfer of grain from other provinces, turning down offers of grain from Australia;
- mismanagement by British Indian regional governments;
- constructing 900 airfields (2000 acres each) taking that huge amount of land out of agriculture in a time of dire need;
- price inflation caused by war production
- Increase in demand partially as a result of refugees from Burma and Bengal.

○ **Congress Resignation from Provincial Government**

- Indian National Congress(INC) expected that the British would consult them in any decision regarding the role of Indian troops in the war
- But the British did not bother to take Congress into confidence and declared Indian troops at war with Germany
- Congress members got offended and resigned from its ministries at the provincial level in protest

○ **Grant of Independence to India**

- The British had crushed the agitation and kept tight grip on India till end of the war
- But, they could not hold on to their colonies after war
  - They had to focus on rebuilding their Economy from scratch again
- Also, the British failed in its Cripps Mission, failed to reconcile in Cabinet Mission as well
- This compelled the British to finally announce the partition of India into Pakistan in 1947



## Decolonization

### Introduction

- Decolonization is the **undoing of colonialism**, the latter being the process whereby a nation establishes and maintains its domination of foreign territories, often overseas territories
  - It is the process by which colonies become independent of the colonizing country
- When the United Nations was founded in 1945, some 750 million people, nearly a **third of the world's population**, lived in Territories that were dependent on colonial Powers.
  - Today, there are **17 Non-Self-Governing Territories** remaining and fewer than 2 million people live in them
- The fundamental **right to self-determination** is identified by the United Nations as core to decolonization
- Decolonization involves either nonviolent revolution or national liberation wars by pro-independence groups

### Decolonization: Stages

- There are five proposed stages to decolonization, as follows:
  - The first is called **rediscovery and recovery**, where a colonized or previously colonized region actively rediscovers its roots in order to reclaim the superiority of its own culture, history and traditions of its own particular region
  - The second stage is labelled as the **stage of mourning**, where people as a community process and understand any victimization that the colony may have experienced. This is often expressed in the form of frustration and protest
  - The third stage of decolonization, often labelled as the most crucial, is the process of **building the future of the proposed independent colony**. This takes place most commonly through debate or consultation where discussions involve the future of the colony, the governing procedures and body and the reestablishment of culture

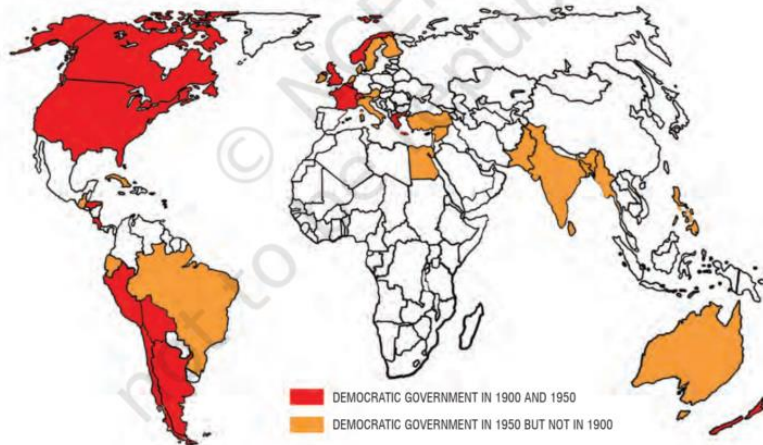
- The fourth stage is about **commitment to a single decided cause and direction** for the colony. This stage is a collection of all of the people's voices that are unified in a direction so clear cut that the colony can proceed to the final stage
- The fifth and most commonly final stage of decolonization is the **action towards said unified goal**, which can express itself in a variety of ways, namely through violence and reclaiming what was once a colony. The process of the previous four stages sometimes cannot be afforded to a colony if they are under serious threat, in which case the fifth stage tends to manifest itself faster.

### Reasons for Decolonization

- **The Second World War** dealt a serious blow to the colonial powers, depriving them of their former prestige.
  - The Netherlands, Belgium and France had been defeated and occupied, while the United Kingdom was seriously depleted.
  - The people under colonial rule, often employed to fill the ranks of Allied armies in wartime, were determined to break the ties that still bound them to Europe, now ruined and stripped of its resources.
- Furthermore, the emergence of **two anti-colonialist superpowers**, the United States and the Soviet Union, and the new international climate after 1945 encouraged the colonies to make a bid for independence
  - Being aware of the new favourable international context in which they found themselves, colonised peoples began their fight for independence

The Below map provide an idea of decolonization stages post 1945 years:

MAP 1.1: DEMOCRATIC GOVERNMENTS IN 1900-1950



MAP 1.2: DEMOCRATIC GOVERNMENTS IN 1975



MAP 1.3: DEMOCRATIC GOVERNMENTS IN 2000



Source: Historical data for these maps is taken from Polity IV Project dataset of University of Maryland. This dataset defines democracy as existence of choices about policies and leaders, checks on executive power and guarantee of civil liberties. Here we have used positive 'Polity' scores as indicating the existence of democracy. In some cases the scores of dataset have been modified. For details see <http://www.cidcm.umd.edu>

## Aspects of Decolonization in various regions of the World

### • ASIA

- The colonised peoples of South-East Asia were the first to demand the departure of the Europeans and to claim independence. In the space of a few years, all the colonies, except the Portuguese possessions of Goa and Timor, became independent.

Country/Region	Brief
India	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· In 1947, the British decided to leave India</li> <li>· Few months later, India gained its independence</li> <li>· In 1948, the United Kingdom also granted independence to Burma and Ceylon, and in 1957 to Malaya</li> </ul>
Indonesia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Indonesia endured four years of military and diplomatic confrontation with the Netherlands before the Dutch Government recognised the independence of the Dutch East Indies in December 1949</li> </ul>

### • Emergence of Third World

- The independence movement led to the emergence of a series of countries that did not belong to the Western bloc or the Soviet bloc.
- These countries had various features in common, including underdevelopment and rapid demographic growth, and they became known collectively as the '**Third World**'
- In the 1950s, five newly independent **Asian countries** (India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Burma and Indonesia) took the initiative to rally the Third-World countries to form a united front against colonisation.
- **On 17 April 1955, the first Afro–Asian Conference** was held in Bandung in a bid by Third-World countries to consolidate their position on the international stage.

### • Suez Crisis

- The Suez Crisis directly threatened the interests of France, the United Kingdom and Israel, leading to a trial of strength that culminated in a joint military

operation by the three countries against the former British protectorate in October 1956.

- **AFRICA**

- The Bandung Conference and the Suez Crisis led to the second phase of decolonisation, which chiefly took place in Africa.
- **In North Africa**, France had to face a serious crisis which began in **Algeria** with the uprising of the National Liberation Front in 1954.
  - The war then spread to **Morocco and Tunisia** and eventually even threatened the French Republic itself.
  - The protectorates of Morocco and Tunisia were granted independence in March 1956 without any armed struggle.
  - Algeria, on the other hand, was considered to be an integral part of France, and events took a different turn. It was only after a painful eight-year-long war, which lasted from the 1954 insurrection to the Évian Accords of March 1962, that Algeria became an independent state
- **From 1957 onwards**, it was the turn of the former British, French, Belgian and Portuguese possessions in sub-Saharan Africa to gradually gain independence.

- **United Nations Trust Territories**

- When the United Nations was formed in 1945, it established trust territories.
- These territories included the League of Nations mandate territories which had not achieved independence by 1945
- In this process, by 1990 all but one of the trust territories had achieved independence, either as independent states or by merger with another independent state

- **Europe**

- Italy had occupied the Dodecanese islands in 1912, but Italian occupation ended after World War II, and the islands were integrated into Greece
- British rule ended in Cyprus in 1960, and Malta in 1964, and both islands became independent republics.
- The Republics of the Soviet Union become sovereign states—Armenia, Azerbaijan, Byelorussia (later Belarus), Estonia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Russia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine and Uzbekistan by the 1990s

## Challenges associated with Decolonization

- **State-building**

- After independence, the new states needed to establish or strengthen the institutions of a sovereign state – governments, laws, a military, schools, administrative systems, etc.
- The amount of self-rule granted prior to independence, and assistance from the colonial power and/or international organisations after independence, varied greatly between colonial powers, and between individual colonies
- Except for a few absolute monarchies, most post-colonial states are either republics or constitutional monarchies. These new states had to devise **constitutions, electoral systems, and other institutions of representative democracy**

- **Language policy**

- “**Linguistic decolonization**” entails the replacement of a colonizing (imperial) power’s language with a given colony’s indigenous language in the function of official language
- With the exception of colonies in Eurasia, linguistic decolonization did not take place in the former colonies-turned-independent states on the other continents

- **Nation-building**

- Nation-building is the process of creating a sense of identification with, and loyalty to, the state
- Nation-building projects seek to replace loyalty to the old colonial power, and/or tribal or regional loyalties, with loyalty to the new state
- Elements of nation-building include creating and promoting symbols of the state like a flag and an anthem, monuments, official histories, national sports teams, codifying one or more Indigenous official languages, and replacing colonial place-names with local ones

- **Settled populations**

- Decolonization is not an easy matter in colonies where a large population of settlers lives, particularly if they have been there for several generations.
  - These population, in general, had to be repatriated, often losing considerable property

- Example: A large Indian community lived in Uganda – as in most of East Africa – as a result of Britain colonizing both India and East Africa

- **Economic development**

- Newly independent states also had to develop independent economic institutions – a national currency, banks, companies, regulation, tax systems, etc.
- Many colonies were serving as resource colonies which produced raw materials and agricultural products, and as a captive market for goods manufactured in the colonizing country. Many decolonized countries created programs to promote **industrialization**
- Some nationalized industries and infrastructure, had to engage themselves in land reform to redistribute land to individual farmers or create collective farms

### Post-colonial organizations

- These were created by the former colonial powers, to loosely associate themselves with former colonies
- Membership is voluntary, and in some cases can be revoked if a member state loses some objective criteria (usually a requirement for democratic governance)
- The organizations serve cultural, economic, and political purposes between the associated countries

Former Colonial Power	Organization	Founded
United Kingdom	Commonwealth of Nations	1931
France	French Union	1946
France	French Community	1958
Spain & Portugal	Organization of Ibero-American States	1991
Portugal	Community of Portuguese Language Countries	1996
Russia	Commonwealth of Independent States	1991
United States	Commonwealths	1934



Overall, a 2019 study found that “democracy levels increased sharply as colonies gained internal autonomy in the period immediately before their independence. However, conflict, revenue growth, and economic growth did not systematically differ before and after independence.”

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## Challenges in the Middle East

### Arab Nationalism

#### Introduction

- **Pan-Arabism**, also called **Arabism** or **Arab nationalism**, is a nationalist notion of cultural and political unity among Arab countries
- Its **central premise** is that the people of the Arab world, from the Atlantic Ocean to the Indian Ocean, constitute one nation bound together by common ethnicity, language, culture, history, identity, geography and politics
- One of the **primary goals** of Arab nationalism is the end of Western influence in the Arab world, seen as a “nemesis” of Arab strength, and the removal of those Arab governments considered to be dependent upon Western power
- It rose to **prominence** with the weakening and defeat of the **Ottoman Empire** in the early 20th century and declined after the defeat of the Arab armies in the Six-Day War.

#### Ideology

- Within the Arab nationalist movement are three main ideas: that of the Arab nation, Arab nationalism, and pan-Arab unity.
  - **Arab Nation**
    - The 1936–1939 Arab revolt in Palestine led to the foundation of the Arab nationalist Ba’ath Party, which asserts that the Arab nation is the group of people who speak Arabic, inhabit the Arab world, and feel they belong to the same nation.
  - **Arab nationalism**
    - It is the “sum total” of the characteristics and qualities exclusive to the Arab nation.
  - **Pan-Arab unity**
    - It is the modern idea that stipulates that the separate Arab countries must unify to form a single state under one political system.

#### Arab Nationalism: Tracing the timeline

- **Origins**

- In the 1860s, literature produced in the **Mashriq** (the Levant and Mesopotamia) which was under Ottoman control at the time, contained emotional intensity and strongly condemned the Ottoman Turks for “betraying Islam” and the Fatherland to the Christian West
- At that time, the reforming Ottoman and Egyptian governments were blamed for the situation because they attempted to borrow Western practices from the Europeans that were seen as unnatural and corrupt.
- The Arab patriots’ view was that the Islamic governments should revive true Islam that would in turn, pave way for the establishment of constitutional representative government and freedom which, though Islamic in origin, was manifested in the West at the time

- **Rise of modern Arab nationalism**

- In 1911, Muslim intellectuals and politicians from throughout the Levant formed **al-Fatat** (“the Young Arab Society”), a small Arab nationalist club, in Paris
  - Its stated aim was “raising the level of the Arab nation to the level of modern nations.” In the first few years of its existence, al-Fatat called for greater autonomy within a unified Ottoman state rather than Arab independence from the empire

- Further, Damascus became the coordinating centre of the Arab nationalist movement as it was seen as the birthplace of the ideology, the seat of Faysal—the first Arab “sovereign” after nearly 400 years of Turkish suzerainty

- **Growth of the movement**

- A number of Arab revolts against the European powers took place following the establishment of the British and French mandates. Resentment of British rule culminated in the **Iraqi revolt of 1920**
- The conflict in Iraq provoked anger and frustration throughout the Arab world and the British acknowledged the rapid growth of Arab nationalist feeling among the Arab population, large segments of which saw the events in Iraq as a valiant struggle against imperialism

- The events of the region influenced the creation of the **Arab Union Club in Egypt in 1942** which called for developing stronger ties between Egypt and the Arab world. Branches were subsequently opened in Baghdad, Beirut, Jaffa and Damascus, and Egyptian Prime Minister Mostafa El-Nahas adopted its platform, pledging to help protect “the interests and rights” of the “sister Arab nations” and explore the “question of Arab unity.”
- **Peak under Egyptian leadership**
  - After the Second World War, Gamal Abdel Nasser, the leader of Egypt, was a significant player in the rise of Arab nationalism
    - Nasser nationalized the Suez Canal and directly challenged the dominance of the Western powers in the region.
    - At the same time he opened Egypt up as a Cold War zone by receiving aid and arms shipments from the Soviet bloc countries that were not dependent on treaties, bases and peace accords
  - **Decline**
    - After the defeat of the Arab coalition by Israel during the **1967 Six-Day War**, the Arab nationalist movement is said to have suffered an “irreversible” slide towards “political marginality”
    - From the mid-1960s onward, the movement was further weakened by factional splits and ideological infighting.
    - The formerly pro-Nasser Arab Nationalist Movement, publicly **abandoned Nasserism** in favour of **Marxism–Leninism** and fell apart soon after

### Reasons for Decline of Arab Nationalism

- Despite adhering to common ideology, there existed **differences among Arab states**, which hindered pan-Arabic Nationalism
  - This was evident in the case of Jordan and Saudi Arabia, which were ruled by conservative Royal families, who had pro-western stance; and these states were criticised by pro-Arab nationalist states like Egypt and Syria
- Personal Interests of ruling families hindered pan-Arab Unity, as they would lose their ruling power in case of disappearance of national boundaries

- Also, after WW2 western powers also worked on disuniting the Arabs, by playing one state against another for fulfilment of their own interests
- Suspicion of Arab unity by minority groups such as Kurds in Iraq who were non-Arab, or Shia Arabs in Iraq who feared Arab nationalism was actually “a Sunni project” to establish “Sunni hegemony”
- The **Islamic revival**, which grew as Arab nationalism declined, and whose Islamist adherents were very hostile towards nationalism in general, believing it had no place in Islam
- Lack of interest by the movement in pluralism, separation of powers, freedom of political expression and other democratic concepts which might have “resuscitated” the ideology in its moment of weakness

## Israel-Palestine Issue

### Introduction

- The Israeli-Palestinian conflict dates back to the end of the nineteenth century, and is one of the world’s most enduring conflicts, with the **Israeli occupation of the West Bank and the Gaza Strip**
- The Israel and Palestine conflict is complex. It’s rooted in national, political, territorial, cultural and religious factors
- The **core issue** is not just about the **land**; it is about having the **right to self-determination**.

### Tracing the Issue

- A 100-year-old issue



- Britain took control of the area known as Palestine after the ruler of that part of the Middle East, the Ottoman Empire, was defeated in World War One
- The land was inhabited by a Jewish minority and Arab majority
- Tensions between the two peoples grew when the international community gave Britain the task of establishing a “national home” in Palestine for Jewish people.
- For Jews it was their ancestral home, but Palestinian Arabs also claimed the land and opposed the move
- Between the 1920s and 1940s, the number of Jews arriving there grew, with many fleeing from persecution in Europe and seeking a homeland after the Holocaust of World War Two
- Violence between Jews and Arabs, and against British rule, also grew.
- In 1947, the UN voted for Palestine to be split into separate Jewish and Arab states, with Jerusalem becoming an international city
- **The creation of Israel and the ‘Catastrophe’**
  - In 1948, unable to solve the problem, British rulers left and Jewish leaders declared the creation of the state of Israel
  - Many Palestinians objected and a war followed. Troops from neighbouring Arab countries invaded.
  - Jerusalem was divided between Israeli forces in the West, and Jordanian forces in the East.
  - Because there was never a peace agreement – with each side blaming the other – there were more wars and fighting in the following decades.
- **The map today**

- Israel claims the whole of Jerusalem as its capital, while the Palestinians claim East Jerusalem as the capital of a future Palestinian state.
- The US is one of only a handful of countries to recognise the city as Israel's capital
- In the past 50 years

#### Israel's boundaries today



Israel has built settlements in these areas, where more than 600,000 Jews now live

- Palestinians say these are illegal under international law and are obstacles to peace, but Israel denies this.

#### • What's happening now?

- Tensions are often high between Israel and Palestinians living in East Jerusalem, Gaza and the West Bank.
- Gaza is ruled by the Palestinian militant group **Hamas**, which has fought Israel many times. Israel and Egypt tightly control Gaza's borders to stop weapons getting to Hamas
- Palestinians in Gaza and the West Bank say they are suffering because of Israeli actions and restrictions. Israel says it is only acting to protect itself from Palestinian violence.

#### What are the main problems?

- There are a number of issues which Israel and the Palestinians cannot agree on, and these include:
  - what should happen to Palestinian refugees



- whether Jewish settlements in the occupied West Bank should stay or be removed
- whether the two sides should share Jerusalem
- and – perhaps most tricky of all – whether a Palestinian state should be created alongside Israel
- **Peace talks** have been taking place on and off for more than 25 years, but so far have not solved the conflict.

### World's view of the Israel-Palestine Issue

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- While **Non-Muslim** countries recognize **Israel's legitimacy** and maintain diplomatic relations with it, but most are **critical of Israel's treatment** of the Palestinians and ongoing occupation of the West Bank
- Most of the world believes that Israel's continued control of the West Bank is an unlawful military occupation
- **The Boycott, Divestment and Sanctions (BDS) movement**, which coalesced in 2005, aims to capitalize on international anger with Israel
  - The movement's strategy is to create costs to Israel's Palestinian policy through boycotts of Israeli goods and institutions, divestment from Israeli companies, and sanctions on the nation itself (hence the name BDS)

### The Peace process

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- **"Oslo Accords"** is an ongoing American-mediated effort to broker a peace treaty between the two populations, that got kicked off in 1993
  - **The goal** is a "final status agreement," which would establish a Palestinian state in Gaza and the West Bank in exchange for Palestinians agreeing to permanently end attacks on Israeli targets — a formula often called "land for peace."
- So far there's been little success, and there are **three major hurdles** to any agreement.
  - First, Israel continues to expand West Bank settlements, which Palestinians see as a de facto campaign to erase the Palestinian state outright
  - Second, the Palestinians remain politically divided between Fatah and Hamas, and thus are unable to negotiate jointly. And even if it worked, Israel still has

shown zero indication that it would negotiate with a government that includes Hamas

- Third, it's not actually clear how to get talks started. The current right-wing Israeli government is sceptical of concessions to the Palestinians. The Palestinians, having essentially decided that Israel isn't serious about peace, have launched a campaign for statehood in international institutions aimed at pressuring Israel into peace

### Future of the Issue

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- These are the two broad ways the Israeli-Palestinian conflict might end
  - **Two-State Solution**
    - This would create an independent Israel and Palestine, and is the mainstream approach to resolving the conflict
    - The idea is that Israelis and Palestinians want to run their countries differently; Israelis want a Jewish state, and Palestinians want a Palestinian one
  - **One-State Solution**
    - This would merge Israel, the West Bank, and the Gaza Strip into one big country
    - It comes in two versions.
      - One, favored by some leftists and Palestinians, would create a single democratic country. Arab Muslims would outnumber Jews, thus ending Israel as a Jewish state
      - The other version, favored by some rightists and Israelis, would involve Israel annexing the West Bank and either forcing out Palestinians or denying them the right to vote

### India's policy on Israel and Palestine issue

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- India's statement at UNSC seeks a **balance** between its old ties with Palestine and growing relations with Israel

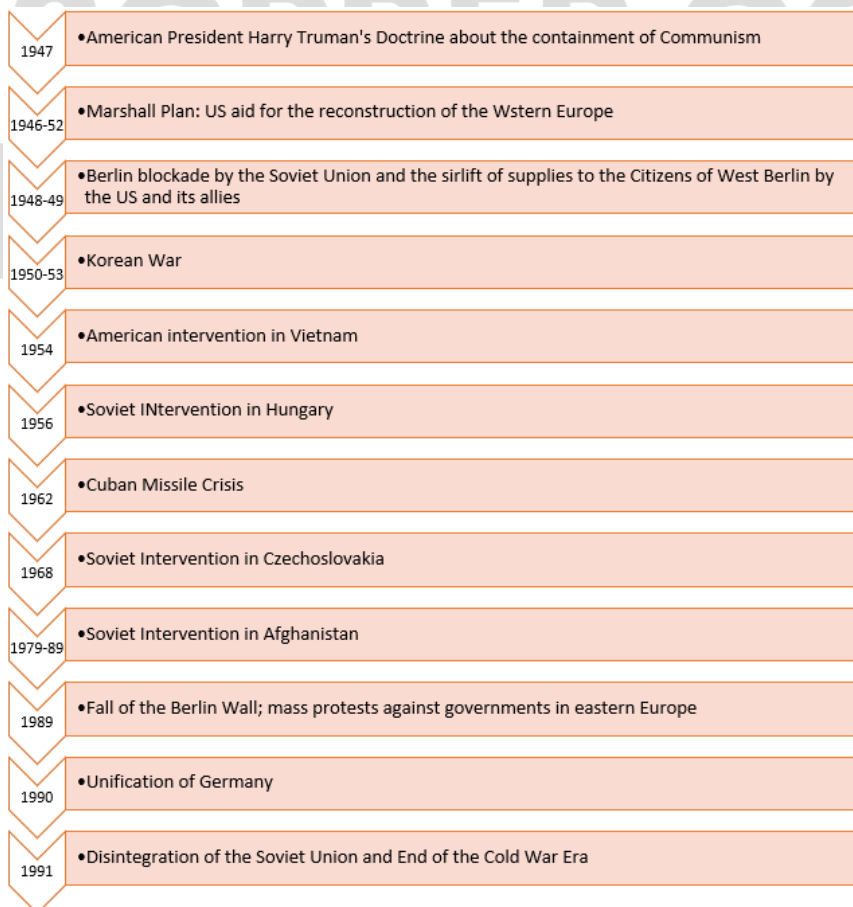
- India's policy on the longest running conflict in the world has gone from being unequivocally **pro-Palestine** for the **first four decades**, to a **tense balancing act** with its **three-decade-old friendly ties** with Israel. In recent years, India's position has also been perceived as **pro-Israel**
- In 1948, India was the **only non-Arab-state** among 13 countries that voted against the **UN partition plan of Palestine** in the General Assembly that led to the **creation of Israel**
  - Scholars ascribe various reasons for this India's own Partition along religious lines; as a new nation that had just thrown off its colonial yoke; solidarity with the Palestinian people who would be dispossessed; and to ward off Pakistan's plan to isolate India over Kashmir
- The balancing began with India's decision to normalise ties with Israel in 1992, which came against the backdrop of the break-up of the Soviet Union, and massive shifts in the geopolitics of West Asia on account of the first Gulf War in 1990.
- The opening of an Indian embassy in Tel Aviv in January 1992 marked an end to four decades of giving Israel the cold shoulder
- For two-and-a-half decades from 1992, the India-Israel relationship continued to grow, mostly through defence deals, and in sectors such as science and technology and agriculture. But India never acknowledged the relationship fully.
- From 2018 onwards, India **"de-hyphenated"** the Israel-Palestine relationship, and would deal with each separately
  - Meanwhile, India continues to improve ties with Arab countries, especially Saudi Arabia and the UAE, and feels vindicated by the decision of some Arab states to improve ties with Israel.

## Cold War

### Introduction

- The Cold War was a period of **geopolitical tension** between the United States and the Soviet Union and their respective allies, the Western Bloc and the Eastern Bloc, which began following World War II
- The Cold War **never escalated** to the point of direct confrontation between the US and the USSR. In fact, aside from the nuclear arms race
  - Thus, the struggle for world dominance was primarily waged through propaganda campaigns, espionage, proxy wars, athletic rivalry at the Olympics, and the Space Race
- The Cold War ended in **1991**, after the collapse and dissolution of the Soviet Union.

### Timeline



### Origins of the Cold War

- Following the surrender of Nazi Germany in May 1945 near the close of World War II, the **uneasy wartime alliance** between the United States and Great Britain on the one hand and the Soviet Union on the other began to unravel.
- The Americans and the British **feared** the permanent Soviet domination of eastern Europe and the threat of Soviet-influenced communist parties coming to power in the democracies of western Europe
- The Soviets, on the other hand, were determined to maintain control of eastern Europe in order to safeguard against any possible renewed threat from Germany, and they were intent on **spreading communism** worldwide
- The **Cold War had solidified** by 1947–48, when U.S. aid provided under the **Marshall Plan** to western Europe had brought those countries under **American influence** and the Soviets had installed openly communist regimes in eastern Europe

### Why was it called the ‘Cold’ War?

- It was called the Cold War for the following reasons:
  - First of all, neither the Soviet Union nor the United States **officially declared war** on the other. In fact, there was never any direct large-scale fighting between the two superpowers
  - The war was only waged through **indirect conflict**. The US and USSR supported regional conflicts in their own interests, known as proxy wars
  - It describes the **‘chilly’ relationship** between the two Second World War allies

### Cold War: Causes

- **Early tensions**
  - The wartime alliance between the US and USSR was one of circumstances and not ideology.
  - When Hitler broke the non-aggression pact he had signed with Soviet Union, making important territorial gains, it forced the Soviet Union to join allied powers
  - Thus, at the end of the Second World War, the uneasy wartime alliance had begun to unravel and had begun to take a different course all together
- **Ideological differences**

- **The emergence of communism**
  - **The Bolshevik Revolution** of October 1917 replaced Russia's Tsar with a "dictatorship of the proletariat", and established a **communist state**.
  - The Bolsheviks then decided to withdraw Russia from World War One as civil war engulfed the country, leaving Britain and France to fight the Axis powers alone.
  - The White Army, tsarist supporters who fought the Bolsheviks during the Russian Civil War, were then supported by the Western powers
- **Capitalism and communism: ideological opposites**
  - The political and economic systems of the capitalist USA and communist USSR were ideologically incompatible.
  - Both sides wanted to affirm their model and force countries around the world to conform to their ideologies
- **Disagreements over Germany**
  - At the Potsdam Conference in July 1945, the US, USSR, and Britain agreed to divide Germany into four zones. Each zone was administered by one of the Allied powers, including France.
  - The Western powers envisioned a booming capitalist Germany that contributed to world trade
    - While, Stalin, on the other hand, wanted to destroy the German economy and ensure that Germany could never become powerful again
    - As a result, The French, US, and British sectors remained free to trade and reconstruction was started, whilst Stalin forbade the Russian zone from trading with other zones
  - In 1947, **Bizonia** was created: the British and American zones unified economically thanks to a new currency
    - Fearing the spread of new idea to the Soviet zone and strengthen rather than weaken Germany. He decided to introduce his own currency in East Germany, called the **Ostmark**
  - This eventually took turn to **Berlin Blockade**, where Stalin to block all road and rail access to the western part of Berlin from June 24, 1948
- **Formation of Alliances**

- The western alliance was formalised into an organisation, **the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO)**, which came into existence in April 1949.
  - It was an association of twelve states which declared that armed attack on any one of them in Europe or North America would be regarded as an attack on all of them.
  - Each of these states would be obliged to help the other.
- While, **the eastern alliance**, known as the **Warsaw Pact**, was led by the Soviet Union.
  - It was created in 1955 and its principal function was to counter NATO's forces in Europe

- **Nuclear arms race**

- The Americans believed that the Soviets had caught up technologically, which led to a nuclear arms race.
- The two superpowers tried amassed nuclear weapons, both sides fearing they might fall behind in research and production.
- Over 55,000 nuclear warheads were produced during the Cold War, with the US spending an estimated \$5.8 trillion on nuclear weapons, laboratories, reactors, bombers, submarines, missiles, and silos
- Nuclear warfare eventually became a deterrent rather than a weapon



### Important events during Cold War

- **Wars around the world**



- There was never any direct large-scale fighting between the US and USSR. The two superpowers waged war only by supporting different regional conflicts, known as **proxy wars**
- **Korean War**
  - In 1950, Korea was divided into two zones: the communist north, and the capitalist democratic south. In a bid to contain the spread of communism to South Korea, the US sent troops to the country. The Chinese responded by sending their own troops to the border.
  - This war however ended in a stalemate, while till present both North & South Korea are still at war
- **Vietnam War**
  - The Vietnam War was an extremely long and costly conflict that pitted North Vietnam against South Vietnam and the United States in the 1960s.
  - The Soviet Union sent money and supplied weapons to the communist forces. By 1975, the US was forced to withdraw, and the North seized control of the South
- **Afghanistan War**
  - In the 1980s, just as the United States had done in Vietnam, the Soviet Union intervened in Afghanistan
  - In response, the US supported the Mujahideen (Afghani guerrillas) against the USSR, by sending them money and weapons
  - The USSR was unsuccessful in its efforts to turn the country into a communist state during the Afghan War, and the Taliban, a US-funded Islamic extremist group, eventually claimed power in the region
- **Space Race**
  - The space race was a series of technological advancements that were exhibits of superiority in spaceflight, each nation trying to outdo the other.
  - The origins of the space race lie in the nuclear arms race between the two nations after the Second World War when ballistic missiles were being developed

- On 4 October 1957, the Soviets launched Sputnik, the world's first satellite, into orbit. On 20 July 1969, the US successfully landed on the moon, thanks to the Apollo 11 space mission
- **Cuban missile crisis**
  - In 1962, the Soviet Union began to secretly install missiles in communist Cuba, in easy striking distance of the US
  - The confrontation that followed became known as the **Cuban missile crisis**. The US and USSR were on the brink of **nuclear war**.
  - Eventually, an agreement was arrived at, which showed that the two countries were extremely wary of using nuclear missiles against each other, both **fearing mutual annihilation**

### How did the Cold War end?

The Cold War came to an end, with the following series of events

- **Break of Unity in Eastern Bloc**
  - Unity in the Eastern bloc started to falter during the 1960s and 1970s when the alliance between China and the Soviet Union fell apart.
  - In the meantime, some Western countries as well as Japan became more economically independent of the US
    - This led to more complex relationships internationally, which meant that smaller nations were more resistant to efforts to vie for their support.
- **Gorbachev: perestroika and glasnost**
  - The Cold War began to break down properly in the late 1980s, during Mikhail Gorbachev's administration
    - He introduced reforms to distract people from the Economic problems in Eastern Bloc where goods were in short supply
    - To stop citizens from revolting, economic reforms known as **perestroika**, or 'restructuring', were passed and the restrictions on freedom of expression were relaxed in a policy called **glasnost**, or 'openness.'

- But these reforms came in too late. As Communist regimes in Eastern Europe were collapsing as democratic governments rose to replace them in East Germany, Poland, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia
- **The Fall of the Berlin Wall**
  - In 1989, the Berlin Wall, the symbol of the Iron Curtain, was torn down by Germans on both sides as they sought to unify Germany.
  - At the same time, waves of anti-communist feeling spread throughout the Eastern Bloc.
- **The collapse of the Soviet Union**
  - The end of the Cold War was finally marked by the dissolution of the Soviet Union into fifteen newly independent nations in 1991.
  - The USSR became the Russian Federation and no longer had a communist leader.

### India during Cold War

- As a leader of Non Aligned Movement, India's response to the ongoing Cold War was two-fold:
  - At one level, it took particular care in **staying away** from the two alliances.
  - Second, it raised its voice against the newly decolonised countries becoming part of these alliances
- **India's policy** was neither negative nor passive.
  - As Nehru reminded the world, nonalignment was not a policy of 'fleeing away'.
  - On the contrary, India was in favour of actively intervening in world affairs to soften Cold War rivalries. India **tried to reduce the differences** between the alliances and thereby prevent differences from escalating into a full-scale war
  - Indian diplomats and leaders were often used to communicate and mediate between Cold War rivals, such as in the Korean War in the early 1950s.
- Also, during this time, India chose to involve other members also into the Non-Aligned group.
  - During the Cold War, India repeatedly tried to activate those regional and international organizations that were not a part of the alliances led by the US and USSR.

- Nehru reposed great faith in ‘a genuine commonwealth of free and cooperating nations’ that would play a positive role in softening, if not ending, the Cold War
- However, India saw a **pro-Soviet tilt** during the ‘Indira Years.’
  - During the 1960s India was seeking to boost its military power post the 1962 defeat, and while the West was hesitant to upset the India-Pakistan balance
  - Given these circumstances, India leant towards the USSR
    - India could anyhow not realistically attain strategic autonomy with its dependence on foreign powers for military equipment.
    - Gaining Moscow’s military and political backing was a pragmatic means of securing India’s security interests while also not completely discarding nonalignment as India had not entered into a formal alliance with the USSR.
    - As such, Indira’s foreign policy was driven primarily by a quest for power, aligning with the Cold War norm
  - Also, Indira’s signing of a Peace, Friendship and Cooperation Treaty with the USSR before the 1971 India-Pakistan War is widely seen as a breach of nonalignment, while India was arguably maintaining the subcontinental balance of power.

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