

CHAPTER - 1**RENAISSANCE AND
THE ENLIGHTENMENT****INTRODUCTION**

Generally, it is held that modern Europe is an offshoot of Renaissance and Enlightenment because it promoted the freedom of thought, scientific and critical outlook, pure art, literature free from the influence of the Church and development of regional languages. In other words, it comprises the intellectual changes which occurred during this period.

The concept of Renaissance means rebirth or recovery; it has its origins in Italy and is associated with the rebirth of antiquity or Greco-Roman civilization. The age of the Renaissance is believed to elapse over a period of about two centuries that was approximately from 1350 to 1550. The Renaissance was a recovery from the middle Ages, for the intellectuals, it was a period of recovery from the “Dark Ages”; a period, which was called so due to its lack of classical culture.

First Italian and then intellectuals of the rest of Europe became increasingly interested in the Greco-Roman culture of the ancient Mediterranean world. This interest was fostered especially by the migration of the Greek intellectuals during the middle Ages and the fact that the ancient Greek works could then be translated more precisely into Latin. Increasing popularity of archeology and discovery of ancient Roman and Greek constructions also participated in this intense interest for the classical culture. It is believed that precisely from the fifteenth century great changes took place affecting public and social spheres of Europe and then the rest of the world; the basis of the modern European civilization and capitalist system were then founded. Technological innovations increased the rates of economic development. Great geographical discoveries opened up the borders of the Western world, thus accelerating the formation of national, European and world markets. Major changes in art, music, literature and religion wrecked the system of medieval values.

Another period marked by significant changes, is the eighteenth century or an age of Enlightenment. Although present throughout Europe, the origins of the Enlightenment are closely associated with France and its philosophers such as Voltaire, Rousseau and others. The Enlightenment has been fostered by the remarkable discoveries of the Scientific Revolution of the seventeenth century. It was during this period that the ideas of the Scientific Revolution were spread and popularized by the philosophers (intellectuals of the 18th century).

There are similarities that can with certainty be traced between the Renaissance and the Enlightenment. Many of the eighteenth-century philosophers saw themselves as the followers of the philosophers of antiquity and the humanists of the Renaissance. Achievements of both, the Renaissance and the Enlightenment were the product of the elite, rather than a mass movement. Gradually though, they did have an irreversible impact on ordinary people. Another apparent similarity between the two periods, of course, was the fact that both of them were marked by great political and social changes. However, since evolution and progress cause changes, and achievements of one century are built on those of the previous one, there are probably more differences than similarities between the two periods.

We shall now examine the Renaissance and the Enlightenment in a more broader format.

Renaissance

The Renaissance was the outcome of several centuries; it did not emerge all of a sudden. There was a persistent effort for its arousal in France in the post medieval period. In this field the efforts of Peter Aubelier (France), Roger Bacon (England) and Dante (Italy) were commendable. According to the European history,

the Renaissance period lasted roughly from the 14th century to 16th century and particularly from 1350 to 1550.

CAUSES OF RENAISSANCE

The cause of Renaissance was as follows:

1. Crusades

The military expedition undertaken in Europe from the end of the 11th century to the end of the 13th century to recover the Holy Land, Jerusalem from the Muslims, were called crusades. Because of these crusades, the Christians (European) came in the contact with the enlightened people of the East which were already enriched civilization due to their contact with the Greek and Indian civilization. The crusades encouraged voyages and a study of Geography. Aristotle's scientific books, Arabic numerals, algebra, mariner's compass and paper reached Western Europe through crusades.

2. Commercial Prosperity

The crusades established business links with the eastern countries. As a result there was tremendous increase in business which fostered the spirit of Renaissance. The commercial prosperity shaped the renaissance in four stages-

- The European businessmen came to know about new ideas and progressive element when they travelled across many countries in connection with business
- The development of business built new cities like Venice, Milan, Florence, Angelbourg and Nuremburg. These cities as a centre for international trade became hotspot for businessmen and tourists, which facilitated the exchange of ideas and development of knowledge.
- The abundant wealth which was accumulated through this new economic pattern created a desire for learning in the newly rich businessmen. This class became the patrons of art and gave shelter to the scholar and scientists.
- The business class criticized the Church and tried to reduce its importance.

3. Paper and the Printing Press

The European learnt paper-making from Arabs in the middle Ages. In the mid 15th century Johann Guttenberg of Germany invented a type machine which may be called a prototype of printing press. The invention of printing press paved the way for intellectual growth. In 1477 Caxton established a printing press in Britain. By and by, the printing press reached Italy, Germany, Spain and France. Now books were printed in a large number at a relatively low cost. The monopoly of distinctive person over knowledge came to an end. With the dissemination of knowledge through books, superstition and orthodox practices weakened and self-confidence increased in people. Now people became aware of their rights and the greatness of man revealed.

4. Capture of Constantinople by the Turks

In 1453 the Turks captured Constantinople, the capital of East Roman (Byzantine) Empire.

- With the Turks' capture of Constantinople, all land routes leading from Europe to the countries of the East fell into their hands. Hence the peoples of the South-West Europe became impatient to find out a new business route, possibly a sea-route leading to the east.
- Thousands of Greek scholars, philosophers and artists migrated from Constantinople to Italy, France, Germany and England, these intellectuals took with them the science of ancient Rome and Greece as well as the new ways of thinking.

Origination of renaissance in Italy

- One major reason the Renaissance began in Italy is linked to geography. The city-states of Italy, positioned on the Mediterranean Sea, were centers for trade and commerce, the first port

of call for both goods and new ideas.

- Secondly, Italy was the core of the former Roman empire, and, at the collapse of the Byzantine empire in 1453, became the refuge for the intellectuals of Constantinople who brought with them many of the great works of the ancient Greeks and Romans, works that had been lost to the West during the Dark Ages. Prior to this, scholars in Italy had been examining the works of the ancients, but they were of poor quality and often incomplete.
- The third reason was political. Due to various political intrigues, the Holy Roman Empire had essentially lost power in northern Italy, the Papal States were governed by various leading families within each region, and the city of Naples dominated the South. This vacuum of leadership allowed merchant families to gain considerable power within each city-state and thus revised the laws governing banking, commerce, shipping, and trade. This freer atmosphere led to a busy exchange of both goods and ideas.
- The Renaissance was a rebirth of ancient Greek and Roman thinking and styles, and both the Roman and Greek civilizations were Mediterranean cultures, as is Italy. The best single reason for Italy as the birthplace of the Renaissance was the concentration of wealth, power, and intellect in the Church. In that time, the Church controlled so much of the political, economic, and intellectual life of Europe, that it gathered most of the best minds, wealthiest men, and most powerful leaders unto itself in Rome at one time or another. The noble merchants of various Italian cities had built up so much wealth over the centuries that they could better afford to patronize the arts and sciences than almost anyone else.
- However, the Renaissance is a very complex period with no well-defined beginning or end and no simple root causes. There are many theories. Some claim that the trade routes coming from the Middle East and China that terminated in Venice and Genoa had great influence by bringing foreign ideas; others cite the lack of centralized control as exercised by a king that allowed the nobles and the middle class more latitude to compete; others cite the influence of the Kingdom of Sicily that had so long kept educated Moslems in high positions; and finally, for the Humanistic values that permeated the Italian Renaissance, some cite the proximity of the corrupt Papal Court in Rome. Seeing supposed men of God, who were saying that only the next life should be enjoyed, living a very comfortable life tended to lead the Italians to listen less to Papal dogma.

Changes occurred due to Renaissance

The significant changes are -

- **The decline of feudalism:** The feudalism the dominant social system in medieval Europe, in which the nobility held lands from the Crown in exchange for military service, and vassals were in turn tenants of the nobles, while the peasants (villains or serfs) were obliged to live on their lord's land and give him homage, labour, and a share of the produce, notionally in exchange for military protection. This system was declined.
- **The study of ancient literature:** Renaissance was very important for literature and arts. It was marked by a revival in interest for ancient Greek and Roman civilizations. A new concept was started Humanism. It focused on Man. Earlier, under Church's authority; the belief was that man was here on the Earth due to a sin. SO he should not enjoy in the world.

But this changed during the Renaissance. The people proposed the idea of the limitless capabilities of the human mind and the right to enjoy. So you will find Renaissance art and literature centered around Man. All his needs and desires and his wish to fulfill them.

- **The rise of nation states:** A Sovereign states of which most of the citizens or subjects are united also by factors which define a nation, such as language or common descent were emerged.

- The beginning of modern science, the invention of moving letters, Gun-powder & compass were used. Art became less focused on religion. Artists were not part of society. Paintings became less secular. Technique became less important.
- **The discovery of new trade routes:** At the start of the renaissance, merchants would travel through the Mediterranean and into the Red Sea to reach Asia. They would also use the Silk Road. However, in the middle of the Renaissance and the end, the Ottoman Empire began rising in military strength, until the point where they blocked off these routes, starting the Age of Exploration in which the Americas were discovered while trying to find different trade routes. Later into the Age of Exploration, a route to Asia was found around the Cape of Good Hope, circling the African continent into India by the Portuguese.

The Spread of Renaissance

After Italy the Renaissance wave captured the whole Europe. The advent of printing press facilitated its rapid transmission. The ideas and principles of the movement were enhanced and diversified as they spread. It also inspired many movements across the continent.

It had a profound impact on the French revolution. Even the term 'Renaissance' is a French word, first defined in the work of French historian Jules Michelet in 1855 (History of France). He emphasized the democratic values enshrined in the movement. The values of Renaissance came to France with King Charles VIII after he invaded Italy in 1495. Subsequently Francis I brought in Italian art and artists who inspired several French writers, musicians and painters, making the spirit of Renaissance innate to France.

Before long, the spirit and ideas that were taking hold in Italy reached France, Germany, England, and the Netherlands, where the Renaissance continued into the 1600s.

One of the most important figures of the northern Renaissance was the Dutch humanist Desiderius Erasmus (c. 1466-1536), whose book In Praise of Folly (1509) is a blistering criticism of the clergy, scholars, and philosophers of his day.

Another notable figure of the northern Renaissance was Englishman Sir Thomas More (1478-1535), who was a statesman and adviser to the king. More's Utopia, published in 1516, criticizes the times by envisioning an ideal society in which land is communally held, men and women alike are educated, police are unnecessary, politicians are honest, and where there is religious tolerance.

The works of Flemish artist Jan van Eyck (1395-1441), including his groundbreaking portrait Man in a Red Turban (1433), demonstrate that the principles of the Renaissance were felt as strongly in northern Europe as they were in Italy.

ENLIGHTENMENT

Introduction

The enlightenment was a philosophical movement of the 17th and 18th century Europe. It began in England and promoted rational human thinking against blind faith, traditional beliefs and dogmas of the middle Ages, Reason tolerance and humanity was the hallmark and the welfare of human being was considered as the ultimate goal. That the state, the church and other institutions should strive only for the welfare of mankind and rather than some unknown super power, individual or master of his fate and fortune was emphasized.

The Principles of enlightenment

The Principles of enlightenment were as follows:

- Enlightenment thinking generally belief that the world is governed by laws of nature which are eternal?
- It is imperative for human belief to understand the natural laws and act in according to them instead of violating them

- These eternal laws may be understood by means of intellect and reasoning which can unshackle the human from the chains of irrationality, fear and ignorance.
- All human are born equal and are endowed with equal intelligence. They thus deserve equal treatment before the state and society.
- Thus, the idea is to promote scientific thinking among common masses though discussion in public sphere so to eradicate disparity of every possible kind mainly, economic, social, political, etc and to bring out the essential goodness of human nature.
- The enlightenment thinking saw their societies as emerging from the darkness of superstition, ignorance and intolerance, most of which was associated with medieval catholic and feudal monarchy.
- A key feature of enlightenment was the remodeling of religion where god man often means as the force of good rather than a mere biblical lord.

Factors which influenced the Enlightenment

Enlightenment was influenced by various factors which preceded it:

- **Renaissance** which roughly existed between 14th to 16th centuries Europe initiated a new wave of intellectualism and challenged the established church feudal order of the dark ages.
- **Reformation** which speaks of an invisible church tried to establish an independent identity of the state beyond the control of Roman Catholicism.
- The discoveries of new world along with the growth of scientific temperament aided in the emergence and growth of enlightenment
- **Voltaire - Combats Intolerance** Probably the most brilliant and influential of all the philosophers was François Marie Arouet. Using the pen name Voltaire, he published more than 70 books of political essays, philosophy, and drama. Voltaire often used satire against his opponents. Although he made powerful enemies, Voltaire never stopped fighting for tolerance, reason, freedom of religious belief, and freedom of speech. He used his quill pen as if it were a deadly weapon in a thinker's war against humanity's worst enemies—intolerance, prejudice, and superstition. He summed up his staunch defense of liberty in one of his most famous quotes: "I do not agree with a word you say but will defend to the death your right to say it".
- **Montesquieu and the Separation of Powers:** Another influential French writer- devoted himself to the study of political liberty. Montesquieu believed that Britain was the best governed and most politically balanced country of his own day. The British king and his ministers held executive power. They carried out the laws of the state. The members of Parliament held legislative power. They made the laws. The judges of the English courts held judicial power. They interpreted the laws to see how each applied to a specific case. Montesquieu called this division of power among different branches. Montesquieu over simplified the British system. It did not actually separate powers this way. His idea, however, became a part of his most famous book, *On the Spirit of Laws* (1748). In his book, Montesquieu proposed that separation of powers would keep any individual or group from gaining total control of the government. "Power," he wrote, "should be a check to power." This idea later would be called checks and balances. Montesquieu book was admired by political leaders in the British colonies of North America. His ideas about separation of powers and checks and balances became the basis for the United States Constitution.
- **Rousseau:** A third great philosopher, Jean Jacques Rousseau, was passionately committed to individual freedom. Most philosophers believed that reason, science, and art would improve life for all people. Rousseau, however, argued that civilization corrupted people's natural goodness. "Man is born free, and every-where he is in chains," he wrote. Rousseau believed

that the only good government was one that was freely formed by the people and guided by the “general will” of society—a direct democracy. Under such a government, people agree to give up some of their freedom in favor of the common good. In 1762, he explained his political philosophy in a book called *The Social Contract*. Rousseau’s view of the social contract differed greatly from that of Hobbes. For Hobbes, the social contract was an agreement between a society and its government. For Rousseau, it was an agreement among free individuals to create a society and a government. Like Locke, Rousseau argued that legitimate government came from the consent of the governed. However, Rousseau believed in a much broader democracy than Locke had promoted. He argued that all people were equal and that titles of nobility should be abolished. Rousseau’s ideas inspired many of the leaders of the French Revolution who overthrew the monarchy in 1789.

- **Hobbes’s Social Contract:** Thomas Hobbes expressed his views in a work called *Leviathan* (1651). The horrors of the English Civil War convinced him that all humans were naturally selfish and wicked. Without governments to keep order, Hobbes said, there would be “war . . . of every man against every man, and life would be “solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short.” Hobbes argued that to escape such a bleak life, people had to hand over their rights to a strong ruler. In exchange, they gained law and order. Hobbes called this agreement by which people created a government the social contract. Because people acted in their own self-interest, Hobbes said, the ruler needed total power to keep citizens under control. The best government was one that had the awe some power of a leviathan (sea monster). In Hobbes’s view, such a government was an absolute monarchy, which could impose order and demand obedience.
- **Locke’s Natural Rights:** The philosopher John Locke held a different, more positive, view of human nature. He believed that people could learn from experience and improve themselves. As reasonable beings, they had the natural ability to govern their own affairs and to look after the welfare of society. Locke criticized absolute monarchy and favored the idea of self-government. According to Locke, all people are born free and equal, with three natural rights—life, liberty, and property. The purpose of government, said Locke, is to protect these rights. If a government fails to do so, citizens have a right to overthrow it. Locke’s theory had a deep influence on modern political thinking. His belief that a government’s power comes from the consent of the people is the foundation of modern democracy. The ideas of government by popular consent and the right to rebel against unjust rulers helped inspire struggles for liberty in Europe and the Americas

Impact of Enlightenment

The Impact of Enlightenment is as follows:

- It led to the demand for reform with in traditional Christian principle like human commonality and god’s concern for all. It further led to the end of slavery in 1774 in England and in 1807 from entire British colonies.
- A number of invariable principles of economics put forth by Adam Smith struck a direct blow to the old mercantile economy which was based upon slave trade and industrial labour meant for plantation agriculture.
- In the area of criminology. The concept to detent crime though brutal punishment was countered by education and criminal rehabilitation.
- Increasing awareness of individual within social paradigm and the concept of lasses-faire was acknowledgement.
- The epoch of monarchic repentance where the absolute, autocratic and suppressive monarchy was replaced by liberal philanthropic and intellectual monarchy .The spirit of humanism along with public welfare to an extent prevailed over monarchic interest. Russian empress

CATHERINE (1762-96) and JOSEPH (1765-1790), the emperor of Austria were among the earlier enlightened rulers and were great admirers of Voltaire, Rousseau and Montesquieu.

- Across Atlantic, philosophers like Benjamin Franklin, James Logan, Thomas Penn, Samuel Adam and others propagated the concept of enlightenment and made the Americans conscious of their rights and duties against the oppressive British rule. This led to the famous American war of independence (1776).
- The French and the Spanish forces who fought alongside the Americans in the war led to the French Revolution in their return.
- John Locke's idea of life, liberty and property became the justification of American Independence while Montesquieu propounded the idea of separation of power between the legislative, Executive and Judiciary.
- Racial discrimination practiced by the British, American war of Independence, French Revolution and Unification of Italy contributed to the evolution of Enlightenment in India.
- **Raja Ram Mohan Roy** (1772-1833) considered as the first social reformer of Modern Indian Renaissance inspired the ideals of social equality and human dignity. He imbibed the best of the oriental and western philosophy and was instrumental to the opening of Hindu College.
- Thinkers like Vivian Henry Derozio, Ishwar Chandra Vidya Sagar, Swami Vivekananda, Rabindra Nath Tagore, Sharat Chandra and others not only fought against orthodox in human practices viz Untouchability, casteism, Sati system and others but simultaneously provided an alternative synthesis of Indian and European traditions which was suitable for the Indian conditions.
- Ideas of Natural rights—life, liberty, property were given by Locke. It was fundamental to U.S. Declaration of Independence.
- Ideas of Separation of powers were given by Montesquieu. France, United States, Latin American nations use separation of powers in new constitutions.
- Ideas of Freedom of thought and expression were given by Voltaire. It is guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights and French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen; European monarchs reduce or eliminate censorship.
- Ideas of Abolishment of torture were given by Beccaria. It is guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights; torture outlawed or reduced in nations of Europe and the America.
- Ideas of Religious freedom were given by Voltaire. It is guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights and French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen; European monarchs reduce persecution.
- Ideas of Women's equality were given by Wollstonecraft. This led to Women's rights groups form in Europe and North America.



CHAPTER - 2

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

INTRODUCTION

During the later half of the 18th century the Thirteen British colonies of Northern America revolted against the British colonial rule and gained independence from the British Empire to become the United States of America. In this revolution the colonies united against the British Empire and entered a period of armed conflict known as the Revolutionary War on **“American War of Independence”**, between **1775 and 1783**.

The Ideological background of American Revolution

The ideological background of American Revolution was prepared by various kinds of ideas. John Locke's idea on liberalism greatly influenced the political minds behind the revolution; for instance; his theory of the “Social contract” implied the natural rights of the people to overthrow their leaders, should these leaders betray the historic rights of Englishmen. Historians find little trace of Jean-Jacques Rousseau's influence in America.

A motivating force behind the revolution was the American love of a political ideology called “Republicanism” which was dominant in many of the colonies by 1775. The “Country party” in Britain, whose critique of British government emphasized that corruption was to be feared, influenced American politicians. The colonists associated the “court” with luxury and inherited aristocracy, which many British Americans increasingly condemned. Corruption was the greatest possible evil, and civic virtue required men to put civic duty ahead of their personal desires. Men had a civic duty to fight for their country. For women, “republican motherhood” was to instill republican values in her children and to avoid luxury and ostentation. The “Founding Fathers” of American Revolution were strong advocates of republicanism, Especially Samuel Adams, Patrick Henry, Thomas Paine Benjamin Franklin, George Washington, Thomas Jefferson and John Adams.

THE LARGER BACKGROUND OF AMERICAN REVOLUTION

1. Navigation Acts

Great Britain regulated the economies of the colonies through the Navigation Acts according to the doctrines of mercantilism, which stated that anything that benefited the Empire was good policy. Widespread evasion of these laws had long been tolerated now through the use of open ended search warrants strict enforcement of these Acts became the practice. In 1761, Massachusetts lawyer James Otis argued that the writs violated the constitutional rights of the colonists. He lost the case, but John Adams later wrote, “American Independence was then and there born”.

In 1762, Patrick Henry argued the Parson's cause in Virginia, where the legislature had passed a law and it was voted by the king. Henry argued, “That a king, by disallowing Acts of this salutary nature, form being the Father of His people, degenerated into a Tyrant and Forfeits all right to his subjects' obedience”

2. Western Frontier

The proclamation of 1763 restricted colonization across the Appalachian Mountains as this was to be Indian Territory Regardless of this the groups of settlers continued to move west and lay claim to Indian Land. The proclamation was soon modified and was no longer a hindrance to settlements, but its promulgation and the fact that it had been written without consulting Americans angered the colonists. The Quebec Act of 1774

extended Quebec's boundaries to the Ohio River, shutting out the claims of the thirteen colonies. By then, however, the Americans had little regard for new laws from London and they were drilling militia and organizing for war.

3. Taxation without representation

By 1763, Great Britain possessed vast holdings in North America. In addition to the thirteen colonies, twenty-two smaller colonies were ruled directly by royal governors. Victory in the seven years War had given Great Britain New France (Canada), Spanish Florida and the Native American there were six colonies that remained loyal to Britain. The colonies included: Province of Quebec province of Nova Scotia, colony of Bermuda Province of West Florida and the province of East Florida. In 1765 however, the colonists still considered themselves loyal subjects of the British crown, with the same historic rights and obligations as subjects in Britain.

The British did not expect the colonies to contribute to the interest or the retirement of debt incurred during the French and Indian wars, but they did expect a portion of the expenses for colonial defense to be paid by the Americans. Estimating the expenses of defending the continental colonies and the West India's to be approximately 2, 00,000 annually the British goal after the end of this war was that the colonies would be taxed for 78,000 of this needed amount. The issues with the colonists were both that the taxes were high and that the colonies had no representation in the parliament which passed the taxes. Lord North in 1775 argued for the British position that Englishmen paid on average twenty-five shillings annually in taxes whereas Americans paid only six pence. Colonists, however as early as 1764 with respect to the sugar Act, indicated that the "the margin of profit in rum was so small that molasses could bear no duty whatever".

The phrase "No taxation without representation" became popular in many American circles. London argued that the Americans were represented "virtually". But most Americans rejected the theory that men in London, who knew nothing about their needs and conditions, could represent them.

4. New taxes of 1764

In 1764, Parliament enacted the sugar Act and the currency Act, further vexing the colonists even further that same year by enacting the Quartering Act, which stated that British soldiers were to be cared for by residents in certain areas.

5. Stamp Act of 1765

In 1765, the stamp Act was the first direct tax ever levied by parliament on the colonies. All newspapers, almanacs, pamphlets and official documents-even decks of playing cards- were required to have the stamps. All 13 colonies protested vehemently as popular leaders Such as Patrick Henry in Virginia and James Otis in Massachusetts rallied the people in opposition. A secret group the "Sons of liberty" was formed in many towns and threatened violence if anyone sold the stamps and no one did. In Boston, the sons of liberty burned the records of the vice- admiralty court and looted the home of the chief Justice. Several legislatures called for united action, and nine colonies sent delegates to the stamp Act congress in New York City in October 1765. Moderates led by John Dickinson drew up a "Declaration of Rights and Grievances" stating that taxes passed without representation violated their Rights. Lending weight to the argument was an economic boycott of British merchandise, as imports the colonies fell from 2,250,000 in 1764 to 1,944,000 in 1765. In London the Rockingham Government came to power and parliament debated whether to repeal the stamp tax or send an army to enforce it Benjamin Franklin eloquently made the American case, explaining the colonies had spent heavily in manpower, money and blood in defense of the empire in a series of wars against the French and Indians, and that Further taxes to pay for those wars were unjust and might bring about a rebellion. Parliament agreed and repealed the tax but in a "Declaratory Act" of March 1766 insisted that parliament retained full power to make laws for the colonies "in all cases whatsoever".

6. Townshend Act 1767 and Boston Massacre 1770

In 1767, the Parliament passed the Townshend Acts, which placed a tax on a number of essential goods

including paper, glass and tea. Angered at the tax increases, colonists organized a boycott of British goods in Boston on March 5, 1770 a large mob gathered around a group of British soldiers. One Soldier was clubbed and fell. All but one of the soldiers fired into the crowd. Eleven people were hit: Three civilians were killed at the scene of the shooting, and two died after the incident. The event quickly came to be called the Boston Massacre. Although the Soldiers were tried and acquitted (defended by John Adams), the exaggerated and widespread description soon became propaganda to turn colonial sentiment against the British. This in turn began a downward spiral in the relationship between Britain and the Province of Massachusetts.

7. Tea Act 1773

In June 1772, in what became known as the Gaspee affair a British warship that had been vigorously enforcing unpopular trade regulations was burned by American patriots. Soon afterwards, Governor Thomas Hutchinson of Massachusetts reported that he and the royal Judges would be paid directly from London, thus by passing the colonial legislature on December 16, 1773 a group of men led by Samuel Adams and dressed to evoke American Indians, boarded the ships of British tea merchants and dumped an estimated 10,000 worth of tea on board into the harbor. This event became known as the Boston Tea party.

8. Intolerable Acts 1774

The British government responded by passing several Acts which came to be known as the Intolerable Acts, which further darkened colonial opinion towards the British. They considered four laws enacted by the British parliament. The first was the Massachusetts Government Act, which altered the Massachusetts Charter and restricted town meetings. The second Act, the Administration of Justice Act, ordered that all British Soldiers to be tried were to be arraigned in Britain not in the Colonies. The third Act was the Boston Port Act, which closed the port of Boston until the British had been compensated for the tea lost in the Boston Tea party (the British never received such a parliament). The fourth Act was the Quartering Act of 1774, which allowed governors to house British troops in unoccupied building. The first continental congress endorsed the Suffolk Resolves, which declared the intolerable Acts to be unconstitutional, called for the people to form militias, and called for Massachusetts to form a patriot government.

9. American political opposition

American political opposition was initially through the colonial assemblies such as the stamp Act congress. In 1765 the sons of liberty were formed which used violence and threats of violence to ensure that the British tax laws were unenforceable. In late 1772 after the Gaspe Affair Samuel Adams set about creating new committees of correspondence which linked patriots in all thirteen colonies and eventually provided the framework for a rebel government. In early 1773, Virginia, the largest colony set up its committee of correspondence on which Patrick Henry and Thomas Jefferson Served.

In 1774, the Continental Congress was formed to serve as a provisional national government. In response to the Massachusetts Government Act, Massachusetts Bay and then other colonies formed provisional governments called Provincial Congress Committee of safety were created for the enforcement of the resolutions of the committees of Correspondence and the continental Congress.

The People of Worcester set up an armed picket line in front of the local authorities and refused to allow British magistrates to enter. Similar events soon occurred all across the colony British troops were sent from England but by the time they arrived the entire colony of Massachusetts with the exception of the heavily garrisoned city of Boston had thrown off British control of local affairs.

The Battle of Lexington and Concord took place on 19 April 1775 when the British sent a regiment to confiscate arms and arrest revolutionaries in Concord. It was the first fighting of the American Revolutionary War, and immediately the news aroused the 13 colonies to call out their militias and send troops to besiege Boston. The Battle of Bunker Hill followed on 17 June 1775 By late spring 1776, with George Washington as commander the Americans forced the British to evacuate Boston. The patriots were in control everywhere in the 13 colonies and were ready to declare independence while there still were many Loyalists, they were no

longer in control anywhere by July 1776 and all of the British Royal officials had fled. The Second Continental Congress Convened in 1775, after the war had started. The Congress Created the continental Army and extended the Olive Branch Petition to the Crown as an attempt at reconciliation King George iii refused to receive it, issuing instead the Proclamation of Rebellion requiring action against the traitors.

VARIOUS FRACTIONS IN AMERICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

1. The Patriots or the Revolutionaries

At the time, revolutionaries were called ‘Patriots’, ‘Whigs’, ‘Congress-men’, or ‘Americans’ The word “Patriot” is used in this context simply to mean a person in the colonies who sided with the American Revolution. They included a full range of social and economic classes, but there was a unanimity regarding the need to defend the rights of Americans. After the War, Patriots such as George Washington, James Madison, John Adams, Alexander Hamilton and John Jay were deeply devoted to republicanism and they were eager to build a rich and powerful nation. The Patriots such as Patrick Henry, Benjamin Franklin, and Thomas Jefferson represented the democratic impulses and the agrarian plantation element that wanted a localized society with greater political equality.

2. Loyalists and neutrals

While there is no way of knowing the actual numbers historians estimate 25% to 33% of the colonists remained loyal to the British Crown these were known at the time as ‘ Loyalists ‘Tories’, or ‘King’s men’ A third remained neutral and another third were known as Rebels or Patriots depending on whose side one was on. Loyalists were typically older, less willing to break with old loyalties, often connected to the Anglican Church, and included many established merchants with business connections across the Empire. Recent immigrants who had not been fully Americanized were also inclined to support the king.

There are notable example of loyalists who were not highborn, however, and it seems unlikely that their number are included in estimates of the number of loyalists. Notable among these were Native Americans, who mostly rejected American pleas that they remain neutral. Most groups aligned themselves with the loyalists. There were also incentives provided by both sides that helped to secure the affiliations of regional peoples and leaders, and the tribes that depended most heavily upon colonial trade tended to side with the revolutionaries, through political factors were important as well.

Another poorly- documented groups that Joined the loyalist cause were African-American slaves, who were actively recruited into the British forces in return for manumission protection for their families and the promise of land grants. Following the war, many of these “Black loyalists” settled in Nova Scotia Upper and Lower Canada, and other parts of the British Empire, where the descendants of some remain today. A minority of uncertain size tried to stay neutral in the war. Most kept a low profile. However the Quakers especially in Pennsylvania were the most important group that was outspoken for neutrality. As patriots declared independence the Quakers, who continued to do business with the British were attacked as supporters of British rule, “Contrivers and authors of Seditious publications “Critical of the revolutionary cause.

After the war, the great majority of loyalists remained in America and resumed normal lives. Some Such as Samuel Seabury became prominent American leaders. 62,000 Loyalists (of the total estimated number of 450-500,000) relocated to Canada (42,000 according to the Canadian book on Loyalists, Trued Blue) Britain (7,000) or to Florida or the West Indies (13,000) making the one of the largest mass migrations in history this made up approximately 2% of the total population of the colonies. When the Loyalists left the South in 1783, they took thousands of their slaves with them to the British West Indies, Where their descendants would became free men 26 years earlier than their United States counterparts.

3. Declaration of Independence, 1776

On January 10, 1776, Thomas Paine Published a political pamphlet entitled “Common Sense” arguing that the only solution to the problems with Britain was republicanism and independence from Great Britain In the

ensuring month before the United States as a political unit declared its independence several states individually declared their independence. Virginia for instance declared its independence from Great Britain on May 15 on July 2, 1776. Congress declared the independence of the United States: two days later, on July 4 it adopted the Declaration of Independence, Which date is now celebrated as the US independence day. Although the bulk of delegates signed the Declaration on that late, signing continued over the next several months because many members weren't immediately available. The war began in April 1775 while the declaration was issued in July 1776, until this point the colonies had sought favorable peace terms: now all the states called for independence.

The Articles of confederation and Perpetual union commonly Known as the Articles of Confederation formed the first governing document of the united states of America, Combining the colonies into a loose confederation of Sovereign states. The second continental congress adopted the Articles in November 1777, though they were not formally ratified until March 1, 1781 on that date the continental congress was dissolved and the new government of the United States in congress Assembled was formed.

France in the American Revolution

France was instrumental in the American Revolution. The victory of the American forces can be attributed to the military aid provided by the French forces.

France enter the American Revolution

France participated actively in the American Revolutionary War (1775-1783) and assisted America in its fight for independence from the British rule. It entered the Revolution in 1778. France perceived the whole episode as an incarnation of the Enlightenment Spirit. Benjamin Franklin popularized the Revolution in France, urging them to participate.

France help America in the Revolutionary War

France had faced a bitter defeat in the French and Indian War, having to evacuate the American soil after that. Therefore, it saw a natural ally in the American colonies, who the French also wished to turn to their advantage once the conflict was over. At the same time, the colonies lacked ammunitions and allies. The French extended considerable financial support to the American forces in the form of donations and loans and also supplied vital military arms and supplies, which became a decisive factor in the victory of America.

Benjamin Franklin play an important role in the American Revolution

Benjamin Franklin was among the founding fathers, and played an indispensable role in the American Revolution. Motivated by the ideals of equality, liberty and republicanism, he entered the war and mobilized the masses to join in the same. In December 1776, he went to France, where he was welcomed with enthusiasm. He stayed in Paris for a long time, which was a cause of discontent for the British but was unusually a fruitful time for America.

Siege of Yorktown

The Siege of Yorktown or the surrender of Yorktown in 1781 was an important battle in the American Revolution. It refers to the victory of the American forces made possible by a combined attack over the British army by the French forces led by Comte de Rochambeau and the American forces led by General George Washington. The assault on the British army forced Cornwallis to surrender and end the conflict.

Economy of France affected

The Treaty of Paris, signed in September 1783, ended the war between Britain and the United States of America. It was signed jointly by Great Britain, France, and Spain. The French forces had spent a lot of money in aid to America, and the national debt swelled to 3.315 billion. It also could not become the main trading partner with America, as it had hoped. This led to public unrest and a disbelief in monarchy, which some believe sowed the seeds for the French Revolution.

The Worldwide influence of American Revolution

The Revolution began in states without inherited rank or position, despite the unsuccessful efforts of the society of the Cincinnati to create such a division. After the Revolution genuinely democratic politics such as those of Matthew Lyon, became possible despite the opposition and dismay of the Federalist Party. The rights of the people were incorporated into state constitutions. Thus came the widespread assertion of liberty, individual rights, equality and hostility towards corruption which would prove the valves of republicanism to Americans. The greatest challenge to the old order in Europe was the challenge to inherited political power and the democratic idea that government rests on the consent of the governed. The examples of the first successful revolution against a European empire provided a model for many other colonial peoples who realized that they too could break away and become self-governing nations.

Morocco was the first country to recognize the independence of the United States of America from the kingdom of Great Britain in 1777. The two countries signed the Moroccan-American Treaty of friendship ten years later. Friesland one of the seven united provinces of Dutch republic, was the next to recognize American independence on February 26, 1782, followed by the Staten-Generaal of the Dutch republic on April 19, 1782. John Adams became the first US Ambassador in The Hague. The American Revolution was the first wave of the Atlantic Revolutions that took hold in the French Revolution, the Haitian Revolution, and the Latin American wars of liberation. Aftershocks reached Ireland in the 1789 rising, in the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth and in the Netherlands.

The Revolution had a strong, immediate impact in Great Britain, Ireland, the Netherlands, and France. Many British and Irish Whigs spoke in favor of the American cause. The Revolution along with the Dutch Revolt (end of the 16th century) and the English civil War (in the 17th century), was one of the first lessons in overthrowing an old regime for many Europeans who later were active during the era of the French Revolution, such as Marquis de Lafayette. The American Declaration of independence had some impact on the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the citizen of 1789.

The North American states new-found independence from the British Empire allowed slavery to continue in the United States until 1865, 32 years after it was banned in all British colonies. It also treated the Native Americans harshly: they had been protected under British rule, but in the newly formed United States, their treaties were torn up, their rights were withdrawn and finally, their lands were taken.



CHAPTER - 3**AMERICAN CIVIL WAR****INTRODUCTION**

The American civil war (1861-1865), also known by several other names, was a civil war between the United States of America (the "Union") and the southern slave states of the newly formed confederation states of America under Jefferson Davis. The Union included all the free states and the five slave holding border states. The union was led by Abraham Lincoln and the Republican Party. The Republican Party opposed the expansion of slavery into territories owned by the United States, and their victory in the presidential election of 1860 resulted in seven southern states declaring their secession from the union even before Lincoln took office. The Union rejected secession and regarded it as rebellion. This conflict initiated the American civil war which threatened the unity and integrity of the United States of America.

The Civil war was the deadliest in American history and it caused 6,20,000 soldier deaths and an undetermined number of civilian casualties. The victory in the war ended slavery in the United States and restored the Union by settling the issues of nullification and secession and strengthened the role of the federal government. The social, political, economic and racial issues of the war continue to shape contemporary American thought.

The Issue of Slavery

A strong correlation was shown between the degree of support for secession and the number of plantations in the region; states of the Deep South which had the greatest concentration of plantations were the first to secede. The upper south slave states of Virginia, North Carolina, Arkansas and Tennessee had fewer plantations and rejected secession until the Fort Sumter crisis forced them to choose sides. Border States had fewer plantations still and never seceded. The percentage of southern whites living in families that owned slaves was 36.7 percent in the lower south, 25.3 percent in the upper south and 15.9 percent in the Border States that fought mostly for the Union. Ninety five percent of blacks lived in the south, comprising the one third of the population there as opposed to one percent of the population of the North. Consequently, fears of eventual emancipation were much greater in the south than in the North.

The Supreme Court decision of 1857 in *Dred Scott V. Sandford* added to the controversy. Chief Justice Roger B. Taney's decision said that slaves were "so far inferior that they had no rights which the white man was bound to respect", and that slavery could spread into the territories. Lincoln warned that "next Dred Scott decision" could threaten Northern states with slavery.

Northern politician Abraham Lincoln said, "this question of slavery was more important than any other; indeed so much more important has it become that no other national question can even get a hearing just at present." The slavery issue was related to sectional competition for control of the territories and the southern demand for a slave code for the territories was the issue used by southern politicians to split the Democratic Party in two, which all but guaranteed the election of Lincoln and secession. When secession was an issue, South Carolina planter and state senator John Pickens said that "our enemies are about to take possession of the Government that they intend to rule us according to the caprices of their fanatical theories and according to the declared purposes of abolishing slavery." Similar opinions were expressed throughout the south in editorials, political speeches and declarations of reasons for secession. Even though Lincoln had no plans to outlaw slavery where it existed, southerners throughout the south expressed fears for the future of slavery.

Southern concerns included not only economic loss but also fears of racial equality. The Texas Declaration of Causes for Secession said that the non-slave holding states were "proclaiming the debasing

doctrine of equality of all men, irrespective of race or color”, and that the African race “were rightfully held and regarded as an inferior and dependent race Alabama secessionist E. S. Dargan said that emancipation would make southerners feel “ demoralized and degraded Beginning in the 1830s, the U.S post master General refused to allow mail which carried abolition pamphlets to the south. Northern teachers suspected of any tinge of abolitionism were expelled from the south and abolitionist literature was banned southerners rejected the denials of Republicans that they were abolitionists. John Brown’s raid on the federal Harpers Ferry Armory greatly increased Southern fears of slave insurrections. The North felt threatened as well for as Eric Foner concludes,” Northerners came to view slavery as the very antithesis of the good society, as well as a threat to their own fundamental values and interests”

Southern Culture

Although only a small share of free southerners owned slaves, southerners of all classes often defended the institution of slavery-threatened by the rise of free labour abolitionist movements in the northern states –as the cornerstone of their social order. Based on a system of plantation slavery the social structure of the south was far more stratified and patriarchal than that of the North. In 1850 there were around 350,000 slave holders in a total free southern population of about six million. Among slave holders, the concentration of slave ownership was unevenly distributed. Perhaps around seven percent of slave holders owned roughly three-quarters of the slave population. The largest slave holders generally owners of large plantations represented the top stratum of southern society. They benefitted from economies of scale and needed large numbers of slaves on big plantation to produce profitable labour- intensive crops like cotton. This plantation –owning elite known as “slave magnates” was comparable to the millionaires of the following century.

In the 1850s, as large plantation owners out –competed smaller farmers, more slaves were owned by fewer planters. Yet while the proportions of the white population consisting of slave holders was on the decline on the eve of the civil war- perhaps falling below around a quarter of free southerners in 1860-poor whites small farmers generally accepted the political leadership of the planter elite.

Several factors helped explain why slavery was not under serious threat of internal collapse from any moves for democratic change initiated from the south. First given the opening of new territories in the west for white settlements, many non-slave owners also perceived a possibility that they too might own slaves at some point in their life.

Second small free farmers in the South often embraced hysterical racism making them unlikely agents for internal democratic reforms into the south. The principle of white supremacy, accepted by almost all white southerners of all classes made slavery seem legitimate natural and essential for a civilized society. White racism in the south was sustained by official systems of repression such as the “slave codes” For example the “slave patrols” were among the institutions bringing together southern whites of all classes in support of the prevailing economic and racial order. Serving as slave “patrollers” and overseers” offered white southerners positions of power and honour. These positions gave even poor white southerners the authority to stop search whip, maim and even kill any slave travelling outside also won prestige in their communities. Policing and punishing blacks who transgressed the regimentation of slave society was a valued community service in the south where the fear of free blacks threatening law and order figured heavily in the public discourse of the period.

Third many small farmers with a few slaves and yeomen were linked to elite planters through the market economy. In many areas , small farmers depended on local planter elites for access to cotton gins, for markets for their feed and live stock, and for loans furthermore whites of varying social castes including poor white and “plain folk” who worked outside or at least in the periphery of the market economy might be linked to elite planters through extensive kinship networks for example a poor white person might be the cousin of the richest aristocrat of his country and share the same militant support of slavery as his richer relatives.

Thus by the 1850s, southern slave holders and non-slaveholder alike felt increasingly encircled psychologically and politically in the national political arena because of the rise of free socialism and abolitionism

in the Northern states. Increasingly dependent on the North for manufacture goods for commercial services and for loans and increasingly cut off from the Nourishing agricultural regions of the North West they faced the prospects of a growing free labour and abolitionist movement in the North.

Militant defense of slavery

With the outcry over development in Kansas strong in the north, defenders of slavery-increasingly committed to a way of life that abolitionists and their sympathizers considered absolute or immoral –shifted to a militant pro-slavery ideology that would lay the groundwork for secession upon the emergence of Abraham Lincoln. Southerners waged a vitriolic response to political change in the North. Slaveholding interests sought to uphold their rights in the territories and to maintain sufficient political strength to repulse “hostile” and “ruinous” legislation. Behind this shift was the growth of the cotton industry which left slavery more important than ever to the southern economy.

Abolitionism

Antislavery movement in the North gained momentum in 1830s and 1840s a period of rapid transformation of Northern society that inspired a social and political reformism. Many of the reformers of the period including abolitionists attempted in one way or another to transform the lifestyle and work habits of labour helping workers respond to the new demands of an industrializing capitalistic society.

Antislavery movement like many other reform movements of the period was influenced by the legacy of the great second Great Awakening a period of religious revival in the new country stressing the reform of individuals. This was still relatively fresh in the American memory. Thus while the reform spirit of the period was expressed by a variety of movements with often-conflicting political goals most reform movements shared a common feature in their emphasis on the Great Awakening principle of transforming the human personality through discipline order and restraint.

“Abolitionist” had several meanings at that time. The followers of William Lloyd Garrison, including Wendell Phillips and Frederick Douglass, demanded the immediate abolition of slavery” hence the name. A more pragmatic group of abolitionists, like Theodore Weld and Arthur Tappan, wanted immediate action but that action might well be a programme of gradual emancipation with a long intermediate stage. “Antislavery men” like John Quincy Adams did what they could to limit slavery and end it where possible but were not part of any additional group. For example in 1841 Adams represented the Amistad African slaves in the supreme court of the United States and argued that they should be set free. In the last years before the war “antislavery” could mean the Northern majority like Abraham Lincoln who opposed expansion of slavery of its influence as by the Kansas Nebraska Act or the fugitive slave Act. Many southerners called all these abolitionists without distinguishing them from the Garrisonians. James McPherson explains the abolitionists’ deep beliefs. “All people were equal in God’s sight the souls of black folks were as valuable as those of whites; for one of God’s children to enslave another was a violation of the Higher Law, even if it was sanctioned by the constitution”.

Stressing the Yankee protestant ideals of self-improvement industry and thrift most abolitionists most notably William Lloyd Garrison –Condemned slavery as a lack of control over one’s own destiny and the fruits of one’s labour.

Abolitionists also attacked slavery as a threat to the freedom of white American. Defining freedom as more than a simple lack of restraint antebellum reformers held that the truly freed man was one who imposed restraints upon himself. Thus for the anti-slavery reformers of the 1830s and 1840s the promise of free labour and upward social mobility was central to the ideal of reforming individuals.

Controversy over the so-called Ostend manifesto which proposed U.S annexation of Cuba as a slave state and the Fugitive slave Act kept sectional tensions alive before the issue of slavery in the west could occupy the country’s politics in the mid –to- late 1850s.

The Origin of the American civil war

The main explanation for the origins of the American civil war was slavery especially the issue of the expansion of slavery into the territories states rights and the tariff issue became entangled in the slavery issue

and were intensified by it other important factors were party politics, expansionism sectionalism economics and modernization in the Antebellum period.

The United States was a nation divided into two distinct regions separated by the Mason-Dixon Line. New England the Northeast and the Midwest had a rapidly growing economy based on family farms, industry mining, commerce and transportation with a large and rapidly growing urban population and no Slavery outside the Border States. Its growth was fed by a high birth rate and large numbers of European immigrants especially Irish, British, German, Polish and Scandinavian.

The south was dominated by a settled plantation system based on slavery with rapid growth taking place in the southwest such a Texas, based on high birth rates and low immigration from Europe. There were few cities or towns, and little manufacturing except in border areas. Slave's owners controlled politics and economics. Two thirds of the southern whites owned no slave and usually were engaged in subsistence agriculture but supped slavery came from all segments of southern society.

Overall the Northern population was growing much more quickly than he southern population, which made it increasingly difficult for the south to continue o control the national government .Southerners were worried about the relative political decline of their region because the North was growing much faster in terms of population and industrial output.

In the interest of maintaining unity, politicians had mostly moderated oppositions to slavery, resulting in numerous compromises such as the Missouri compromise of 1820. After the Mexican, American War the issue of slavery in the new territories led to the compromise of 1850. While the compromise averted and immediate political crisis, it did not permanently resolve the issue of the slave power.

Amid the emergence of increasingly virulent and hostile sectional ideologies in national politics the collapse of the old second party system in the 1850s hampered efforts of the politicians to reach yet one more compromise.

The compromise that was reached (the Kansas-Nebraska Act) outraged too many northerners. In the 1850s, with the rise of the Republican Party, the first major party with no appeal in the south the industrializing north and agrarian Midwest became committed to the economic ethos of free –labour industrial capitalism.

In the 1860s the election of Abraham Lincoln, who won the national election without receiving a single electoral vote from any of the southern states, triggered the secession of the cotton states of the Deep South from the union and their formation of the confederated states of America.

The Missouri Compromise

The Admission of the new state of Missouri as a slave state would give the slave states control over the senate whenever a new state was added to the Union, there was always controversy over whether the state would be slave or free. Since every state has the same number of senators regardless of population the way to prevent conflict between slave and Free states was to allow each section to have the same number of states which would result in each side having the same number of senators. Since the admission f Missouri would upset this balance many national leaders shared Thomas Jefferson's fear of a war over slavery a fear that Jefferson described as "a fire bell in the night" The crisis was solved by the compromise of 1820 which admitted Maine to the Union as a free state at same time that Missouri was admitted as a slave state. The compromise also banned slavery in the Louisiana Purchase territory north and west of the state of Missouri, a compromise that preserved the peace until this ban on slavery was repealed by the Kansas Nebraska Act of 1854.

Antebellum south and the union

There had been a continuing contest between the states and the national government over the power of the latter and over the loyalty of the citizenry-almost since the founding of the republic. The Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions of 1798, for example had Hartford convention. New England voiced its opposition to President James Madison and the war of 1812 and discussed secession from the union.

The Courses of the War

The coexistence of a slave-owning south with an increasingly anti-slavery North made conflict inevitable. Lincoln did not propose federal laws against slavery where it already existed but he had in his 1858 house Divided speech, expressed a desire to “arrest the further spread of it, and place it where the public mind shall rest in the belief that it is in the course of ultimate extinction” Much of the political battle in the 1850s focused on the expansion of slavery into the newly created territories. All of the organized territories were likely to become free-soil states, which increased the southern movement toward secession. Both North and South assumed that if slavery could not expand it would wither and die. Southern feared of losing control of the federal government to antislavery forces and Northern fears that the slave power already controlled the government brought the crisis to a head in the late 1850s. Sectional disagreements over the morality of slavery the scope of democracy and the economic merits of free labour vs. Slave plantations caused the wing and “know Nothing” parties to collapse and new ones to arise.

Both North and South were influenced by the ideas of Thomas Jefferson. Southerners emphasized in connection with slavery the states’ rights ideas mentioned in Jefferson’s Kentucky Resolutions. Northerners ranging from the abolitionist William Lloyd Garrison to the moderate Republican leader Abraham Lincoln emphasized Jefferson’s declaration that all men are created equal. Lincoln mentioned this proposition in Gettysburg Address.

The 1854 Ostend Manifesto was a Southern attempt to take over Cuba as a slave state. Even rival plans for Northern vs. Southern routes for a transcontinental rail road became entangled in the Bleeding Kansas controversy over slavery. The second party system broke down after passage of the Kansas Nebraska Act, in 1854 which replaced the Missouri compromises ban on slavery with popular sovereignty. In 1856 congressional arguments over slavery become violent when Representative Preston Brooks of South Carolina attacked Radical Republican senator Charles Sumner with a cane after Sumner’s crime against Kansas speech. The Dred Scott Decision and Lecompton constitution of 1857 were southern attempts to admit Kansas to the union as a slave state. The Lincoln Douglas debates of 1858. John Brown’s raid in 1859 and the split in the Democratic Party in 1860 polarized the nation between North and South. The election of Lincoln in 1860 was the final trigger for secession. During the secession crisis, many sought compromise. Two of these attempts were the “Crittenden Amendment” and the “Crittenden Compromise” All attempts at compromise failed others factors include sectionalism (caused by the growth of slavery in the Deep South while slavery was gradually phased out in Northern states) and economic differences between North and south although most modern historians disagree with the extremes economic determinism of historian Charles Beard. There was the polarizing effect of slavery that split the largest religious denominations (the Methodist, Baptist and Presbyterian churches) and controversy caused by the worst cruelties of slavery (whippings, mutilation and families split apart.). The fact that seven immigrants out of eight settled in the North plus the fact that twice as many whites left the south for the north as vice versa, contributed to the south’s defensive aggressive political behavior.

Southern secession was triggered by the election of Republican Abraham Lincoln because regional leaders feared that he would stop the expansion of slavery and put it on course toward extinction. Many southerners thought either Lincoln or another Northerner would abolish slavery and that it was time to secede. The slave states which had already become a minority in the House of Representatives were now facing a future as a perpetual minority in the senate and Electoral College against an increasingly powerful North.

Beginning of the secession of South Carolina

South Carolina adopted the “Declaration of the immediate causes which induce and justify the secession of South Carolina from the Federal union on 24 December 1860. It argued for states’ rights for slave owners in the south but contained a complaint about states’ rights in the North in the form of opposition to the Fugitive slave Act, Claiming that Northern states were not fulfilling their federal obligations under the constitution.

At issue were:

- The refusal of Northern states to enforce the fugitive slave code violating southern personal property rights
- Agitation against slavery which “denied the right of property”
- Assisting “thousands of slaves to leave their homes” through the Underground Railroad
- The election of Lincoln “because he has declared that Government cannot endure permanently held that Government cannot endure permanently half slave half free’ and that the public must rest in the belief that slavery is in the course of ultimate extinction”
- “.....Elevating to citizenship persons who by the supreme law of the land, are in capable of becoming citizens” Most Northerners opposed the Dred Scott decision although only a few New England states allowed blacks an equal right to vote.

Secession winter

Before Lincoln took office, seven states had declared their secession from the union. They established a southern government the confederate states of America of 9 February 1861. They took control of federal forts and other properties within their boundaries with little resistance from outgoing President James Buchanan, whose term ended on 4 March 1861, Buchanan asserted, “The south has no right to secede but I have no power to prevent them” one quarter of the U.S army –the entire garrison in Texas –was surrendered to state forces by its commanding general, David E. Twiggs, who then joined the confederacy.

As Southerners resigned their seats in the senate and the House, secession later enabled Republicans to pass bills for projects that had been blocked by southern senators before the war, including the Morrill Tariff land grant colleges (the Morrill Act) a Homestead Act, a trans-continental railroad (the Pacific Railways acts) The National banking act and the authorization of United States notes by the Legal Tender act of 1862. The Revenue Act of 1861 introduced the income tax to help finance the war.

The Confederacy

Even Deep South cotton states seceded by February 1861. Starting with South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana and Texas. These seven states formed the confederate states of America (4 February 1861) with Jefferson Davis as president and a governmental structure closely modeled on the U.S constitution within two months of the first shots at Fort Sumter, four more slave states seceded and joined the confederacy Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina and Tennessee. The north-western portion of Virginia subsequently seceded from Virginia joining the Union as the new state of West Virginia on 20 June 1863.

The union states

Twenty-three states remained loyal to the Union: California Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont and Wisconsin. During the war, Nevada and West Virginia joined as new states of the union. Tennessee and Louisiana were returned to union control early in the war.

The territories of Colorado, Dakota, Nebraska, Nevada New Mexico, Utah and Washington fought to the union side. Several slave-holding Native American tribes supported the confederacy giving the Indian Territory (now Oklahoma) a small bloody civil war.

The Border States

The Border States in the Union were West Virginia (which was separated from Virginia and became a new state). And four of the five northernmost slave states (Maryland Delaware, Missouri and Kentucky) Maryland had numerous Pro- Confederate officials who tolerated anti-union rioting in Baltimore and the burning of bridges. Lincoln responded with martial law and called for troops. Militia units that had been drilling in the

North rushed toward Washington and Baltimore. Before the confederate government realized what was happening, Lincoln had seized firm control of Maryland (and the separate District of Columbia) by arresting all the Maryland government members and holding them without trial.

In Missouri, an elected convention on secession voted decisively to remain within the union. When pro-confederate Governor Claiborne F Jackson called out the state militia, it was attacked by federal forces under General Nathaniel Lyon who chased the governor and the rest of the state Guard to the south-western corner of the state. In the resulting vacuum, the convention on secession reconvened and took power as the unionist provisional government of Missouri.

Kentucky did not secede; for a time it declared itself neutral however the confederates broke the neutrality by seizing column bus, Kentucky in September 1861. That turned opinion against the confederacy and the state reaffirmed its loyal status while trying to maintain Slavery. During a brief invasion by confederate forces, Confederate Sympathizers organized a secession convention inaugurated a governor and gained recognition from the confederacy. The rebel government soon went into exile and never controlled the state.

After Virginia's 1861 declaration of secession from the U.S, Union Supporters in fifty counties of north-western Virginia voted on October 24, 1861 to approve the creation of the new state of West Virginia. The majority of the voters in what was to become West Virginia had voted against Virginia secession, although twenty six of the fifty counties had pro-secession majorities about half of West Virginia's soldiers were confederate this new state was admitted to the union on 20 June 1863.

Similar Unionist Secessions attempts appeared in East Tennessee, but were suppressed by the confederacy. Jefferson David arrested over 3000 men suspected of being loyal to the union and held them without trial.

Beginning of the War

Lincoln's victory in the presidential election of 1860 triggered South Carolina's declaration of secession from the union, By February 1861. Six more southern states made similar declarations. On February 7th the seven states adopted a provisional constitution for the confederate states of America and established their temporary capital at Montgomery, Alabama A pre-war February peace conference of 1861 met in Washington in a failed attempt at resolving the crisis. The remaining eight slave states rejected pleas to Join the Confederacy confederate forces seized most of the federal forts within their boundaries (they did not take fort Sumter); president Buchanan Protested but made no military response aside from a failed attempt to re-supply Fort Sumter via the ship star of the west (the ship was fired upon by citadel cadets) and no serious military weapons an training militia units.

On 4 March 1861, Abraham Lincoln was sworn in as president. In his inaugural address, he argued that the constitution was a more perfect union than the earlier Articles of confederation and perpetual union, that it was a binding contract and called any secession "legally void" He started he had no intent to invade southern states, nor did he intend to end slavery where it existed but that he would use force to maintain possession of Federal property .His speech closed with a plea for restoration of the bonds of union.

Fort Sumter in Charleston South Carolina fort more Fort Pickens and fort Taylor were the remaining Union held Forts in the confederacy, and Lincoln was determined to hold fort Sumter. Under orders from confederate President Jefferson Davis, troops controlled by the confederate government under P.G.T Beauregard Bombarded the fort with artillery on April 12, forcing the fort's capitulation Northerners rallied behind Lincoln's call for all of the states to send troops to recapture the forts and to preserve the Union with the scale of the rebellion apparently small so far Lincoln called for 75,000 volunteers for 90 days. For months before that, several Northern Governors had discreetly readied their state militia; they began to move forces the next day.

Four states in the Upper south (Tennessee, Arkansas North Carolina and Virginia) which had repeatedly rejected confederate overtures now refused to send Forces against their neighbors declared their secession and joined the confederacy. To reward Virginia, the confederate capital was moved to Richmond. The city was the symbol of the confederacy; if it fell the new nation would lose legitimacy. Richmond was in a highly vulnerable location at the end of a tortuous confederate supply line. Although Richmond was in heavily

fortified Supplies for the city would be reduced by Sherman's capture of Atlanta and cut off almost entirely when Grant besieged Petersburg and its railroads that supplied the southern capital.

End of the War 1864-65

The army of the Union had its Head quarters in the Potomac and Maj. Gen William Tecumseh Sherman was the in commander of the army. Grant understood the concept of total only the utter defeat of confederate forces and their economic base would bring an end to the war. This was total war not in terms of killing civilians but rather in terms of destroying homes farms and railroad tracks. Grant devised a coordinated strategy that would strike at the entire confederacy from multiple directions.

Union forces in the East attempted to maneuver past Lee and fought several battles during that phase ("Grant's overland campaign") of the Eastern campaign. Grant's battles of attrition at the wilderness Spotsylvania and Cold Harbor resulted in heavy Union losses, but forced Lee's confederates to fall back again and again. An attempt to out flank Lee from the South failed under Butler, who was trapped inside the Bermuda Hundred river bend. Grant was tenacious and despite astonishing losses (over 65,000 casualties in seven weeks) kept pressing Lee's army of Northern Virginia back to Richmond. He pinned down the confederate army in the siege of Petersburg where the two armies engaged in trench warfare for over nine months. Grant finally found a commander, General Phillip Sheridan, aggressive enough to prevail in the Valley Campaigns of 1864. Sheridan defeated Maj. Gen. Jubal A. Early in a series of battles, including a final decisive defeat at the Battle of Cedar Creek. Sheridan then proceeded to destroy the agricultural base of the Shenandoah Valley, a strategy similar to the tactics Sherman later employed in Georgia.

Meanwhile, Sherman marched from Chattanooga to Atlanta, defeating confederate Generals Joseph E. Johnston and John Bell Hood along the way. The fall of Atlanta on 2 September 1864 was a significant factor in the re-election of Lincoln as president. Hood left the Atlanta area to menace Sherman's supply lines and invade Tennessee in the Franklin-Nashville Campaign. Union Maj. Gen. John M. Schofield defeated Hood at the Battle of Franklin and George H. Thomas dealt Hood a massive defeat at the battle of Nashville, effectively destroying Hood's army.

Lee surrendered his Army of Northern Virginia on April 4, 1865 at Appomattox Court House. In an untraditional gesture and as a sign of Grant's respect and anticipation of folding the confederacy back into the Union with dignity and peace, Lee was permitted to keep his office sabre and his horse, Traveller. Johnston surrendered his troops to Sherman on 26 April 1865, in Durham, North Carolina. On 23 June 1865 at Fort Towson in the Choctaw Nations area of the Oklahoma Territory, Stand Watie signed a ceasefire agreement with Union representatives becoming the last confederate general in the field to stand down. The last confederate naval force to surrender was the CSS Shenandoah on 4 November 1865 in Liverpool, England.

Results

Northern leaders agreed that victory would require more than the end of fighting. It had to encompass the two war goals; secession had to be totally repudiated and all forms of slavery had to be eliminated. They disagreed sharply on the criteria for these goals. They also disagreed on the degree of federal control that should be imposed on the South, and the process by which Southern states should be reintegrated into the Union.

All the slaves in the confederacy were freed by the Emancipation Proclamation which stipulated that slaves in Confederate-held areas but not in Border States or in Washington, D.C. were free. Slaves in the Border States and Union-controlled parts of the South were freed by state action or by the Thirteenth Amendment although slavery effectively ended in the U.S. in the spring of 1865. The full restoration of the Union was the work of a highly contentious post-war era known as Reconstruction.

Reconstruction, which began early in the war and ended in 1877, involved a complex and rapidly changing series of federal and state policies. The long-term result came in the three 'Civil War' amendments to the Constitution: the Thirteenth Amendment which abolished slavery, the Fourteenth Amendment which extended federal legal protections equally to citizens regardless of race, and the Fifteenth Amendment which abolished racial restrictions on voting.



CHAPTER - 4**FRENCH REVOLUTION**

“The French Revolution was equally a struggle of weapons as well as of ideas. Freedom, equality and Fraternity are the eternal contributions of this Revolution and Napoleon can be called its product.”

The French Revolution is not merely an event of history; it is a living legend. It was a unique battle which was fought many times, for example, in 1830, 1848 and 1870. Perhaps no other topic has been discussed in history as the French Revolution. Neither so much sympathy nor so much resentment has ever been expressed for any other event of the world. Among the revolutions of modern age, the French Revolution has left immense influence on history and the world.

The French Revolution was brewing while the War of American Independence was being fought. Conditions in France were vastly different from those in the New World, but many of the same revolutionary ideas were at work. The French Revolution, however, was more world-shaking than the American. It became a widespread upheaval over which no one could remain neutral.

The French Revolution created such a condition that the old political system crumbled. The period from 1789 to 1815 has been summed up in four words—revolution, war, tyranny and empire. The material despotism generated Napoleon’s caesarean ambitions which culminated in the establishment of a vast empire. Generally, the beginning of the revolution is considered in 1789. Various events which occurred between 1787 and 1799 as a result of many causes accounted for the beginning and extension of the revolution. The causes of the revolution existed in the same system (ancient regime).

Political Set-up

Ancient Regime (Old Order): In order to understand the factors that were responsible for the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789, it is important to examine the conditions and institutions that existed in France prior to the Revolution. These conditions and institutions were collectively known as the Ancient Regime. Ancient Regime means Old Rule or Old Order in French language. In English the term refers primarily to the political and social system that was established in France under the Valois and Bourbon dynasties. More generally it means any regime which includes the defining features such as: a feudal system under the control of a powerful absolute monarchy supported by the doctrine of the Divine Right of Kings and the explicit consent of the established Church. This was how Europe had been organized since at least the eighth century. The term Ancient Regime is from The Age of Enlightenment (first appeared in print in English in 1794). Similar to other sweeping criticisms of the past, such as the term Dark Ages, the concept of Ancient Regime was used as an expression of disapproval for the way things were done, and carried an implied approval of a New Order. No one alive during the Ancient regime considered himself as living under an Old Order. The term was created by Enlightenment era authors to promote a new cause and discredit the existing order. As defined by the creators of the term, the Ancient Regime developed out of the French monarchy of the Middle Ages, and was swept away centuries later by the French Revolution of 1789. Europe’s other Ancient Regimes had similar origins, but diverse ends; some gradually became constitutional monarchies, others were turn down by wars and revolutions. Power in the Ancient Regime relied on three pillars: the monarchy, the clergy and the aristocracy. Society was divided into three classes known as estates: the clergy, the nobility and the commoners.

Royal Absolutism

The politico-social system which existed in France throughout the rule of the Valois and Bourbon dynasties was half way between feudalism and modernity. France was ruled by a powerful absolute monarch who

relied on the doctrine of the Divine Right of Kings. The absolute monarchy had the explicit support of the established Church. This period in the history of France is often said to have begun with the French renaissance during the reign of Francis I (1515-1547), and to have reached its peak under Louis XIV (1643-1715). As the Italian Renaissance began to fade, France became the cultural capital of Europe. Eventually, however, financial difficulties and excesses of the rulers led to the decline and eventual collapse of the monarchy by the end of the eighteenth century. The system of Ancient Regime culminated in the monarch, the lofty and glittering head of the state. The king claimed to rule by the will of God and not by the consent of the people (Theory of the Divine Right of Kings). Thus, the kings claimed to be responsible to no one but God. The French Kings ruled in an absolute manner. They exercised unlimited powers. They were the chief legislators, executive and dispensers of justice. They imposed taxes and spent they wished. They denied certain basic rights to their subjects. Heavy censorship denied freedom of speech and press. Arbitrary arrest, imprisonment, exile or even execution was the hallmarks of the royal absolutism in France.

Nature of the Bourbon Rulers

The Bourbon dynasty ruled France for about two centuries from 1589 to 1792. France attained the height of glory under Louis XIV. He was known as the 'Grand Monarch' and 'Sun King'. He believed in the divine sanction of absolutism. He used to say "I am the State". Further he claimed: "The sovereign authority is vested in my person, the legislative powers exist in myself alone...My people are one only with me; national rights and national interests are necessarily combined with my own and only rest in my hands. In order to manifest his power and glory, Louis XIV led the nation in dangerous and expensive wars against his neighbors and undertook construction of magnificent buildings to beautify the capital city of Paris. Thus, his expensive wars and lavish style of living weakened France financially as well as politically. More than any other construction of the age, the Palace of Versailles, built by Louis XIV embodied the spirit of absolute monarchy. The magnificent halls, ornate rooms and beautiful gardens surrounding the royal residence added to the grandeur of the Versailles Palace. The aristocracy of France assembled day and night to do homage to the great ruler of France. The court of Versailles which dazzled Europe was comprised of 18,000 people. Out of these 16,000 were attached to the personal service of the king and his family and 2,000 were the courtiers, the favored guests and nobles. Yet, Versailles which symbolized the glory of the Ancient Regime was also the mark of its decline. Its cost to the French nation was too much. Besides, it created a barrier between monarchy and its subjects. Louis XIV, the Grand Monarch left a legacy of financial bankruptcy for his successors. Louis XV (1715-1774) succeeded his great grandfather at the age of five. The first part of the long reign of 59 years falls into the period of Regency (1715-1723) during which period his great uncle, the Duke of Orleans ruled in his name. The confusion and disorder of the Regency was followed by almost two decades of orderly rule and material prosperity under the leadership of the aged Cardinal Fleury (1723-1743). From 1743 until his death in 1774, Louis XV tried to exercise direct control over the government which ultimately led to the instability of the monarchy. Louis XV displayed an apathy and indifference to the affairs of the state. He was concerned primarily with the pursuit of pleasure and all his life he sought to escape from boredom. Thus, he tried to seek happiness in mad and vicious rounds of pleasure, in hunting, in gambling, in lust, in moving his court from one palace to another, in gratifying the whims and fancies of his numerous mistresses and favorites. For more than thirty years Louis XV continued through his shameful policies the worst features of the Ancient Regime. He also followed a disastrous foreign policy that culminated in the humiliation of the Seven years War (1756-63). His government became increasingly inefficient which was controlled by his mistresses. His enormous court incurred heavy expenditure on the state treasury. All these developments opened the gates of the deluge that swept over France. Louis XV escaped the disaster. However, he could not prevent the progress of new political and social philosophy that repudiated the theory and practice of the irresponsible and arbitrary royal absolutism. The Austrian ambassador at Paris, Comte de Mercy writing to Empress Marie Theresa outlined the conditions in France at the end of Louis XV's reign in these words: "At court, there is nothing but confusion, scandals and injustice. No attempt has been made to carry out good principles of government; everything has been left to chance; the shameful state of the nation's affairs has caused unspeakable disgust and discouragement, while intrigues of those who remain on

the scene only increase the disorder. Sacred duties have been left undone and infamous behavior tolerated. The reign of Louis XV ended in 1774 with his death. To his successor he left a heritage of military defeat, financial bankruptcy, parliamentary opposition and intellectual resistance to the existing political and social regime. According to Dr. G.P. Gooch, "The legacy of Louis XV to his countrymen was an ill-governed, discontented, frustrated France. Viewed from a distance, the Ancient Regime appeared as solid as the Bastille, but its walls were crumbling for lack of repairs and the foundations showed signs of giving way. The absolute monarchy, the privileged nobles, the intolerant church, the close corporation parliaments, had all become unpopular, and the army once the glory of France, was tarnished by the rout at Rossbach. Though there was little thought of republicanism, the mystique of monarchy had almost evaporated. In 1774, following the death of Louis XV, his grandson, Louis XVI (1774-93) became the king of France at the age of twenty. The new king was an honest and energetic young man who tried to attend to the state affairs. But he tried to avoid difficulties and lacked the capacity to enforce his own judgment. His irresolution made him a blind follower of his advisors, particularly his Queen Marie Antoinette. She was the daughter of Marie Theresa, Empress of Austro-Hungarian Empire. Marie Antoinette was beautiful, gracious and vivacious. She had a strong will, a power of quick decision and a spirit of initiative. However, she lacked in wisdom and breadth of judgment. She did not understand the temperament of the French people and the spirit of the times. Being born in a royal family she could not understand the point of view of the underprivileged. She was extravagant, proud, willful, impatient and fond of pleasure. She was the centre of a group of greedy persons, who were opposed to all reforms. She excelled in intrigues and was responsible for the many sufferings that befell both the ruler and the ruled during the closing years of the eighteenth century.

Inefficient and Corrupt Administrative System

Under Louis XV and Louis XVI, the French administrative system became thoroughly inefficient and corrupt. The king was the head of the state and the head of the administrative structure. He had the authority to appoint ministers and other administrative officials. Ministers were appointed on the basis of their noble birth or favoritism and not because of ability or merit. This led inefficiency and corruption in the administration. Various departments of the administration had ill-defined and overlapping jurisdictions. At different times France had been divided into districts under bailiffs, into provinces under governors, into intendancies under intendants. Besides, there were judicial, educational and ecclesiastic districts. The conflict of jurisdiction added to the difficulties and problems of the people. Prior to the Revolution of 1789, France was divided into 34 Intendancies. These Intendancies were placed under Intendants. They were selected at first from the ranks of the bourgeois. They were made an integral part of the machinery of the local government. These Intendants possessed great authority. They had the right to administer justice in all Royal Courts. They verified accounts of their subordinate financial administrators. They also attended to the assessment and levy of direct taxes. They controlled movement of the army, organized regular recruitment for the army and directed the Municipal police. The Intendants received their authority directly from the Councils. Legally, the Councils and the Ministers had only an advisory capacity. They were responsible only to the King. There was neither a representative assembly nor a written constitution to limit the authority of the administrators. Conflict of jurisdiction and rivalries among the administrators, the absence of an executive head in their own midst to formulate long-term policies and projects, overlapping non-differentiated departments and tradition of graft and irresponsible, high-handed procedures taxed the patience of even the most conscious and determined servant of the state. According to the absolutist theory, all justice in France came from the Monarch, whose officials administered it in his name in the many Royal Courts of Justice, which were established throughout the country. However, the legal system in France was full of confusion. There was no uniform law for the whole country. Different laws were in force in different part of the country. It was estimated that there were as many as 400 different systems of law in the country. The laws were written in Latin, and thus, they were beyond the comprehension of the common people. The laws were cruel and unjust. Severe punishments were prescribed for ordinary offences. There was no regular criminal procedure. Arbitrary arrest and imprisonment were common. Any influential person could get a letter of cachet issued against the person whom he wanted to punish and the person concerned could be detained in prison for an

indefinite period without any trial. There were royal courts, military courts, church courts and courts of finance. Their overlapping jurisdiction added to the confusion and injustice. Thus, the common people in France suffered due to lack of uniform laws and arbitrary administration of justice. There was no guarantee of personal liberty. The French Kings ruled France without summoning the legislature known as the Estates General since 1614. Louis XIV even abolished the parliament of Paris. The French parliaments were high courts of great antiquity. They had the power to review the judgments given in the inferior courts. Towards the end of the eighteenth century, there were thirteen such parliaments in France. Each parliament consisted of rich magistrates whose office had become hereditary in course of time. Parliaments claimed and exercised certain political powers. They had the right of registering royal edicts and ordinances. They could defer the registration and thereby bring pressure on the King. In 1771, Louis XV abolished these parliaments. But they were revived by Louis XVI in 1774.

Social Condition in the 18th Century France

The social conditions in France on the eve of the French Revolution of 1789 were antiquated, irrational and oppressive. The French society was based upon the principle of inequality. The French society comprising of around 25 million people was divided into three classes also known as the estates. The clergy constituted the first estate, the nobility, the second estate and the commoners, the third estate.

- To understand how and why the French Revolution occurred, we have to understand French society of that time. We have to realize also that conditions in France were no worse than the conditions that existed in other parts of Europe.
- Autocratic, extravagant rulers, privileged nobles and clergy, landless peasants, jobless workers, unequal taxation—the list of hardships endured by the common people is a very long one.
- France was a strong and powerful state in the 18th century. She had seized vast territories in North America, islands in the West Indies. However, despite its outward strength, the French monarchy was facing a crisis which was to lead to its destruction.

First and Second Estate

French society was divided into classes, or estates. There were two privileged classes

Privileged class	Also known as	Population
Clergy	First estate	1.3 lakh clerics
Nobility	Second estate	80 thousand families

- People in these two classes were **exempted from almost all taxes!**
- They controlled most of the administrative posts and all the high-ranking posts in the army.
- In a population of 25,000,000 people, these two classes together owned about 40 per cent of the total land of France. Their incomes came primarily from their, large land-holdings.
- A minority of these also depended on pensions and gifts from the king. They considered it beneath their dignity to trade or to be engaged in manufacture or to do any work.
- The life of the nobility was everywhere characterized by extravagance and luxury. There were, of course, poorer sections in these two top estates. They were discontented and blamed the richer members of their class for their misery.

Third Estate

The rest of the people of France were called the Third Estate. They were the common people and numbered about 95 per cent of the total population. People of the Third Estate were the unprivileged people. However, there were many differences in their wealth and style of living.

The Peasant

- The largest section of 'the Third Estate consisted of the peasants, almost 80 per cent of the total population of France. The lives of this vast class were wretched. Most of the peasants were free, unlike the serfs in the Middle Ages, and unlike the serfs in eastern Europe in the 18th century. Many owned their own lands. But a great majority of the French peasants were landless or had very small holdings.
- They could earn hardly enough for subsistence. The plight of the tenants and share-croppers was worse. After rents, the peasant's share was reduced to one-third or one-fourth of what he produced. The people who worked on land for wages lived on even less.
- Certain changes in agriculture in the 18th century France further worsened the condition of the peasant. He could no longer take wood from the forests or graze his flocks on uncultivated land. The burden of taxation was intolerable. Besides taxes, there was also '*forced labour*' which had been a feudal privilege of the lord and which was more and more resorted to for public works. There were taxes for local roads and bridges, the church, and other needs of the community. A bad harvest under these conditions inevitably led to starvation and unrest.

The Middle Class

- Not all the people belonging to the Third Estate worked on the land. There were the artisans, workers and poor people living in towns and cities. Then there was the middle class or the bourgeoisie.
- This class consisted of the educated people— writers, doctors, judges, lawyers, teachers, civil servants— and the richer people who were merchants, bankers, and manufacturers.
- Economically, this class was the most important one. It was the forerunner of the builders of the industries which were to transform economic and social life in the 19th century.
- The merchant-business groups, though new in history, had grown very important and rich, helped by the trade with French colonies in America.
- Since these people had money, the state, the clergy and the nobility were indebted to them. However, the middle class had no political rights. It had no social status, and its members had to suffer many humiliations.

The Artisans and City Workers

- The condition of the city poor—workers and artisans—were inhuman in the 18th-century France. They were looked upon as inferior creatures without any rights.
- No worker could leave his job for another without the employer's consent and a certificate of good conduct.
- Workers not having a certificate could be arrested. They had to toil for long hours from early morning till late at night.
- They, too, paid heavy taxes. The oppressed workers formed many secret societies and often resorted to strikes and rebellion.
- This group was to become the mainstay of the French Revolution, and the city of Paris with a population of more than 500,000 was to play an important part in it. In this number was an army of rebels, waiting for an opportunity to strike at the old order.

The Monarchy

- At the head of the French state stood the king, an absolute monarch. Louis XVI was the king of France when the revolution broke out.

- He was a man of mediocre intelligence, obstinate and indifferent to the work of the government. Brain work, it is said, depressed him.
- His beautiful but 'empty-headed' wife, **Marie Antoinette**, squandered money on festivities and interfered in state appointments in order to promote her favorites. Louis, too, showered favors and pensions upon his friends.
- The state was always faced by financial troubles as one would expect. Keeping huge armies and waging wars made matters worse. Finally, it brought the state to bankruptcy.

The Intellectual Movement

Discontent or even wretchedness is not enough to make a successful revolution. Someone must help the discontented to focus on an 'enemy' and provide ideals to fight for. In other words, revolutionary thinking and ideas must precede revolutionary action. France in the 18th century had many revolutionary thinkers. Without the ideas spread by these philosophers, the French Revolution would simply have been an outbreak of violence.

Rationalism: the Age of Reason

- Because of the ideas expressed by the French intellectuals, the 18th century has been called the Age of Reason. Christianity had taught that man was born to suffer.
- The French revolutionary philosophers asserted that man was born to be happy. They believed that man can attain happiness if reason is allowed to destroy prejudice and reform man's institutions.
- They either denied the existence of God or ignored Him. In place of God they asserted the doctrine of 'Nature' and the need to understand its laws.
- They urged faith in reason. The power of reason alone, they said, was sufficient to build a perfect society.

Attack on the Clergy

- The clergy were the first to feel the brunt of the French philosophers. A long series of scientific advances dating from the Renaissance helped in their campaign against the clergy.
- **Voltaire**, one of the most famous French writers of the time, though not an atheist, believed all religions absurd and contrary to reason.
- After Voltaire, other philosophers, atheists and materialists, gained popularity. They believed that man's destiny lay in this world rather than in heaven.
- Writings attacking religion fed the fires of revolution because the Church gave support to autocratic monarchy and the old order.

Physiocrats and laissez Fair

- The French economists of the time were called 'physiocrats'. They believed in "Laissez faire".
- According to this theory, a person must be left free to manage and dispose of his property in the way he thinks best. Like the English and American revolutionaries before them, the physiocrats said that taxes should be imposed only with the consent of those on whom they were levied. These ideas were a direct denial of the privileges and feudal rights that protected the upper classes.

Democracy: Jean Jacques Rousseau

- The philosopher-writer, **Montesquieu**, thought about the kind of government that is best suited to man and outlined the principles of constitutional monarchy.

- However, it was **Jean Jacques Rousseau** who asserted the doctrine of popular sovereignty and democracy. He said, '*Man is born free, yet everywhere he is in chains.*' He talked of the 'state of nature' when man was free, and said that *freedom was lost following the emergence of property*.
- He recognized property in modern societies as a 'necessary evil'.
- What was needed, said Rousseau, was a new '**social contract**' to guarantee the freedom, equality and happiness which man had enjoyed in the state of nature.
- Rousseau's theories also contained a principle that had been written into the American Declaration of Independence: no political system can maintain itself without the **consent of the governed**.

Outbreak of the Revolution

- In 1789, Louis XVI's need for money compelled him to agree to a meeting of the States General—the old feudal assembly. Louis wanted to obtain its consent for new loans and taxes. All three Estates were represented in it but each one held a separate meeting.
- On 17 June 1789, members of the Third Estate, claiming to represent 96 per cent of the nation's population, declared themselves the National Assembly.
- On 20 June, they found their meeting-hall occupied by royal guards but, determined to meet, they moved to the nearby royal tennis court to work out a constitution.
- Louis then made preparations to break up the Assembly. Troops were called: rumors spread that leading members of the Assembly would soon be arrested. This enraged the people, who began to gather in their thousands.
- They were soon joined by the guards. They surrounded the **Bastille**, a state prison,
- On 14 July. After a four-hour siege, they broke open the doors, freeing all the prisoners. The **fall of the Bastille** symbolized the fall of autocracy. July 14 is celebrated every year as a national holiday in France.

After fall of Bastille

- After 14 July 1789, Louis XVI was king only in name. The National Assembly began to enact laws.
- Following the fall of the Bastille, the revolt spread to other towns and cities and finally into the countryside. The National Assembly adopted the famous Declaration of the **Rights of Man and Citizen**. It specified the equality of all men before the law, eligibility of all citizens for all public offices, freedom from arrest or punishment without proven cause, freedom of speech and freedom of the press.
- Most important of all, to the middle class, it required equitable distribution of the burdens of taxation and rights of private property.
- The revolutionary importance of this declaration for Europe cannot be overestimated. Every government in Europe was based on privilege. If these ideas were applied, the entire old order of Europe would be destroyed.

War and End of Monopoly

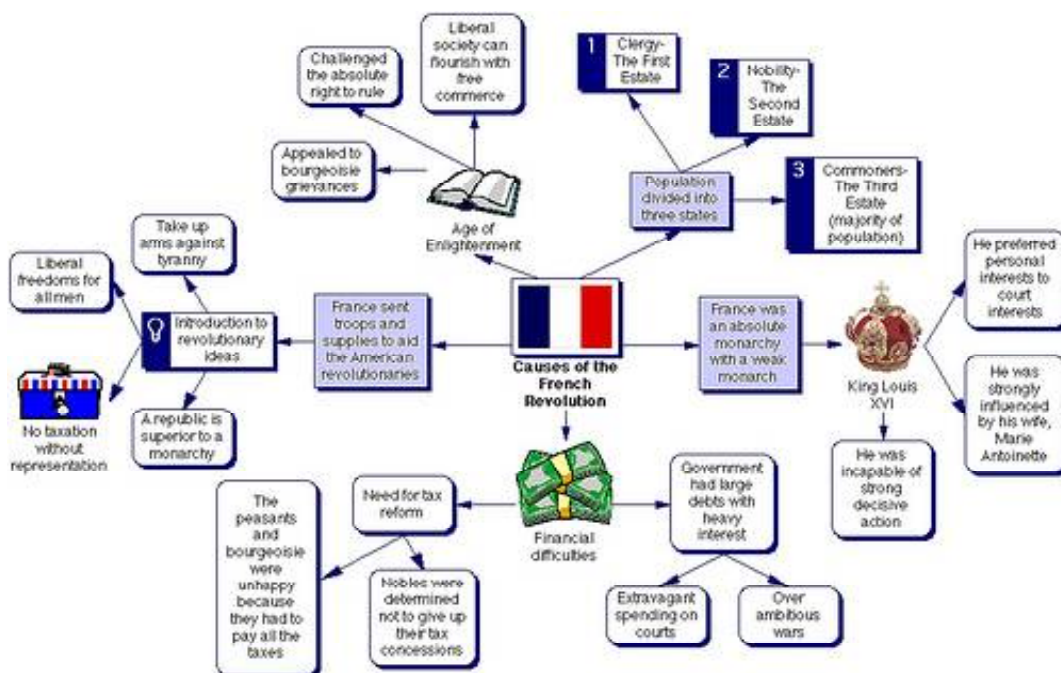
- The people of France were soon involved in a war to defend the Revolution and the nation. Many nobles and clerics fled the country and encouraged foreign governments to intervene in

France against the Revolution. The king and queen tried to escape from France in disguise but they were recognized and brought back as captives and traitors.

- The old National Assembly was replaced by a Legislative Assembly. This Assembly took over the property of those people who had fled. It sent word to the Austrian emperor, who was mobilizing support against France to renounce every treaty directed against the French nation. When the emperor refused, the Legislative Assembly declared war.
- Soon France was fighting Austria, Prussia, and Savoy in Italy. The three were supported by an army of the French exiles.
- France had destroyed feudalism and monarchy and founded new institutions based on liberty and equality, whereas in these countries the old way of life remained. The commander-in-chief of the Austro-Prussian forces stated that the aim was to suppress anarchy in France and to restore the king's authority. The French revolutionaries replied by offering 'fraternity and assistance' to all people wishing to destroy the old order in their countries.
- The king and queen were tried and executed in 1793. This was followed by a declaration of war against Britain, Holland, Spain and Hungary.
- Then, a radical group, the **Jacobins**, believing in direct democracy, came to power. Fearing that the Revolution was in danger, this group took to strong measures to crush forces inimical to the Revolution. In 14 months, some 17,000 people, including those who were innocent, were tried and executed. Some people have called it the "**Reign of Terror**". Later, a new constitution was drawn up. But the army became increasingly powerful and this led to the rise of Napoleon, who was soon to declare himself Emperor of the French Republic.

Napoleonic Wars

- From 1792 to 1815, France was engaged in war almost continuously. It was a war between France and other states. Some historians have termed it as an international civil war because it was fought between revolutionary France and countries upholding the old order. In this war, France was alone.
- However, until Napoleon became emperor, almost every enlightened person in the world sympathized with the French Revolution.
- Between 1793 and 1796 French armies conquered almost all of Western Europe. When Napoleon pressed on to Malta, Egypt and Syria (1797-99), the French were ousted from Italy.
- After Napoleon seized power, France recovered the territories she had lost and defeated Austria in 1805, Prussia in 1806, and Russia in 1807. On the sea the French could not score against the stronger British navy.
- Finally, an alliance of almost all Europe defeated France at Leipzig in 1813. These allied forces later occupied Paris, and Napoleon was defeated. His attempt at recovery was foiled at the **battle of Waterloo** in June 1815. The peace settlement, which involved all Europe, took place at the Congress of Vienna.
- After the defeat of Napoleon, the old ruling dynasty of France was restored to power.
- However, within a few years, in 1830, there was another outbreak of revolution.
- In 1848, the monarchy was again overthrown though it soon reappeared.
- Finally, in 1871, the Republic was again proclaimed.



Mindmap of French Revolution

Consequences of the Revolution

1. A major result of the Revolution was the **destruction of feudalism** in France. All the laws of the old feudal regime were annulled. Church lands and lands held in common by the community were bought by the middle classes. The lands of nobles were confiscated. Privileged classes were abolished.
2. After Napoleon seized power. The **Napoleonic Code** was introduced. Many elements of this Code remained in force for a long time; some of them exist even to this day.
3. Another lasting result of the Revolution in France was the building up of a new economic system in place of the feudal system which had been overthrown. This system was **capitalism**. Even the restored monarchy could not bring back the feudal system or destroy the new economic institutions that had come into being.
4. The French Revolution **gave the term 'nation'** its modern meaning. A nation is not the territory that the people belonging to it inhabit but the people themselves. France was not merely the territories known as France but the 'French people'.
5. From this followed the **idea of sovereignty**, that a nation recognizes no law or authority above its own. And if a nation is sovereign, that means the people constituting the nation are the source of all power and authority. There cannot be any rulers above the people, only a republic in which the government derives its authority from the people and is answerable to the people. It is interesting to remember that when Napoleon became emperor he called himself the '*Emperor of the French Republic*'. Such was the strength of the idea of people's sovereignty.
6. It was this idea of the people being the sovereign that gave France her **military strength**. The entire nation was united behind the army which consisted of revolutionary citizens. In a war in which almost all of Europe was ranged against France, she would have had no chance with just a mercenary army.

7. Under the **Jacobin constitution**, all people were given the **right to vote** and the right of insurrection. The constitution stated that the government must provide the people with work or livelihood. The happiness of all was proclaimed as the aim of government. Though it was never really put into effect, it was the first genuinely democratic constitution in history.
8. The government **abolished slavery** in the French colonies.
9. Napoleon's rise to power was a step backward. However, though he destroyed the Republic and established an empire, the idea of the republic could not be destroyed.
10. The Revolution had come about with the support and blood of common people— the city poor and the peasants. In 1792, for the first time in history, workers, peasants and other non-propertied classes were given **equal political rights**.
11. Although the right to vote and elect representatives did not solve the problems of the common people. The peasants got their lands. But to the workers and artisans— the people who were the backbone of the revolutionary movement—the Revolution did not bring real equality. To them, real equality could come only with economic equality.
12. France soon became one of the first countries where the ideas of social equality, of socialism, gave rise to a new kind of political movement.

Impact of French Revolution on the World

- The French Revolution had been a world-shaking event. For years to come its direct influence was felt in many parts of the world. It inspired revolutionary movements in almost every country of Europe and in South and Central America.
- For a long time the French Revolution became the classic example of a revolution which people of many nations tried to emulate.
- The impact of the French Revolution can be summed up, in the words of T. Kolokotronis, one of the revolutionary fighters in the Greek war of independence: *"According to my judgment, the French Revolution and the doings of Napoleon opened the eyes of the world. The nations knew nothing before, and the people thought that kings were gods upon the earth and that they were bound to say that whatever they did was well done. Through this present change it is more difficult to rule the people."*
- Even though the old ruling dynasty of France had been restored to power in 1815, and the autocratic governments of Europe found themselves safe for the time being, the rulers found it increasingly difficult to rule the people.
- Some of the changes that took place in many parts of Europe and the Americas in the early 19th century were the immediate, direct consequences of the Revolution and the Napoleonic wars.
- The wars in which France was engaged with other European powers had resulted in the French occupation of vast areas of Europe for some time.
- The French soldiers, wherever they went, carried with them ideas of liberty and equality shaking the old feudal order. They destroyed serfdom in areas which came under their occupation and modernized the systems of administration.
- Under Napoleon, the French had become conquerors instead of liberators. The countries which organized popular resistance against the French occupation carried out reforms in their social and political system. The leading powers of Europe did not succeed in restoring the old order either in France or in the countries that the Revolution had reached.
- The political and social systems of the 18th century had received a heavy blow. They were soon to die in most of Europe under the impact of the revolutionary movements that sprang up everywhere in Europe.

Revolution in Central and South America

- The impact of the Revolution was felt on the far away American continent. Revolutionary France had abolished **slavery** in her colonies. The former French colony of **Haiti** became a republic. This was the first republic established by the black people, formerly slaves, in the Americas.
- Inspired by this example, revolutionary movements arose in the Americas to overthrow foreign rule, to abolish slavery and to establish independent republics.
- The chief European imperialist powers in Central and South America were Spain and Portugal. Spain had been occupied by France, and Portugal was involved in a conflict with France.
- During the early 19th century, these two imperialist countries were cut off from their colonies, with the result that most of the Portuguese and Spanish colonies in Central and South America became independent.
- The movements for independence in these countries had earlier been inspired by the successful War of American Independence. The French Revolution ensured their success.
- By the third decade of the 19th century, almost entire **Central and South America had been liberated** from the Spanish and the Portuguese rule and a number of independent republics were established. In these republics slavery was abolished.
- It, however, persisted in the United States for a few more decades where it was finally abolished following the Civil War about which you have read before in this chapter. *Simon Bolivar, Bernardo O'Higgins and San Martin* was the great leaders in South America at this time.



CHAPTER - 5**THE INDUSTRIAL EVOLUTION****THE BEGINNING OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION****Introduction**

The Industrial Revolution refers to the changes in Social and economic organization resulting from the replacement of hand tools by machine and power tools and the development of large-scale industrial production. This term was applied to the development in England from about 1760 and to later changes in other countries.

Starting in the later part of the 18th Century there began a transition in parts of Great Britain's previously manual, labour and draft-animal – based economy towards machine based manufacturing. It started with the mechanization of the textile industries, the development of iron-making techniques and the increased use of refined coal. During the period from The 1760s to the 1820s, Britain experienced an accelerated process of economic change that transformed the agrarian economy into the world's first industrial economy. Since the changes were all embracing and permanent this phenomenon is known as the “industrial revolution”.

The Industrial Revolution began in the United Kingdom initially, Then subsequently spread throughout Europe, North America, and eventually the world. The onset of The Industrial Revolution marked a major turning point in human history; almost every aspect of daily life was eventually influenced in some way. It has been argued by historians Such as Christopher Hill, Eric Hobsbawm and E.P Thompson that the foundations of this process of change can be traced back to the puritan Revolution in the Seventeenth Century.

Industrial Revolution begin in Britain

The issue of the beginning of Industrial Revolution in Britain has remained a topic for debate among the scholars. Some historians believe that The Revolution was an outgrowth of Social and Institutional changes brought by the end of feudalism in Britain after The English Civil war in the 17th Century. As national border controls became more effective, the spread of disease was lessened, Thereby preventing the epidemics common in previous times. The percentage of children who lived post infancy rose significantly, leading to a large workforce.

Typical character of British Society

Great Britain had a larger educated workforce to run the machines and operate manuals. The Enlightenment not only resulted in a larger educated population but also more modern views on work. The population in Great Britain was ready to move out of the country and to the city to work. Britain also had the large middle class and flexible mercantile class necessary for rapid industrial development. English Society, unlike many others, was not opposed to “new money” and as such was eager to accept the new wealthy class and their new ideas.

Social and Political Stability

Britain not only enjoyed complete freedom of trade but also an insular position which saved her from the disastrous consequences of war which ravaged the countries of Europe. This social stability prevailing in England encouraged the people to sectors where they could hope to receive high dividend in future. This in turn led to the adoption of new techniques and promotion of new industries.

Emergence of Machines

Until The 1980s, it was universally believed by academic historians that technological innovation was the heart of the industrial Revolution and the key enabling technology was the invention and improvement of the

steam engine. However, recent research into the marketing Era has challenged the traditional supply –oriented interpretation of the industrial revolution in reality the machines were a secondary cause only because turning out cheap goods in large quantities is useless unless there is a market which must come first than the inventions follow.

A long run of good harvests, starting in the first half of the eighteenth century, resulted in an increase in disposable income and a consequent rising demand for manufactured goods, particularly textiles, The invention of the flying shuttle by John key enabled wider cloth to be woven faster, but also created a demand for yarn that could not be fulfilled- Thus, The major technological advances associated with The industrial revolution were concerned with spinning James Hargreaves Created The spinning Jenny, a device That could perform The work of a number of spinning wheels. However while this invention could be operated by hand, the water frame, invented by Richard Arkwright, could by powered by a water wheel. Indeed, Arkwright is credited with the widespread introduction of the factory system in Britain and is the first example of the successful mill owner and industrialist in British history. The water frame was, however, soon supplanted by the spinning mule (a cross between a water frame on a jenny) invented by Samuel Crompton.

Role of Liberal and Progressive British Polity

Britain's government, a long-time Constitutional monarchy, was just right for the situation. The government was flexible enough to Support. The new system and to a Certain degree accepted Adam smith's Capitalistic "invisible hand" Government grant of limited monopolies to inventors under a developing patent system (The statute of Monopolies 1623) is Considered an influential factor, The effects of patents both good and bad, on The development of industrialization are clearly illustrated in The history of the steam engine, The key enabling technology. Instead of publicly revealing the workings of an invention, the patient system rewarded inventors such as James watt by allowing them to monopolies the production of the first steam engines, Thereby rewarding inventors and increasing the pace of technological development.

Capital formation in Britain

The Vast amount of Capital which England has accumulated out of profits of her growing trade enabled her to make large outlays on machinery and building which in turn contributed to new technological developments. In addition England also possessed a large amount of Loan-able Capital obtained by the bank of England form the rich traders of other Countries. This Capital also helped England to steal a march over other European Countries.

Availability of Markets

The Presence of a large domestic market should also be considered an important driver of the industrial Revolution particularly explaining why it occurred in Britain. In other nations, Such as France, markets were split up by local regions, which often imposed tolls and tariffs on goods traded amongst them. The British Colonial expansion during 17th century had also resulted in the development of international trade and financial markets.

Availability of an extensive colonial empire

The Unprecedented degree of economic growth associated with industrial revolution could not have been sustained by domestic demand. The application of technology and The factory system created such levels of mass production and cost efficiently that enabled Britain to undercut foreign competitors the political dominance created by the growth of an overseas empire and the strategic control of the world seas by The Royal Navy, enabled British manufactures to export Their goods to Europe, provided captive markets for The abundance of new goods provided by The industrial revolution. The raw materials Britain itself did not have were provided by its many colonies.

Practical bent of mind of The English researchers

The English Scientists and engineers had a very practical of bent mind and because of this they made inventions keeping in view. The needs of the time in Contrast to the Continental Scientists who concentrated on research in electricity, chemicals which were not of much immediate applied relevance.

Comparatively Small Population in Britain

The Small size of England's Population could not cope with England's growing trade. England's growing trade also necessitated the new devices should be found out to keep production in line with the growing demand. This is best exemplified by the changes in the textile industry as well as the coal industry. The shortage of the labour force compelled the owners to encourage and apply new mechanical devices.

Proximity of Coal and iron mines in Britain

There was also a local coincidence of natural resources in the north of England, The English Midlands, South Wales and The Scottish lowlands. Local supplies of coal, iron lead copper tin limestone and water power resulted excellent conditions. For the development and expansion of industry. Also, the damp mild weather conditions of the North West of England provide ideal condition for the spinning of cotton, providing a natural starting point of the birth of the textile industry. The Location of the coal and iron mines close to each encouraged the English to evolve new techniques for The Manufacture of iron and utilization of The Coals.

The Agricultural Revolution

In Britain the agricultural revolution had already taken place which had greatly transformed the English Society. It not only made available necessary raw materials to run the new industries but also provided a large number of agricultural laborers' for employment in The new factories The Enclosure movement and The British agricultural revolution made food production more efficient and less labours- intensive forcing the surplus population who could no longer find employment in agriculture into cottage industry for example weaving, and in The longer term into the cities and the newly developed factories.

Presence of enterprising People

Finally the technological changes in England's were made possible because of the presence of a sizable section of people who possessed enterprising spirit and requisite technical qualities. Further this class of people also possessed organizing abilities and was accustomed to the handling of large enterprises and labour force. These people were willing to invest money for the discovery of new techniques and give a fair trial to these techniques.

Risk – taking Private Sectors

The Presence of Sizable private sector in The Country with great capacity of the individual businessmen to take risks also greatly contributed to the individual revolution. These businessmen were willing to take a chance on new things. In this way they were also supported by the government.

Atlantic triangular slave trade

The best-known triangular trading system is the transatlantic slave trade, that operated from the late 16th to early 19th centuries, carrying slaves, cash crops, and manufactured goods between West Africa, Caribbean or American colonies and the European colonial powers, with the northern colonies of British North America, especially New England, sometimes taking over the role of Europe. The use of African slaves was fundamental to growing colonial cash crops, which were exported to Europe. European goods, in turn, were used to purchase African slaves, which were then brought on the sea lane west from Africa to the Americas, the so-called middle passage.

A classic example would be the trade of sugar (often in its liquid form, molasses) from the Caribbean to Europe or New England, where it was distilled into rum. The profits from the sale of sugar were used to purchase manufactured goods, which were then shipped to West Africa, where they were bartered for slaves. The slaves were then brought back to the Caribbean to be sold to sugar planters. The profits from the sale of the slaves were then used to buy more sugar, which was shipped to Europe, etc. The trip itself took five to twelve weeks.

The first leg of the triangle was from a European port to Africa, in which ships carried supplies for sale and trade, such as copper, cloth, trinkets, slave beads, guns and ammunition. When the ship arrived, its cargo would be sold or bartered for slaves. On the second leg, ships made the journey of the Middle Passage from Africa to the New World. Many slaves died of disease in the crowded holds of the slave ships. Once the ship reached the New World, enslaved survivors were sold in the Caribbean or the American colonies. The ships were then prepared to get them thoroughly cleaned, drained, and loaded with export goods for a return voyage, the third leg, to their home port, from the West Indies the main export cargoes were sugar, rum, and molasses; from Virginia, tobacco and hemp. The ship then returned to Europe to complete the triangle.

Diagram illustrating the stowage of African slaves on a British slave ship

However, because of several disadvantages that slave ships faced compared to other trade ships, they often returned to their home port carrying whatever goods were readily available in the Americas and filled up a large part or all of their capacity with ballast. Other disadvantages include the different form of the ships (to carry as many humans as possible, but not ideal to carry a maximum amount of produce) and the variations in the duration of a slave voyage, making it practically impossible to pre-schedule appointments in the Americas, which meant that slave ships often arrived in the Americas out-of-season. Instead, the cash crops were transported mainly by a separate fleet which only sailed from Europe to the Americas and back. The Triangular trade is a trade model, not an exact description of the ship's route.

The Drain of Wealth

The Drain of Wealth theory was systemically initiated by Dadabhai Naoroji in 1867 and further analyzed and developed by R.P. Dutt, M.G Ranade etc.

The “drain of wealth” depicts the constant flow of wealth from India to England for which India did not get an adequate economic, commercial or material return. The colonial government was utilizing Indian resources- revenues, agriculture, and industry not for developing India but for its utilization in Britain. If these resources been utilised within India then they could have been invested and the income of the people would have increased. Ranade opined that one-third of India's national income was being drained away-in one form or the other.

According to Dadabhai Naoroji, the following forms of drain can be identified:

- Home charges refer to the interest on public debt raised in England at comparatively higher rates; expenditure incurred in England by the Secretary of State on behalf of India; Annuities on account of railway and irrigation works; Indian office expenses including pensions to retired officials who had worked in India or England, pensions to army and navels etc.
- Remittances to England by Europeans to their families.
- Remittances for purchase of British Goods for consumption of British Employees as well as purchases by them of British Goods in India.
- Interest charges on public debt held in Britain.

India's drain of wealth helped finance England's Industrial Revolution in the following ways

As late as the 1750s, India had an export surplus; its favorable trade balance was matched by bullion import, as the world had nothing else to offer India in return for its fine textiles. British colonialism reversed this process, first by monopolizing trade and then — in the early 19th century — by demolishing Indian industry. During the period when British trade established supremacy, goods were exported by India but the bullion never reached the country. British merchants purchased goods in rupee receipts in India, and exchanged them abroad for bullion. Much before Dadabhai Naoroji and the so-called ‘modern nationalist’ school came up with a figure for India's drain of wealth, Mughal chroniclers had put it at more than 100,000 million pound sterling per annum.

In fact, bullion owed to India helped finance England's Industrial Revolution. Then, in order to flood Indian markets with European goods, India was de-industrialized. From being a supplier of luxury goods, it was turned into an exporter of raw material. Between 1820 and 1840, de-industrialization closed down more than 12,000 markets, controlled and operated by peasants and small entrepreneurs in northern India.

Availability of developed means of transport and Communication

England possessed a far better network of means of transportation than any other country of Europe which greatly helped the industrial revolution. In this task the government played an important role which spent considerable amount on the improvement of roads and construction of canals.

British insularity from the Conflicts of Continental Europe

The technological and industrial advancement was encouraged by the insularity of England from Continental Conflicts. This meant that the industrial development was rarely interrupted by wars. The geographical location of England remained immune from wars and upheavals of Napoleonic era and conditions remained quite stable in the country these stable conditions enabled England to develop their industrial capacity without fear of bottle damage or loss of life.

Flexibility of English Social and Political System

Above all the Flexibility of The English Social and political system also greatly contributed to industrial revolution in England. The members of the Upper classes in Britain unlike Their Counterparts in The continent pursued their wealth in the new industrial framework with great enthusiasm they worked in close co-operation with the middle classes and artisans which greatly facilitated the industrial revolution.

Protestant work ethic

The protestant ethic influenced large numbers of people to engage in work in the secular world, developing their own enterprises and engaging in trade and the accumulation of wealth for investment. In other words the protestant ethic was a force being and unplanned and uncoordinated mass action that influenced the development of capitalism and encouraged the beginning of industrial revolution.

THE INDUSTRIALIZATION PROCES IN OTHER COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD

Introduction

The Industrial Revolution in Continental Europe Came a little later than in Great Britain. In many industries, this involved the application of technology was purchased from Britain or British engineers and entrepreneurs moved abroad in search of new opportunities. By 1809 part of the Ruhr valley in Westphalia was called 'Miniature England' because of its Similarities to the industrial areas of England. The German, Russian and Belgian government all provided state funding to the new industries. In some cases (Such as iron), the different availability of resources locally meant that only some aspects of the British technology were adopted.

Development of Industrial Revolution in USA

The Industrial Revolution (1820-1870) was of great importance to the economic development of The United States the first industrial Revolution occurred in Great Britain and Europe during The late eighteenth century. The Industrial Revolution then Centered on the United States and Germany. The real impetus for America entering the industrial Revolution was the Passage of The Embargo Act of 1807 and the war of 1812. Americans were upset over an incident with The Chesapeake whereby The British opened fire when they were not allowed to search the ship they also seized four men and hung one for desertion. This resulted in much public outrage and the passage of the embargo Act which stopped the export of American goods and effectively ended. The import of goods from toothier nations. Eventually, America went to war with Great Britain in 1812. The war made it apparent that America needed a better transportation system and more

economic independence. Therefore, manufacturing began to expand.

Industrialization in America involved three important developments:

First, transportation was expanded.

Second, electricity was effectively harnessed.

Third, improvements were made to industrial processes such as improving the refining process and accelerating production. The government helped protect American manufactures by passing a protective tariff.

Other factors:

Cotton and Cloth

In 1794, Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin which made the separation of cotton seeds fiber much faster. The South increased its cotton supply sending raw cotton in north to be used in the manufacture of cloth. Francis c. Lowell increased the efficiency in the manufacture of cloth by bringing spinning and weaving processes together into one factory. This led to the development of the textile industry throughout New England. In 1846, Elias Howe created The Sewing Machine which revolutionized the manufacture of clothing. All of a sudden clothing began to be made in factories as opposed to at home.

Interchangeable Parts

Eli Whitney came up with the idea to use interchangeable parts in 1798 to make muskets. If standard parts were made by machine, then they could be assembled at the end much more quickly than before. This became an important part of American industry and the second industrial Revolution.

From Agriculture to Cities

As industries and factories arose, people moved from farms to cities. This led to other issues including overcrowding and disease. However advanced were made in agriculture too including better machines and cultivators For example Cyrus McCormick Created The reaper which allowed quicker and cheaper harvesting of grain. John Deere Created The first steel plough in 1837 helping speed up farming across the Midwest.

Communication and the Industrial Revolution

With the increases size of The United States, better communication networks became ultra important. In 1844, Samuel F.B. Morse created the telegraph and by 1860 this network ranged throughout the eastern Coast to The Mississippi.

Transportation

Railroads were of Supreme importance to the increase in trade throughout The United States. In fact, by the start of the civil war, railroads linked the most important mid west cities with The Atlantic coast. Railroads further opened the west and connected raw materials to factories and markets. A transcontinental railroad was completed in 1869 at Promontory, Utah with the great advances of the industrial Revolution inventors Continued to work thou gout he rest of the 19th and early 20th century on ways to make life easier while increasing productively. The foundations set throughout The mid-1800's set the stage for inventions such as the light bulb (Thomas Edison), telephone (Alexander Bell), and The automobile (Karl Benz) Further ford creation of the assembly line which made manufacturing more efficient just helped form America into a modern industrialized nation. The impact of these and other inventions of the time cannot be underestimated.

Development of Industrial revolution in Germany

Germany traditionally had an economically differentiated landscape. The west and southwest was more urbanized; here both the traditional industry and agriculture were more specialized and developed than in the territories further east where agriculture was based on large, mostly feudal estates. Feudal estates had existed in the west, too, but many had became bankrupt in the late years of the 18th century The urban

economy of western Germany for centuries had been closely linked to that of the Netherlands, England and France changes in technology in these countries were perceived earlier and with more interest in cities such as humbug Frankfurt and cologne as in Berlin and Vienna. Alfred Krupp adapted modern English technology in his steel mills in Essen although he did not have access to the latest knowhow, and for years to come German steel was inferior in quality.

The establishment of a network of railway lines in the 1830s till 1850s resulted in much increased demand of coal and steel thus regions with coal fields such as the Ruhrgebiet, The sear and Upper Silesia, all located in Prussia, quickly transformed from agricultural into industrial regions, attracting workers from agricultural regions. Saxony and Germany's southwest Baden and Wurttemberg Hum berg, Berlin, Nuremberg – expanded as industrial centers. Many cities dismantled their ancient city walls, replacing them by wide roads around the ancient city centre. Suburbs were built, providing living room for the rapidly expanding population.

Development of Industrial revolution in Russia

The Industrial revolution began much later in Russia in comparison with other parts of Europe. Russia's late arrival on the industrial scene also shaped its industrial Revolution because it could take advantage of prior technological improvements in industrial process to leapfrog over the rudimentary stages and go directly to the latest and most modern forms. Ironically, back ward Russia was creating one of Europe's most modern industrial infrastructures. Furthermore Russia's new factories were massive in size. Perhaps more than one-half of Russia's new factories employed more than 500 workers, and many employed more than 1,000 because Russia did not experience the evolutionary process of building large firms form the merger or acquisition of numerous smaller ones, it was able to proceed directly to an economy of scale. Finally rather than being spread throughout the country, Russia's industry was concentrated in a few location significant industrial clusters could be found in The Donbas and at St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kiev, Baku, and Warsaw.

Early in The twentieth century, Russia's industrial expansion paused, and a sharp recession occurred against a backdrop of revolution. However, starting in 1906, stability returned and Russia's industrial Revolution resumed its impressive advance between 1906 and 1914 Russian industrial economy grew at an annual rate of 6 percent. In 1913 The last full year of peace Russia produced 4.4 million tons of steel almost 5 million tons of pig iron, and 38 million tons of coal it was second only to the united states in total miles of railroad. Nevertheless, foreign capital continued to play a major role in Russia industry. There was extensive French investment in coal steel, and iron and British firms dominated petroleum production. Germany, soon to be Russia's adversary in the murderous World War 1st, controlled chemical production.

Despite This impressive growth the quality of Russian finished products remained inferior consequently; Russia found it difficult to crack the European market. However, its products found ready byres in the less-developed Middle East and Asia. Another problem- One that defied such an easy solution was the prevalent poverty of the Russian masses without adequate purchasing power, domestic demand stagnated Because of the character of Russia's industrial Revolution many members of the entrepreneurial and managerial class were foreigners. Among native Russians, The rising bourgeoisie emerged from a wide social spectrum ranging from former serfs to the nobility although quit a few originated from the old Believer Community that had dominated had production during the Preindustrial era.

The number and nature of the nascent Russian proletariat of working class, remains an issue. Many believes that the number of Russian "workers" at The start of the twentieth century totaled about 2 million increasing to 3 or 3.5 million by 1914 (The 1897 condos calculated Russia's Population at 125 million) . Almost all of these workers come from the peasantry and many were only part-time members of the proletariat; that is a sizeable number of workers regularly shifted back and forth between factory and village Nevertheless as the industrial Revolution became firmly rooted more and more" peasant- workers" abandoned the village altogether in order to live permanently in The industrial cities. Although the industrial Revolution in Russia may have been qualitatively different form the industrial revolution in Western Europe and the United States one factor remains constant- the exploitation of the worker. Russian laborers earned low wages worked long

hours endured wretched working conditions lacked job security, and lived in crowded unsanitary dangerous slums sometimes the proletariat resorted to the strike at Moscow Morozov Textile factory. However until 1906 both unions and strikes were illegal. Nevertheless when pushed far enough, desperate people will resort to desperate actions and wild cat strikes occurred frequently during this period of rapid industrial growth. The Russian government periodically tried to ameliorate the workers conditions under Bunge employers were required to pay wages in money rather than in kind furthermore employers had to pay the contractually agreed –upon wage rate, and restrictions were placed on both child and female labour. However a system of factory inspectors created at this time proved inadequate. During Witte's ministry and 1897 law reduced the working day to 11.5 hours, declared Sunday a holiday and further limited child labour. In 1903 workmen's compensation was introduced and three years later local unions were legalized.

Despite these measures unsatisfactory conditions and the growing influence of radical agitators sparked further worker rebellion. In 1912 the authorities used force to quell unrest in the Altai goldfields; the resulting "massacre" claimed more before the outbreak of World War I, more than a million workers were out on strike at one time or another. Obviously, the industrial Revolution in Russia was not a placid experience.

Development of Industrial revolution in Japan

Japan initially barricaded herself away from the changes until Mathew Perry rode the industrial wave to her shores demanding entrance with some trepidation Japan used the combined forces of military pride and shintoism to throw her unified population into the onslaught of the industrial Revolution. The Causes and progression of the industrial Revolution in Europe and Japan contrasted in striking ways. Whereas the Europeans developed the technologies over the course of nearly two centuries the Japanese skimmed off the cream that had been churned by others through reverse engineering Japan leapt into the 20th century with military powers that surprised European powers. This was first evident in Japan's victory over Russia in 1905.

In the dusk of the 19th century, Japan awoke to a world where dragons and samurai were not as powerful as they had once been. Japan's emperor, Meiji understood how far his island was behind Europe; He therefore put all his power to gain recognition of Japan's considerable achievement and strove for equality with western nations.

As this island moved into modernity it imported manufactured goods from both Europe and the United States which resulted in the small Japanese producers becoming undersold at the market and many even proclaiming bankruptcy. This fact led to even more aggression from the side of the Japanese emperor who therefore refused to buy any foreign goods; he resolved to grow Japan into invincible nations which did not require anybody's help. Even though Japan's modernization began a century later, in less than 30 years it had completed what had taken Europe three centuries as it "built on the work of another" This immense speed was due to the Japanese seeking "to establish an advanced industrial society without adopting any of the 'negative western traits'".

The Industrial Revolution was a time during which both Europe and Japan tried to claim the little of leading state. After having closely studied Europe, the Pacific island chose which methods to adopt; Germany's style military and political institutions, US education, France's banking program and England's naval expertise and railway systems. As Japan grasped the object of this international game it soon turned into an industrially optimized society whose mass production became the "focus of its collate" following the slogan "Fukoku Kyohei" or "Enrich the country and strengthen the military" to their delight, the Japanese soon "discovered that they already grew and could manufacture a variety of goods that people overseas wanted, from tea and raw silk to gold leaf and buttons and cotton textiles Japan watched Europe closely to borrow the best technology available and at the same time avoiding their mistakes Europe continued to submerge itself in new inventions like the steam locomotive designed by George Stephenson and the steam powered ship by Robert Fulton. According to Taichi Sakaiya, The "innovation of the steam engine is uniquely characterized as a revolution transformation of not only industry but economy and society as well".

Discuss the Industrialization of the People's Republic of China

Industrialization of China did occur on a significant scale only from the 1950s, in the Maoist Great Leap Forward. This was the plan used from 1958 to 1961 to transform the People's Republic of China from a primarily agrarian economy by peasant farmers into a modern communist society through the process of agriculturalization and industrialization. Mao Zedong based this program on the Theory of Productive Forces. It ended in catastrophe due to widespread drought towards the end of the period that led to widespread famine.

As political stability was gradually restored following the Cultural Revolution of the late 1960s, a renewed drive for coordinated, balanced development was set in motion under the leadership of Premier Zhou Enlai. To revive efficiency in industry, Communist Party of China committees were returned to positions of leadership over the revolutionary committees, and a campaign was carried out to return skilled and highly educated personnel to the jobs from which they had been displaced during the Cultural Revolution. Universities began to reopen, and foreign contacts were expanded. Once again the economy suffered from imbalances in the capacities of different industrial sectors and an urgent need for increased supplies of modern inputs for agriculture. In response to these problems, there was a significant increase in investment, including the signing of contracts with foreign firms for the construction of major facilities for chemical fertilizer production, steel finishing, and oil extraction and refining. The most notable of these contracts was for thirteen of the world's largest and most modern chemical fertilizer plants. During this period, industrial output grew at an average rate of 8 percent a year.

At the milestone Third Plenum of the National Party Congress's 11th Central Committee which opened on December 22, 1978, the party leaders decided to undertake a program of gradual but fundamental reform of the economic system. They concluded that the Maoist version of the centrally planned economy had failed to produce efficient economic growth and had caused China to fall far behind not only the industrialized nations of the West but also the new industrial powers of Asia: Japan, the Republic of Korea, Singapore, Taiwan, and Hong Kong. In the late 1970s, while Japan and Hong Kong rivaled European countries in modern technology, China's citizens had to make do with barely sufficient food supplies, rationed clothing, inadequate housing, and a service sector that was inadequate and inefficient. All of these shortcomings embarrassed China internationally.

The purpose of the reform program was not to abandon communism but to make it work better by substantially increasing the role of market mechanisms in the system and by reducing—not eliminating—government planning and direct control. The process of reform was incremental. New measures were first introduced experimentally in a few localities and then were popularized and disseminated nationally if they proved successful. By 1987 the program had achieved remarkable results in increasing supplies of food and other consumer goods and had created a new climate of dynamism and opportunity in the economy. At the same time, however, the reforms also had created new problems and tensions, leading to intense questioning and political struggles over the program's future.

The first few years of the reform program were designated the “period of readjustment,” during which key imbalances in the economy were to be corrected and a foundation was to be laid for a well-planned modernization drive. The schedule of Hua Guofeng's ten-year plan was discarded, although many of its elements were retained. The major goals of the readjustment process were to expand exports rapidly; overcome key deficiencies in transportation, communications, coal, iron, steel, building materials, and electric power; and redress the imbalance between light and heavy industry by increasing the growth rate of light industry and reducing investment in heavy industry.

In 1984, the fourteen largest coastal cities were designated as economic development zones, including Dalian, Tianjin, Shanghai, and Guangzhou, all of which were major commercial and industrial centers. These zones were to create productive exchanges between foreign firms with advanced technology and major Chinese economic networks.

Consequences of Industrial revolution

The consequences of industrial revolution are as follows:

1. Effects of the Industrial Revolution on Political life:

Although Britain had become a constitutional monarchy a century earlier, the vast majority of the population remained disenfranchised from the electoral system. As industrial strength grew along with a more forcible middle class electoral reform was a necessity to balance the new society power structure.

Before 1832, the middle class factory owners wanted political power to match their new – found economic punch this resulted in the reform bill of 1832 which enfranchised 20% of the male population to vote.

The Reform Bill also redistributed electoral districts to better reflect the large population of city centers before, most of the electoral power could be found in the countryside where aristocrats owned vast properties.

The middle class became more or less satisfied but workers were still not represented by the electoral system.

2. Social Consequences of Industrial revolution:

During the industrial Revolution. The structure of society changed dramatically. Before The Revolution most people lived in Small villages working either in agriculture or as skilled craftsmen. They lived and often worked as a family, doing everything by hand. In fact, three quarters of Britain's population lived in the Countryside, and farming was the predominant occupation. With the advent of industrial nation however everything changed. The new enclosure laws which required that all grazing grounds be fenced in at The owner's expense had left many poor farmers bankrupt and unemployed nomad machines capable of huge outputs made small handed weaver redundant. As a result there were many people who were forced to work at the new factories This required them to move to towns cities so that They could be close to their new jobs it also meant that they made less money for working longer hours add to this the higher living expenses due to urbanization and one can easily see that many families resources would be extremely stretched.

The Women and children were sent out to work, making up 75% of early workers. Families were forced to do this since. They desperately needed money while factory owners were happy to employ woman and children for a number of reasons. First of all, they could be paid very little and children could be controlled more easily than adults, generally through violent beatings. Children also had smaller hands which were often needed to reach in among the parts of a machine furthermore employers found that children were more malleable and adapted to the new methods much better than adults did children were also sent to work in mines being small enough to get more coal and are form the deep and very often unsafe pits. They could also be forced to work as long as eighteen hours each day. For these reason, children as young as eight years old textiles – where they became part of a growing and profitable business. The unprecedented growth and profit was another social change that occurred during the industrial Revolution. The laissez- faire approach taken by the government and advocated by philosopher economist Adam smith allowed capitalism to flourish There were little or no government regulation imposed upon factory policies and this allowed the wealthy middle class owners to pursue whichever path was most profitable regardless of the safety and well being of their workers. This relentless pursuit of money caused another important social change: The ultimate break down of the family unit.

Since workers especially women and children were laboring for up to eighteen hours each day,. There was very little family contact and the only time that one was at home was spent sleeping. People also had it shared housing with other families, which father contributed to the breakdown of the family unit. As a result children received very little education had stunted growth and were sickly they also grew up quite maladjusted having never been thought now to behaved properly. The living conditions where indeed horrible; working families often live in slums with little sanitation and infant mortality skyrocketed during the early industrial Revolution. 50% of infants died before the age of two.

However, The Social changes that took place were not all negative most classes eventually benefited in some way form the huge profits that were being made and by 1820 most workers were making somewhat

better wages. The “widespread poverty and constant threat of mass starvation had lessened, and overall health and material” The government however did have to eventually intervene in order to put an end to child labour and other unacceptable practices. In terms of social structure, the industrial Revolution witnesses the triumph of a middle class of industrialists and businessmen over a landed class of nobility and gentry. Ordinary working people found increased opportunities for employment in the new mills and factories but these were often under strict working condition with long hours of labour dominated by a pace set by machines. However harsh working condition was prevalent long before the industrial Revolution took place. Pre-industrial Society was very static and often cruel – child labour, dirty living conditions and long working hours were just as prevalent before the industrial revolution. The emergence of the factory system of production brought together the workers in one plant a supplied with tools machines and materials with which they worked in return for wages. According to Robert Hughes in the Facile shore the population of England and Wales which had remained steady at 6 million from 1700 to 1740 rose dramatically after 1740. The population of England had more than doubled from 8.3 million in 1801 to 16.8 million in 1851 and by 1901 had nearly doubled again to 30.5 million. As living conditions and health care improved during the 19th century, Britain population doubled every 50 years. Europe’s population doubled during the 18th century form roughly 100 million to almost 200 million and doubled again during the 19th century to around 400 million.

The application of steam power to the industrial processes of prating supported a massive expansion of newspaper and popular book publishing which reinforced rising literacy and demands for mass political participation. During the Industrial Revolution, The life expectancy of children increased born in London who died before the age of five decreased from 74.5% in 1730-1749 to 31.8% in 1810-1829

3. Formation of Factories and Urbanization

The growth of modern industry form the late 18th century onward led to massive organization and the rise of new great cities, first in Europe and then in other regions, as new opportunities brought huge numbers of migrants from rural communities into urban areas. In 1800 only 3% of the world population lived in Cities a figure that has risen to nearly 50% at the beginning of the 21st century. In 1717 Manchester was merely a market town of 10,000 people but by 1911 it had a population of 2.3 million. Industrialization led to the Creation of the factory. Arguably the first was John Lumber’s water –powered silk mill at derby operational by 1721. However, The rise of the factory came somewhat later when cotton spinning was mechanized The factory system was largely responsible for the rise of the modern city as large numbers of workers migrated into the cities in search of employment in the factories nowhere was this better illustrated than the mills and associated industries of Manchester, nicknamed “cotton polis”, and arguable The world first industrial city. For much of the 19th century production was done in small mills, which were typically water powered and built to serve local needs. Later each factory would have its own steam engine and a chimney to give an efficient draft through its boiler. The transition to industrialization was not without difficult for example a group of English workers known a Luddites was formed to protest against industrialization and sometimes sabotaged factories. In other industries the transition to factory production was not so divisive. Some industrialists themselves tried to improve factory and living condition for their workers. One of the earliest such reformers was Robert Owen known for his pioneering efforts in improving conditions for workers at the new Lanark mills, and often regarded as one of the key thinkers of the early Socialist movement. By 1746 an integrated brass mill was working at warmly near Bristol. Raw material went in at one end was smelted into brass and was turned into pans, pins, wire and other goods, housing was provided for workers’ onsite. Josiah Wedgwood and Mathew Boulton where other prominent early industrialist, who employed the factory system.

4. Issues of Child Labour

The Industrial Revolution led to a population increase, but the chance of serving childhood did not improve throughout the industrial revolution although infant mortality rates were reduced markedly. There was still limited opportunity for education, and children were expected to work. Employers could pay a child less than an adult even though their productivity was comparable: there was no need for strength to operate and industrial machine, and since the industrial system was completely new there were no experienced adult

laborers. This made child labour the labour of choice for manufacturing in the early phase so of the industrial revolution between the 18th and 19th centuries. In England and Scotland in 1788, Two-thirds of the workers in 143 water powered cotton mills were described as children. Child labour had existed before the industrial revolution but with the increase in population and education it became more visible many children were forced to work in relatively bad condition for much lower pay than their elders.

Reports were written detailing some of the abuses particularly in the coal mines and textile factories and these helped to popularize the children's plight the public outers especially among the upper and middle classes helped stir change in the young workers' welfare. Politicians and the government tried to limit child labour by law but factory owners resisted; some felt that they were aiding the poor by giving their children money to buy food to avoid starvation and others simply welcomed the cheap labour. In 1833 and 1844 the first general laws against child labour, the factory Acts, were passed in England. Children younger than nine were not allowed to work children were not permitted to work at night, and the work day of youth under the age of 18 was limited to twelve hours. Factory inspectors supervised the execution of the law. About ten years later the employment of children and women in mining was forbidden these laws decreased the number of child laborers'; however child labour remained in Europe and the United States up to the 20th century. By 1900, there were 1.7 million child labourers reported in American industry under the age of fifteen.

5. Conditions of Housing

Living conditions during the Industrial Revolution varied from the splendor of the homes of the owners to the squalor of the lives of the workers. Poor people lived in very small houses in cramped streets. These homes would share toilet facilities have open sewers and would be at risk of damp. Disease was spread through contaminated water supply. Conditions did improve during the 19th century as public health arts were introduced covering things such as sewage hygiene and making some boundaries upon the construction of homes. Not everybody lived in homes like these. The Industrial Revolution created a large middle class of professionals such as lawyers and doctors. The conditions for the poor improved over the course of the 19th century because for government and local plans which led to cities becoming cleaner places but life had not been easy for the poor before industrialization. However as a result of the Revolution huge numbers of the working class died due to diseases spreading through the cramped living conditions. Chest diseases from the mines cholera from polluted water and typhoid were also extremely common as was small pox. Accidents in factories with child and female workers were also relatively common.

6. Development of Marxism

Marxism began essentially as a reaction to the Industrial Revolution. According to Karl Marx Industrialization polarized society into the bourgeoisie (those who own the means of production) and the much larger proletariat (the working class who actually perform the labor necessary to extract something valuable from the means of production). He saw the Industrialization process as the logical dialectical progression of feudal economic modes necessary for the full development of capitalism which he saw as in itself a necessary precursor to the development of socialism and eventually communism.

7. Development of Romanticism

During the Industrial Revolution an intellectual and artistic hostility towards the new industrialization developed. This was known as the Romantic Movement. Its major exponents in English included the artist and poet William Blake and poets William Wordsworth Samuel Taylor Coleridge John Keats, Lord Byron and Percy Bysshe Shelley. The movements stressed the importance of nature in art and language in contrast to monstrous machines and factories; the "dark satanic mills" of Blake's poem "And did those feet in ancient time" Mary Shelley's novel Frankenstein reflected concerns that scientific progress might be two-edged.



CHAPTER - 6**UNIFICATION OF GERMANY****INTRODUCTION**

The Unification of Germany took place on January 18, 1871 when Prussian chief Minister Otto von Bismarck managed to unify a number of independent German states into one nation and thus created the German Empire.

During the Later half of 18th century Germany was the most divided country in Europe with over two hundred principalities independent of each other. From geographical point of view German states are divided into three parts, -Northern, Central and Southern. In the North Prussia was the most powerful state from the point of view of size and military strength. Social and political systems of these states were backward. Although German states were divided from political point of view they were somewhat connected with each other. These German principalities had grouped themselves around Austria and Frankfurt diet. The diet was not a parliament but was a congress of ambassadors. Representatives coming from different states assembled together on the platform of the Diet.

The Military campaigns of Napoleon Bonaparte paved the way for German unity in the Beginning of the 19th century. He amalgamated a number of German states and reduced their number to just thirty-nine. His rule in Germany proved a blessing in disguise. Napoleon also abolished the Holy Roman Empire in 1806 there by simplifying the political map of Germany. The military campaigns of Napoleon and the political restructuring carried out by him resulted in the growth of national consciousness among the Germans. This spirit of nationalism steered a Germany into a definite direction.

The congress of Vienna tried to undo the works of Napoleon in Europe. The members of the congress put their full efforts to turn the clock of history backwards in Europe eliminating the changes initiated by Napoleon Bonaparte. But in spite of its full efforts the congress could not restore pre-1789 Boundaries in Germany. It established a German confederation under the President ship of Austria. The confederation bound all The German states to mutual support. The congress of Vienna also established a central body known as Diet. However Austria's reactionary Prime Ministers Metternich Manipulated the Diet to suit his own interests. The diet suffered of the German princes not of the people and secondly the diet had no machinery to enforce its decisions. The institution of diet served to emphasize the territorial disunion of Germany. Thus the Germany was devoid of any effective central federal organization competent to take crucial decisions. In this way the provisions of Vienna pact impeded the unification of Germany.

After the Vienna congress nothing much happened in Germany for more than four decades. The exhaustion of German states in their struggle against Napoleon on prevented them from taking some positive steps in the direction of political reforms. There was also a lack of agreement among the German reforms who instead of adopting a common programmer propounded a variety of programmes. The reactionaries wanted to establisher German empire under the dominance of the Hapsburg Dynasty of Austria the reformists wanted to organize Germany under the aegis of Prussia and some others were dreaming of the merger of all states in a federal republic. The ruthless domination of Austria Metternich also kept the German nationalists under check. Germany was seething with political disparities.

Inspite of all these difficulties the spirit of Liberalism remained alive in all the German states. Most of the middle classes desired to participate in Government. The lower classes desired social reforms and German patriots aspired to a united Germany. Universities in particular were centers of liberalism. Students formed secret societies and made demonstrations which caused un-easiness both in Berlin and Vienna. In 1819 a spy in the Russian service was assassinated by a liberal student. Metternich convoked a special

meeting of German states at Carlsbad to take action against Liberalism. The German Federal Diet promulgated the famous Carl bed decrees in September 1819. Accordingly commissioners were appointed to supervise the universities. Newspapers were gagged and a central committee was appointed to investigate the working of secret societies. Metternich was successful in his repressive measures.

Discuss the Factors obstructive to German Unification

There were many obstacles in the way of German unification Religious, Political, Social and economic disparities among German states were big hard less in way of unification. Austria's interference in German states had also made the process of unification very difficult. The lack of awakening among the masses and the interference of foreign powers in German affairs were also big obstacles. France was interested in the Roman Catholics of Southern Germany. England had interest in Hanover because the Elector of Hanover was made rule of England in 1714. Austria adopted a policy to thwart national unity in Germany so that the Hapsburg dynasty continues to dominate German affairs.

Issue of Zollverein

Till the second decade of 19th century each of German state levied customs and excise duties as they pleased. Because of this the internal trade and commerce of Germany remained greatly retarded. In 1819 Prussia settled a customs pact with a small state Schworjberg- Schwoshen and inaugurated a customs union called Zollverein. By the end of 1834 all the German states except Austria became part of the Zollverein. This resulted in economic unification in Germany to some extent subdued much local feeling and replaced it by a wider and stronger element of German nationality. It proved to be an important step towards the political unification of German states.

The economic policy of Zollverein sprouted from the concept of on economic nationalism. The Prussian monarch Fredric William iii stressed upon the expansion of railways because mutual exchange of things was expected to bring about unity in Germany.

Austria failed to understand the importance of zollverein in the beginning. The success of zollverein and Austria's estrangement from that customs union resulted in the abolition of political obstacles caused by the pressure of economic forces among the German states. The establishment of Zollverein paved the way for the political unification of Germany under the Leadership of Prussia.

Discuss about the February Revolution of 1848

French Revolution of February, 1848 and Metternich's downfall in Vienna resulted in uprisings in various states of Germany. The followers of nationalism and democracy started their struggle against despotic and reactionary rules in various states such as Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony and Baden. Revolutionaries met with success in the beginning. Lawful monarchy was established in most of the German states. Constitutional rule and individual Liberty were approved. In April 1848 in response to popular demands the diet of the German confederation at Frankfurt decided to hold election for a German National Assembly to devise a new federal government of the would be monarchical and Parliamentary.

The parliament drafted the constitution of the federation in 1849 and decided to raise the rules of Prussia to the glory of the German Emperor. But Frederick William IV declined the offer. He feared that other German states might feel jealous of him. So he refused the imperial crown. It shattered the hopes of Liberalists and nationalists. Thus the work of the Frankfurt Assembly failed. The liberals madly protested and tried to dethrone princes and set up republics in various parts of Germany But these were speedily and sternly suppressed by the Prussian troops. The collapse of the revolutionary movement of 1849 was a great disappointment to the liberals of Germany.

Discuss the Works of William-I

In 1858, Emperor Fredric William IV went in same and after his death in 1861 William I became the ruler of Prussia. He was endowed with firm determination was industrious honest and practical. He was proud of Prussia and could not tolerate anything against her honour. He was confident that unification of Germany

could be materialized by way of a strong monarchy in Prussia. William I made up his mind to reorganize the Prussia army. He appointed Vann Roun as war Minister and van Moltke as commander in Chief. He ordered to raise 39 new infantry and I cavalry regiments. At that time liberalists enjoyed majority in the lower houses and opposed Vann Roun because they considered his military reforms reactionary. Consequently William dissolved the parliament and ordered fresh election. Unfortunately liberalists again secured majority in the parliament. William was in an awkward position. Now Vann Roun advised him to appoint Bismark as his chancellor.

Otto von Bismarck and German Unification

Bismark was born in a prestigious feudal family of Prussia. He was a very meritorious and a wise person but he disliked democracy and were a stern antagonist of liberalism. He was a monarchist by principle. He had on invulnerable confidence that only absolute monarchy could solve all the problems of Germany and tried to bind Public with the bond of nationality which hinged upon monarchy.

He entered politics in 1847. He was elected a member of the Joint Prussian Diet and got an opportunity of becoming a member of the National Assembly and the Constitutional Assembly. In 1851 The Emperor appointed Bismarck as a representative of Prussia for the Frankfurt assembly where he represented Prussia for eight year Here he got awakened to the reality that the cooperation of Prussia and Austria was not possible as Austria did not place Prussia on an equal footing. He learnt from his experience that Prussia could not become the sound foundation of Germany without defeating Austria

In 1859 Bismarck was sent to Saint Petersburg as an ambassador. By dint of his intelligence he established personal friendship with Tsar Alexander ii of Russia. He made good use of Russia's friendship during the war against France. As an ambassador, in France he availed himself of the opportunity of strengthening relations with Napoleon iii and his ministers and making close study of their policies.

Bismarck wanted only specific kind of German unification. He wanted to carry out the unification of Germany under the leadership of Prussia by expelling Austria from the German Federation. He ensured that Prussia did not lose its entity on the altar of Germany Unification. He was not prepared to sacrifice Prussia but desired to merge Germany into Prussia.

After becoming the chancellor of Prussia Bismarck carried forward his scheme of military reforms ruthlessly. He was convinced that the powers of Europe would never tolerate Germany unification because a powerful unified Germany might prove dangerous for the balance of power in Europe. Therefore he planned to increase the military strength of Prussia. When the liberal Parliament did not pass the necessary legislations for implementing the reforms council) and arranged the required money to execute the reforms. From 1862 to 1866 he got the budget approved by the upper house only. HE gave top priority to the cause of the states even at the cost of neglecting the prevailing law. Refuting his ideals of liberalism Bismarck said that Germany was looking towards the power of Prussia rather than her liberalism. The military reforms introduced by Bismarck transformed Prussian army into one of the most powerful armies of Europe. Bismarck used his diplomacy to isolate Austria and to ensure the neutrality of other major powers of Europe.

Discuss the Diplomacy of Bismarck

Bismarck used his close relations with Russia and France to isolate Austria in The event of on Austro-Prussian war-International atmosphere at that time was favorable to Prussia. Friendship between Austria and Russia had come to an end during Crimean War because Austrian had supported the opponents of Russia during that war. At the time of Crimean war, Prussia had remained neutral and won the pleasure of the Russian Emperor. Bismarck helped the tsar of Russia in putting down the Polish insurrection of 1863. As Austria favored The Poles, Russia became exasperated with Austria. Because of this Bismarck was confident that Russia would not go against him.

England followed the Policy of Glorious isolation and was not expected to interfere in European affairs. Bismarck anticipated no Trouble from Great Britain because liberals of Great Britain were generally in favour of any cause of national freedom and union.

Bismarck successfully hoodwinked Napoleon iii of France into remaining neutral by giving hints of possible compensation in The event of a Prussian victory over Austria. In 1865 both met in Biarritz and Napoleon assured Bismarck to stand neutral in case of war against Austria.

After it Bismarck tried to strike friendship with the state of piedmont- Sardinia. In April, 1866 a secret contract was settled between Sardinia and Prussia for cooperating against Austria. Italy would join Prussia against Austria and in return would obtain Venetia which was under Austrian Occupation. In this way Bismarck estranged Austria from The friendship of other nations on the strength of his diplomacy. Now he needed a pretext for war and the question of Schleswig Holstein provided him an easy opportunity for pushing Austria on The verge of war

Discuss the First Phase of German Unification –Unification of Schleswig and Holstein

The first phase of German Unification started over the issue of the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein which were under the dominance of Denmark. Those two Duchies were located between Germany and Denmark. Holstein was a member of The German Federation and had German population. Schleswig enjoyed German Majority: However a large number of Danes also lived there.

The issue of the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein was quite old this issue had earlier erupted in 1852 and it was submitted to congress of European powers. The congress which met in granted autonomy to the duchies and directed that they should be attached to the crown of Denmark. But the Danes wanted nothing short of complete absorption of Schleswig into Denmark Eleven years later in 1863 when the European powers were occupied with the revolt in Poland. The Danish king incorporated Holstein into his kingdom the German at once protested at this.

In November 1863 the Son of the Duke of Augustenberg presented his claim over the duchies German Diet supported him and the Federal army took possession of Holstein. Through the question of Duchies the depth of political acumen of very useful for the naval development of Prussia as Their geographical situation was very important from the strategic point of view.

Bismarck asked The Danish government to reverse the inclusion of Schleswig. The Danes refused. Bismarck had determined to include them in Prussia by hook or by crook. However he was not potent enough to capture them by force. So in January 1864, he settled a pact with Austria and resolved to solve the problem of The Duchies irrespective of the intervention of German Diet of other German states. Bismarck derived benefit in The long run from the state of uncertainty. The first victory of Bismarck was seen in the friendship between Prussia and Austria.

In February, 1864 the combined force of Austria and Prussia attacked Denmark. Though the Danes fought desperately but they were defeated. In accordance with the Vienna congress (1864) Denmark had to concede the Duchies of Schleswig Holstein and lavenburg to the combined possession of Austria and Prussia. Serious strife between Prussia and Austria ensued on The Problem of Those Duchies. Austria wanted to hand over The Duchies to Frederick The Duke of Augestenberg but Bismarck had decided to incorporate them in Prussia. On 14th August 1865 Prussia and Austria concluded the convention of Gastein According to, it Prussia would retain Schleswig and Austria.

The Convention of Gerstein marked Bismarck's great diplomatic Triumph. He eliminated the imminent trouble but sowed the seeds of conflict and prepared the atmosphere of war against Austria by setting that treaty. With the expulsion of Denmark form both the duchies and the settlement of a pact for equal share by Austria and Prussia, the first phase of the unification of Germany comes to an end. By this he convinced entire Europe and his Emperor that he was an excellent Politician of firm determination.

Discuss the Second Phase of German Unification- Creation of North German Federation

Bismarck never intended to follow the convention of Gerstein. He wanted to use the issue of Schleswig and

Holstein to indicate that Prussia was the real leaders of German race and to prepare the context for war against Austria.

The Two partners, Prussia and Austria had from the beginning regarded each other with suspicion and hostility. In the administration of two duchies Prussia and Austria had pursued widely different Policies. The break with Austria come over the supposed favour shown by Austria to the claims of Fredrick of Augustenberg Austrian support to the claims of Augustenberg was regarded by Prussia as an unfriendly act. The public of Holstein was also unhappy with the ruler of Austria and Austria was encouraging the movement in Kiel in favour of The Duke of Augustenberg.

Declaring that Austria had violated The Convention of Gerstein Bismarck at once dispatched Prussian troops to occupy Holstein. In June 1866 he simultaneously submitted to the German federal Diet a scheme for reforming the German Confederation on by excluding Austria from The Confederation. Austria reacted to this by insisting that the Diet must reject the reform It Called upon all German Confederation. Most of the German states in the Diet voted in favour of Prussia. These German states felt that it Germany was reformed into a close union according to The Prussian scheme, their Power and Prestige would increase.

Without waiting for the reaction of Austria Bismarck sent The Prussian army into holster on 6th June. It was a short war. Known in history as the save weeks war. Prussia was joined by Italy, whereas The lesser German states joined Austria Prussian army was ready to face Andy danger under The leadership of Molten Emperor William and his family were not prepared for war, but Bismarck convinced Emperor William to accept his advice for war. In the beginning Prussia army under The Command of Prince Frederick marched towards Silesia in the region of Austria. Although Austria tried to check the force of Prussia but all her efforts ended in failure. On 3rd July 1866 a decisive battle was fought at Sadowa or Koniggratz. In this war, Austrian army was completely routed and Bismarck persuaded the Emperor to cease war against Austria

In his dealings with defeated Austria Bismarck proved to be far sighted diplomatist. He did not make heavy demands on Austria because he knew that Austrian neutrality would be required during Prussian – Franco war. No Austrian territory was demanded. As per the Treaty of Prague (August 1866) Austria was asked to pay a small indemnity transfer her rights in Schleswig- Holstein to Prussia and agree to The dissolution of The German Confederation and the formation of The North German Confederation without Austria. Thus Austria was excluded from all participation in German Politics.

The Austro- Prussian war started a new chapter in the history of Europe Prussia reached the climax of influence it annexed 20,000 square miles of land. Consolidating entire North Germany, Prussia became its chairperson. Prussia was reckoned as a powerful and important state and Bismarck became an influential politician of Europe. Prussian Liberalists also became stern Supporter of Bismarck. That war ruined the prestige of Austria. The relation between Austria and Italy splintered and Italy stood almost completely unified.

Bismarck was occupied with the significant task of organizing the states of Germany. Therefore, Bismarck created the North German Federation of 21 states under the aegis of Prussia. The unification of North Germany was, thus completed. However incorporation of the states of south Germany was essential for the complete unification of Germany constitution for the new as hereditary President and Bismarck was made the first chancellor of the new Federation. In this internal administration of the states was not tampered with.

Discuss the Third Phase of German Unification

Though the states of North Germany could be united but the south German states had not joined the north German confederation. These south German states were apprehensive of Prussia and were inclined to retain their independence rather than accept the Prussian rule.

Bismarck wanted to create the German state Federation after Conglomerating all states of Germany. But it was not possible to assimilate the states of southern Germany into the Federation against their will. The short-sighted policy of French politician provided him an opportunity to instigate the felling of patriotism among the states of Southern Germany.

Napoleon iii of France anticipated a long-drawn war between Austria and Prussia and had planned to intervene on behalf of The Prussian war ended speedily and Prussia emerged victorious This upset The calculation territory on France eastern Frontier as compensation of remaining neutral during The Austro-Prussian war. In other words he was demanding territories belonging of the south German states. Bismarck was determined not to surrender even an inch of German territory Bismarck strongly believed that a joint war against a common enemy would weld together all The German states.

Bismarck Knew that France will not easily digest the success of Prussia and for the unification of south German states he will have to fight a war against France. Therefore Bismarck started making military preparation He organized an aggressive force of 10 lakh soldiers. On the other hand the people for France were also clamoring for war against Prussia. The both the nations sought The solution of their problems in war only Having Failed to get territory in southern Germany France offered a new alternative proposal to Prussia. According to The French Proposal, Prussia would be allowed a free hand in incorporation The south German states into The North German confederation provided Prussia assisted France in acquiring Belgium Bismarck asked the French ambassador to give the proposal in writing when the proposal was received in black and white and since Belgium and Great Britain were closely allied in political and economic matters Britain opposed this and this plan Of France also failed. This was also an important diplomatic victory for Bismarck.

After The failure of his design to seize Belgium in 1867 Napoleon iii offered to pay ninety million France for the purchase of Luxembourg in order to enhance his influence and Prestige. Luxembourg belonged to the Holland. Although The Dutch were willing to sell Luxembourg to France Bismarck wanted to convert it into a neutral state. Bismarck warned France that he would not allow the Transfer of Luxemburg to France. The ruler of Holland also refused to hand over Luxemburg. A conference of European states was convened with the cooperation of Neutral nations in order to in London in May 1867, Considered Luxemburg to be a neutral state. Therefore Napoleon iii was compelled to renounce The Scheme of Purchasing Luxemburg and the efforts of Napoleon iii to acquire Luxemburg ended in fiasco.

During the tense relations between France and Prussia, the question of succession to the throne of Spain come up, which embittered the relation of both the countries and war became inevitable. In 1868 the Spanish Empress Isabella ii was dethroned The Spanish liberal were seeking a new sovereign Several European Princes polity refused to accept the crown of Spain. At last Spanish liberals offered the crown to prince Leopold, a cousin of the King of Prussia. On 19th June 1870 Prince Leopold a relative of the Prussian ruler conceded to ascend the throne of Spain Leopold succession to the throne would have increased the influence of Prussia. It became hot news in the high ruling political circles of France and The French ambassador Benedetti met The Emperor of Prussia who advised Leopold to revoke his consent for accession to the throne of Spain and Leopold did so on 12th July. Leopold declarations should have made an end of the political tragedy but Napoleon wanted to humiliate Prussia. The French ambassador in Berlin was asked to obtain a promise from The king of Prussia that he would never permit a Hohenzollern Prince to ascend the throne of Spain Accordingly the French ambassador met the Prussian king William I at Ems a famous watering place and presented the demand. The details of discussion were sent to Bismarck through telegram Bismarck Published the message in brief. The import of The shortened text totally differed from that of the full text Full text appeared to be an invitation for discussion is reply to the challenge of war: whereas The shortened text gave The impression of the Germans that the Prussian king had been insulted by The French ambassador and at the same time lead The French to believe that their ambassador had been insulted by The Prussian king The shortened recast of The telegraphic message brought very provocative reaction in both the countries and on 15th July 1870 war was declared.

The decision of War was welcomed in both the countries great enthusiasm although it was not prepared for it. On the contrary Prussia had made systematic preparation for the war. Because of incessant efforts of the minister Vaun Roune and Commander-in-chief Vanu Moltke, They army of Prussia had become well trained and Proficient Bismarck had taken constructive steps and succeeded in making change in ati-Prussia's successful leadership and military achievements against The selfish and greedy attitudes of France and Austria the states of southern Germany adopted the goal of North Germany.

Bismarck had estranged Italy from France by handing over Venetia to her. In this way Bismarck had made effective preparations to win the war by banking upon his creative diplomacy. The German troops invaded France from Three sides in the beginning of August, French army was defeated at Bismarck and Prussian army reached Alsas. On 18th August the French Army was defeated again Prussian army marched forward. On 1st September 1870 a very important and decisive war was fought in Sedan in which Prussia inflicted such a stupendous defeat on The French army that Napoleon iii had to surrender with his 8300 soldiers.

A Self –appointed group of republicans proclaimed at the city hall The disposition of the Europe or and The establishment of a republic The Third Republic on 4th September 1870 The new republic decided to continue war German troops marched forward and reached Paris. On 18th January 1871 German Emperor William I was coronated by Bismarck in The famous place of Versailles. After the fall of Paris con 28th January 1871) The Franco- Prussian war came to an end Their after French leaders surrendered unconditionally and signed the treaty of Frankfurt on 10th Many 1871. As per the treaty France agreed to surrender Meize, strassberg, Alsace and Lorraine to Germany and to pay an indemnity of five billion Francs to Germany German troops were allowed to stay on the soil of France until the indemnity was paid.

The war of Sedan completed the task of the unification of Germany. In April 1871 a new German Constitution was enacted and all states of Southern Germany were merged in the German Federal Empire. Unified Germany became an influential and powerful Country of Europe. Bismarck too became the most influential politician not only of Germany but of Europe and influenced Europe for the next 20 years.

Discuss the Foreign Policy of Bismarck (1870-1890)

The European history after the unification of Germany and the Foundation of The German Empire in 1871 is known as the age of Bismarck. For the next two decades the diplomacy of Bismarck dominated the European politics He remained as the arbiter of European Politics during these 20 years.

The Foreign Policy of Bismarck was guided by The prevailing political Condition of Europe Bismarck directed his diplomacy after 1871 to maintain peace and to preserve The status quo of 1871 Bismarck knew that France would not forget the humiliation of 1871 . He also knew that France would try to take a revenge of this humiliation Bismarck also understood very well that France alone would not be able to challenge Germany. Therefore the isolation of France formed the corner stone of the foreign policy of Bismarck. Bismarck main object was to quarantine France diplomatically by preventing her from establishing close relations with Russia and Austria the two neighbors of Germany.

He realized that the creation of the German Empire in central Europe had disturbed the balance of power Any further attempt to extend German territory would be opposed by The European powers . It was wiser to consolidate the gains than to augment them. Them Hence Bismarck declared that Germany was a satiated country, she needs no further territory Bismarck was afraid that France might form some anti German Coalition with other European powers.

Discuss about the League of Three Emperors

Bismarck was a past-master in the art of diplomacy. He had concluded a complicated system of alliances. He tried to win over Russia, Austria, England and Italy to his side and keep France in isolation. It was not an essay task to draw Russia, Austria and Germany in an alliance. There was a good deal of mutual antipathy existing among them.

Bismarck was an artist in Politics. He ironed out the existing antagonism among these states by invoking the common monarchical ideology. He pointed out that the new born forces of Nihilism in Russia, Socialism in Germany and Communism in France posed great challenge to the European monarchies was Just as a holy Alliance of European monarchies was formed in 1815 to combat the forces of The French Revolution similar conservative alliance should be formed against The Red international.

Bismarck magnified the Red Terror before the rulers of Russia and Austria. In 1872 the Drine Kaiser Bund or the league of the Three Emperors i.e. of Austria Russia and Germany was formed. It was not a formal alliance but merely an entente. The league of the three Emperors had the great Significance because it could keep France isolated from Russia and Austria and Austria forgave her defeat of sadowa and drew closer to Prussia. Bismarck also nurtures the old Prusso- Russian Friendship which helped him very much before 1871.

Discuss about Franco- Prussian Relations

Even after isolating France, Bismarck did not neglect France completely. He tried to satiate her in an indirect way. Bismarck believed that so long a strong Republican Party ruled in France there was no possibility of its alliance with monarchical government of Russia and Austria due to ideological difference therefore he tried to keep Republican there in power.

Bismarck also tried to conciliate France by helping her to acquire new colonies so that she could forget the loss of Alsace and Lorraine. In 1875 The Franco- German relations suffered a violent jerk Mac Mohan, a royalist was elected as president. He had a plan to restore monarchy in France Bismarck feared that if a monarchy were restored in France it would pave The way for French alliance with The monarchies of Russia and Austria. The isolation of France would then be broken. The French government under Mac Mohan introduced an Army bill in 1875 with a view to reorganize the French army.

Bismarck apprehended that France was preparing for a war with Germany. Bismarck charged France of aggressive motive He threatened that unless France dropped that plan of army reform he would be forced to think of a war. Bismarck's deputy Redowitz declared, France economically restored and militarily prepared could find allies begin war or revenge he suggested that Germany should attack France before the French preparations were completed. This would be a preventive war.

Most of the great powers including Russia were against another Franco-German war. The Czar visited Berlin with his chief minister. Gortchakoff. Gortchakoff had a great dislike for Bismarck's policy which made Germany the Centre of all power .His vanity could not make him friendly to the German chancellor. He warned Bismarck in plain language that Russia would not like France to be attacked again. Bismarck had to eat his humble pie. The war scare which he had kicked up against France subsided. This war scare made a very bad impression on Bismarck's reputation. The net result of the war scare was that Russo-German relations became cold league of Three Emperors began to limp.

Berlin Conference of 1878 and Bismarck

At the same time a serious international crisis developed over the Eastern question. A congress under the president ship of Bismarck was summoned at Berlin in 1878 to solve the crisis Bismarck played the role of an honest broker in the congress. His real policy was to see that Germany's international position was not affected. He feared that if a war broke out between Austria and Russia over Balkan problem and if Austrian independence was threatened it would disturb Germany security. His sympathy lay with Austria to Seize Bosnia and Herzegovina in order to present the congress with a fail accomplice Bismarck was not eager for a satisfactory solution of the Eastern Question. He wanted to exploit in a Machiavellian manner for Germany advantage. He wrote to the crown prince that we should keep the Eastern was open.

The war-scare of 1875 and Bismarck's policy in congress of Berlin did a good deal of damage to Russian -German friendship. Bismarck felt humiliated at the Manner in which Gortchak off Compelled him to revise his policy towards France. He felt that Russia was no longer a dependable ally. The Czar on The other hand concluded that Germany had helped other European powers in The Berlin congress to rob him of his fruits of victory the czar was particularly offended by the Bismarck's sympathy for Austria against Russia. He regarded this as act of ingratitude. Bitterly incensed at Bismarck's policy the Czar withdrew from the Drie- Kaiser-Bond.

Dual alliance (1879)

After the failure of The League of Three nationals Bismarck formed an alliance with Austria He negotiated with the Austrian chancellor count Andrassy and concluded The Dual alliance between Germany and Austria in 1879. By the Austro- German treaty it was agreed that if one of signatories were attacked by Russia, The other would come to the help of her partner. If one of the Signatories was engaged in a war with a power other than Russia (meaning France) the other partner would remain neutral should, however the attacking power supported by Russia then the other signatory would come to the help of the ally with full strength. The treaty was to remain in force for 5 years and was renewable thereafter. The Dual Alliance of Bismarck became the chief plank of his foreign of Bismarck became the chief plank of his foreign policy. It was renewed several times up to 1914.



CHAPTER - 7**UNIFICATION OF ITALY****Condition of Italy in the beginning of 19th Century**

In the beginning of 19th century Italy was a mere geographical entity and as a political entity the state of Italy did not exist. There was no country known as Italy from political and cultural point of view. The Treaty of Vienna splintered Italy. There were eight major states in Italy and all were independent of one another.

In the north-west of Italy, there was the state of Sardinia – Piedmont which was governed by the Savoy dynasty. The regions of Lombardy and Venetia, located in the north-east Italy were under the control of Austria. Parma, Modena and Tuscany were independent states and they were ruled by the princes related to ruling dynasty of Austria. In the middle of Italian mainland, the Pope possessed an independent state. In Southern region, there were Naples and Sicily where the Bourbon Dynasty reigned.

Vienna Congress and Italy

After Napoleon's downfall the fate of Italy was decided in the Vienna Congress of 1815. The treaty makers who had assembled at Vienna paid no heed to the Italian national aspirations. They cut Italy into pieces like Dutch chesses and divided the parts among various powers.

Italy ceased to exist as a united land in the political map of Europe. Metternich remarked with satisfaction, "Italy is nothing more than a geographical expression".

Italy was divided by the congress of Vienna into five principal divisions. Austrian Italy comprising Lombardy and Venetia; the kingdom of Piedmont (Sardinia) under the house of Savoy; the papal states under the pope; the central duchies under the Hapsburg princes; the kingdom of Naples and Sicily (Two Sicilies) under a Bourbon King.

The Princes who were restored to their Italian throne after Napoleon's fall followed a policy of blind reaction and repression. They tried to blot out all the legacies of Napoleonic reforms and bring back the old system.

In Victor Emmanuel I of Piedmont said after his restoration that: "I have slept all the last 15 years." He tried to undo the beneficial reforms of Napoleon. His reactionary zeal drove him to adopt many absurd measures like destruction of the gas lights in the Turin theatre set up by French. Uprooting some plants of the Botanical garden because the French had planted them. Thus Italy not only lost her political unity; she also became a classic land of reaction after 1815.

Hurdles against the unification of Italy

For more than a thousand years Italy was patchwork of small states jealous of one another. Several attempts to weld the peninsula into a united kingdom had failed in the 19th century because more than one obstacle came in the way of Italian unity. The most serious obstacle was the foreign domination over Italy. The foreign dominance in Italy posed greatest hurdle in the way of unification of Italy. Italy was dominated by Austria in the North and the House of Savoy in the south. Lombardy and Venetia were under the direct control of Austria and Parma and Tuscany were governed by Austrian princes. Louise, the queen of Parma, was an Austrian princess. The only national dynasty was the House of Piedmont. Austria was very watchful against any spark of Italian nationalism. The military might of Austria was strong enough to crush any unity and liberation movement in Italy.

Geographical barriers of Italy also obstructed the process of her unification. Italy was roughly divided into three geographical regions i.e. north, central and southern Italy. The regional economic disparity

also hurdled the path of unification. Southern Italy was rural and devoid of development, while North Italy was a semi-industrial. Economically Italy was underdeveloped and backward comparatively. In the middle of the eighteenth century, Italy was an economically backward country. 80% of its population was engaged in agricultural pursuits. Its industrial growth was limited to handicrafts only. The work of industrial development and research was negligible. Scarcity of the means of transport was the main cause of industrial backwardness. In 1815, there was no trace of Industrial revolution in Italy. Therefore, land was still a valuable asset. Feudalism was still dominant in Italy and the nobility and feudal lords tried to strengthen themselves in Italy after the decline of Napoleon. The nobility feared that unification would eliminate their right over estates and they would lose influence.

The pope was determined to hold his reign over his state Rome. The kingdom of the pope in central Italy was another great obstacle to Italian unity. The papal kingdom running through central Italy divided the country into two parts. The catholic powers like Austria and France were generally sentimental supporters of papal kingdom. It was impossible to unite so long as papal kingdom existed in the heart of country.

The nationalists and the politicians of Italy did not have any harmonious plan for carrying out the unification of Italy. There were diverse ideas, diverse principles and diverse goals preached by them. It was not easy task to coordinate these ideas. Mazzini and Garibaldi wanted the unification of Italy as a republic, but Gioberti stressed upon a federal state.

Italy had not yet developed national consciousness. All its states followed their diverse traditions and customs. In the words of Metternich, in Italy, There stood a state, a city against a city, a family against other family and a man against a man. There was absence of national consciousness among the Italians in general. Though the Napoleonic rule created a sort of national consciousness among the Italian intellectuals, the masses of Italy were still unconscious of their nationalism.

Factors favorable to the Unification of Italy

Though there were number of hurdles in the way of Italian unification but the feeling of liberty, equality and patriotism were becoming stronger among the Italians over a period of time. The Italian patriots and supporters of democracy resolved to launch a combined struggle to achieve liberty and liberalism for Italy. Many secret institutions were established in Italy and Carbonari was the most prominent among them.

Before the end of the 18th century, certain prominent thinkers, such as Ferdinando Galioni, Cesare Beccaria, Pietro Verri started drawing Italy's attention of economic reforms. Economic and industrial reforms have been carried out by Carlo Emmanuel III in Sardinia between 1730 and 1733 and Ferdinand III in Tuscany between 1790 and 1829. Some reflective economists of Italy advocated the cause of economic reforms. They demanded freedom in Economic field, encouragement of national savings and investment, development of effective means of transport and import of technical knowledge from the developed industrial countries of Europe. It was the achievement of those reflective economists that Italians started perceiving the unification of Italy necessary for economic cooperation and unity. In the beginning of the nineteenth century, the concept of carrying out agronomical development played a remarkable role in the industrial development of Italy. Railway lines were, laid in the North-Western part of Italy and the use of steam engine was introduced. But the work of laying railway lines went on slowly. But the end of 1869, the length of the railway lines was 1623 km. In the beginning, Italy imported steam engines from England but soon it became self – dependent. In 1854, Italy manufactured the first railway engine in Genoa. The contribution of railways to the cause of unification of Italy can never be forgotten. The operation of railway trains not only influenced the economy of Italy but also aroused political awakening. The guild economic which collapsed by the end of 1845 brought about a great change in economic set-up of Italy. Italians were now convinced that only such creative steps could generate new industries and encourage effective economic processes.

Early Attempts towards the unification of Italy

A series of revolutionary movements conducted by secret agencies started in the second decade of the 19th century and secret society of charcoal burners was founded in 1810 in Naples. But its members belonged to

all Sections viz Nobles, military officers, farmers, priests and middle class people. That society set two goals— banishment of foreigners from Italy and establishment of freedom. It was inspired by the principles of the French Revolution.

Inspired by the revolts of 1820 in Spain, the public of Naples and piedmont asked their governments to frame a constitution. The first revolt broke out in Naples but it had hardly been suppressed when commotion started in Piedmont and Lombardy. Austrian troops crushed the uprising. Thus monarchy was again secured in Italy. But Italians turned violent when their demand for a constitution was turned down. The more the monarchy was orthodox and reactionary, the more liberalism, patriotism and nationalism increased in Italy.

By 1830, revolutionary sentiment in favor of a unified Italy began to experience resurgence and a series of insurrections laid the groundwork for the creation of one nation along the Italian peninsula. When there was a revolution in France in 1830, a revolt erupted in Italy. Violent demonstrations were staged in the Papal States. The rulers of Parma and Modena were banished from their states. Austria took extreme steps against these revolts immediately and the dethroned rulers were reinstated. In this way, Austria crushed the ambitions of national unity and independence of Italians twice. The failure of revolts of 1820 and 1830 taught a lesson to Italian leaders that their efforts for freedom and unity would bear no fruit until Austria's dominance was over.

As political, social and economic factors had great importance in the unification of Italy; writers, philosophers and critics also made praiseworthy contribution in cultural field. In 1832, Silvio Pellico contributed his ten years memoirs about Austrian prisons to the magazine *Le-Mie-Pricioni*. These memoirs convinced Italians that it was imperative to liberate Italy from atrocious Austria. In 1843, Gioberti advocated the cause of a federation of Italian states in his book *Moral and civil superiority of Italy*. There were some writers who thought that if all states were assimilated in Sardinia, Italy would emerge as a powerful and organized monarchy with Certainty. Some patriots wanted to get independence of Italy by means of liberal monarchy. They wished to liberate Italy from the foreign sovereignty under the leadership of Charles Albert – the ruler of Sardinia – piedmont Charles Albert implemented various economic and martial reforms and declared that whenever it becomes imperative, my life, my wealth, all my assets and belongings will be sacrificed on the altar of Italy. That declaration convinced the people that only he had the guts to steer the course of action towards the independence and unification of Italy.

After the death of Pope Gregory XVI (1846), Pius became the ninth pope. He was kind and liberal and had sympathy for those who wanted change in Italy and he himself took initiative. Political prisoners were released from Papal States and various reforms were implemented there. His liberal rule influenced other states.

Revolution of 1848 and Italy

Italy was naturally influenced by French Revolution of 1848. Consequently, national movement started there also. The revolution of 1848 in Italy aimed at implementing liberal economic reforms, constitutional rule and achieving unification and independence of Italy by hook or by crook. First of all, the reformists in the states of Naples and Sicily started revolts and demanded a constitution. Ferdinand II, the ruler of Naples adopted a reformist constitution Constitutional monarchy was also established in Piedmont, Tuscany and papal states in March, 1848. It was unanimously accepted by all that Austrian yoke must be removed from Italy's shoulders. Happenings of Vienna caused a revolt in Milan and its viceroy fled away. The rule of Austria was overthrown from Venice also and the republican rule was established there. The rulers of Parma and Modena too fled away. Now, all people of different thoughts resolved to start war against Austrian rule and liberate themselves. Count Cavour who was editor of the newspaper *Risorgimento* addressed the nation by appealing that it is the occasion to take the crucial decision in the interest of Sardinia Charles Albert, The Emperor of Sardinia also read the appeal on 23rd March, 1848 he declared war against Austria. Pope and Ferdinand, the ruler of Naples were compelled by the citizens to take part in the war of Italy's independence. This struggle assumed the shape of a national war. Austria met defeats at several places. Unfortunately, the wave of Italy's unification proved to be a short – lived dream. Pope withdrew his support and Ferdinand followed suit.

Charles was left alone and had to surrender to Austria. In consequence of it, Lombardy and Venetia were again subdued by Austria.

Mazzini came back to Italy during that period. He was the leader of republican extremists who had started steering the course of national movement. In February, 1849, a republican rule was established in Rome under the leadership of Mazzini. The sovereignty of pope came to an end and pope himself had to take shelter in Naples. Tuscany also went republican and its rulers, Leopold had to flee from there Charles Albert, the ruler of piedmont started struggle against Austria. But on 23rd March, 1849, his army was defeated at Novara. Charles abdicated and his son Victor Emmanuel II becomes the ruler of piedmont. He had to settle a treaty under which Lombardy was conceded to Austria.

After the end of war at Novara, entire Italy started seething with dissatisfaction. Ferdinand resumed power in Naples and Sicily. Tuscany came under Leopold. Pope resumed his sovereignty in Rome with the help of Louis Napoleon. In August, 1849, Austria took possession of Venice and established her sovereignty over Italy again. Mazzini and Garibaldi had to flee from their country. Thus the efforts for unification and independence of Italy ended in fiasco. However the seeds of success were hidden under this failure. The rein of leadership for fresh war of independence was now taken by the Dynasty of piedmont.

The forces which impeded the cause of the unification of Italy were exposed to the public. Many national leaders were striving to weed them out. Italy had a fight against Austria, pope and monarchy. Secret agencies, writers, Mazzini, past revolts and revolutions kept the spirit of revolution for the independence of Italy alive in the minds and hearts of Italians. But nobody presented a realistic approach for the unification of Italy, which was ultimately devised by Victor Emmanuel and Cavour.

Role of Mazzini and young Italy

Mazzini laid the foundation of Italy's unification and inculcated among Italians the thoughts of patriotism, duty and sacrifice. He was a poet, an idealistic thinker and a pioneer of revolution. He was the spiritual force of the Italian resurrection. Mazzini perceived the truth that the unification of Italy could be achieved and he communicated his belief to the public. Mazzini roamed in England and France, but continued writing articles, addressing and inspiring his countrymen.

Mazzini was a republican and he wished his country, when united to be a republic. He did not for a moment believe that the solution of the Italian problem lay in combining the existing states into a federation.

All the efforts made for the unification of Italy till 1830, were a total fiasco. Italian patriots had to succumb to defeat against Austria's invincible strength. At such a crucial time, a great person appeared and ignited new awakening among Italians. That glorious person was none but Mazzini. He dreamt of Italy's independence and hoped that he would emancipate and lead Italy. In his interesting and marvelous biography, Mazzini has disclosed that as a child he had resolved to always put on black clothes because he felt himself wailing over the miserable condition of his country.

He participated in the revolution of 1830 and after the suppression of the revolution; he was arrested and sent to prison in Spielberg fort. Then he was exiled from Italy. He came to France in 1830 and founded a society under the name of young Italy which aimed at infusing the spirit of fraternity among Italians. Young Italy was a secret institution with a well defined aim and a definite programme to achieve it. It relied on the principles of progress and commitment. Significant words like unity and independence were printed on one side of its flag and on the other side it had holy principles of French Revolution: Liberty, equality and fraternity—Mazzini declared that “to start revolution in the society, hand over the leadership to the young. Immense power lies dormant in the heart of young people”. He had a definite goal to educate people and convince them that Italy is a perfect nation. In 1835, Mazzini wrote that we are proud of all those political, scientific and intellectual traditions of ours which have glorified the history of Europe. But we have neither a national flag, nor a political name we are scattered among eight states. We do not enjoy freedom and foreigners have kept us bound in the chains of Slavery.

Through young Italy, Mazzini specified his goals clearly as the realization of Italy's unity and independence and integration of Italy into a well – organized state based on the ideals of Liberty, equality and public welfare. Inspired by Mazzini's efforts, a number of courageous young men came forward to make any sacrifice for the unity of Italy. He imparted martial training to young men. The number of members of young Italy reached 60,000 in two years. Italy's war of independence had knocked the doors of new epoch. Later Cavour could work on the ground prepared by Mazzini. The sense of unity i.e. mental unity among the Italians developed by the works of Mazzini greatly helped Cavour's attempt for political union later.

Role of Garibaldi (1807–1882)

Giuseppe Garibaldi was born on 1807 in Nice. He travelled for ten years on merchant ships and acquired sufficient experience of Mediterranean expeditions. During those voyages, Garibaldi met Italian patriots who kindled in him a desire for the freedom of Italy. He came in Contact with Mazzini and being impressed by his noble ideals joined young Italy. Garibaldi took a leading part in the young Italy movement of 1833-34.

He joined the Sardinian navy with a view to win over the sailors to the plot hatched by Mazzini. In 1833, he participated in the naval conspiracy. He was arrested and sentenced to capital punishment but somehow escaped to South America. He stayed there for fourteen years and learnt the technique of guerrilla warfare.

On hearing of the revolution of 1848, he came back to Italy and took part in the war against Austria under the leadership of Charles Albert. As Charles Albert was cold towards him, Garibaldi went to Milan and fought against Austria with a private army. After the fall of Milan to the Austrians, he retired to Rome where Mazzini had set up a republican government. The defense of Rome fell upon Garibaldi. He tried to defend Rome fighting to the last against the French troops but his efforts ended in failure and he escaped and reached Tuscany. From Tuscany he came to piedmont and ultimately, went to America with some of his supporters. He lived in America for Six years and came back to Italy in 1854 after earning a lot of money.

In 1856, he met Cavour for the first time and was impressed by his thoughts to the extent that the offered his services to the ruler of Sardinia in 1857. Though he remained a republican at heart, he adopted the cause of the Sardinian monarchy and Italian union under it. It converged the diverse currents of Italian Liberation and helped the cause of unification. It was largely use to Garibaldi's influence that many Italians patriots accepted the alliance of Sardinia with Napoleon III for the liberation of Italy that Austria. During the wars of Italian liberation, Garibaldi was entrusted with the command of a Sardinian regiment which won great success in the battlefield. Garibaldi was then a well – known national figure.

The unification of Naples and Sicily could become possible only due to the undying spirit and hard work of Giuseppe Garibaldi. After Union of central Italy, Cavour failed to make any plan for the union of south Italy. When Cavour's diplomacy became bankrupt, it was the Garibaldi who showed the way. He led the revolutionaries in Sicily against the Bourbon king. He routed out the foreign ruler from Naples and Sicily and this enabled the unification of Southern Italy with the rest of the Nation.

Role of Victor Emmanuel II

Victor Emmanuel II was a great warrior, true patriot and honest ruler. When he became the ruler of piedmont Sardinia in March, 1849, Austria had defeated the troops of Sardinia. Hence he had to sign a treaty with Austria for which he was vehemently opposed in the parliament of Sardinia. Austria exercised pressure on victor to quash the constitution of 1848, but he kept the constitution alive. In August, 1849, a treaty was concluded between Austria and Sardinia. To get it ratified by the parliament of Sardinia, victor Emmanuel had to seek general elections.

Victor Emmanuel was confident that by following a compromising policy he could carry out the unification of Italy under the aegis of Sardinia. He was fortunate enough to find out a meritorious minister count Cavour who's reckoned as the greatest politician of the nineteenth century.

He gave full support to Cavour for initiating liberal reforms. The king always had a second judgment

and sympathetically Understood Cavour's problems. By the pact of Plombiers, he agreed to marry his 16 years old daughter to the aged cousin of Napoleon III for the sake of his country's interests.

Cavour died in 1861 and at the time of his death Venetia was under Austria and Rome was under French control these two areas were united to Italy by king victor Emmanuel II through his sagacity and visionary efforts.

Role of Cavour (1810-61)

Count Cavour was born in 1810 in a noble family of turn. He visited England and studied the parliamentary set – up there. After returning back he started making efforts for the implementation of parliamentary set-up in his own country.

In 1847, Cavour started the publication of a newspaper called the *Il Risorgimento*. People started talking about the unification of Italy through that newspaper. In 1848, he was elected a member of the first Parliament of Sardinia— Piedmont. He was assigned the Ministry of Finance and Industries in 1850. He was convinced that economic progress and powerful army were two vital forces for the unification of Italy. In 1852, he became Prime Minister and a new chapter opened in the History of Italy. He proved himself to be an extraordinary diplomat and marvelous politician of his time. Like Mazzini and Garibaldi, Cavour also was a true patriot and had determined to see Italy independent and unified. He was alive to the fact that the unification of Italy could be materialized under the aegis of Sardinia and the liberation of Italian states from the dominance of Austria was essential for this purpose. He also knew that foreign help was imperative to liberate Italy from Austria.

Cavour fostered the ideals of liberal monarchy and did not have any sympathy for Mazzini's republican views and revolutionary measures. But he synthesized the thoughts of both Mazzini and Garibaldi. With the appointment of Count Cavour as the Prime Minister of Sardinia – Piedmont the process of Italian unity began in true sense. He prepared the platform for unification of Italy with the help of his domestic and foreign policy.

Domestic Policy of Cavour

Prime Minister Cavour put his heart and Soul into the work of strengthening Piedmont by means of a series of reforms. Cavour made remarkable efforts for the economic development of his state. For the advancement of trade and Commerce, he adopted the policy of free trade and encouraged foreign trade, extended the facilities of transport and opened banks. He negotiated commercial treaties with France, England and other nations. He modernized the financial system and encouraged agriculture. He established cooperative committees and built various societies for the growth agriculture. He also deprived church of its several special privileges. He imposed tax on the Land under the church and Tried to bring the church under political control.

Numerous railways were built; and he even established a line of steamships between Genoa and America. He dissolved the monasteries, abolished feudal inequalities, and special privileges of the clergy.

He also paid attention to the army and made General La-Marmorra commander-in-chief. He raised a well equipped army of 90,000 soldiers. He built new fortress and strengthened the old ones. He also strengthened the naval force.

He suppressed all religious orders that were not engaged in nursing, preaching, or education and established civil marriage. However; these political measures were not impelled by feeling of hostility of the clergy. Without the efficient modernization of Piedmont the union of Italy could not have been achieved. Cavour's domestic policy proved to be a great success. He received cooperation from all sections and made Piedmont a solid, Prosperous and ideal state. Within 10 years during 1850-1860, he made wonderful progress in Sardinia became the foremost state in Italy.

Foreign Policy of Cavour

Cavour was practical and positive in his outlook. Then main objective of Cavour's foreign policy was to overthrow the sovereignty of Austria. He held that Austria must be driven out of Italy as a first step towards

Italian unification. Cavour had discerned that Austria would not give up its hold on Italy without war. Therefore, foreign help had become imperative for Italy because Sardinia-Piedmont could not accomplish this alone. It was essential to take the help of a great military power of Europe to force Austria out of Italy. Therefore he wanted to win over at least one big European power in his favour. Therefore, he was in search of help of some effective European power. Cavour knew that but it must be either Britain or France.

Cavour would have preferred British help, for Britain was generally sympathetic to the cause of liberal nationalism in Italy but a definite help was not expected of her. As a matter of foreign policy, Britain would not help Italy with military support. Britain desired the maintenance of Austria to hold the balance of power between France and Russia. Therefore, the most that Cavour could expect from Britain was her neutrality. On the other hand, France was supposed to have the best army in Europe. Her ruler, Napoleon III, sympathized with the Italian cause. Napoleon III was ambitious, courageous and a supporter of nationalism. So Cavour tried to seek help from Napoleon III.

Crimean war and the Unification of Italy:

It is often said, Italy took birth from the mud of Crimea. Crimean war was fought in 1854 on the coast of Black Sea between Russia and Turkey. In this war, England and France extended help to Turkey against Russia. The Crimean war gave Cavour an opportunity of extending cooperation of England and France. In January, 1854, Cavour made up his mind to extend help to French and British troops which were fighting against Russia. By the end of April, 1854, as many as 18,000 brave Italian soldiers reached Crimea, which strengthened the allied troops. Cavour took part in the war because he wanted that Sardinia should be reckoned among important states of Europe and the question of the unification of Italy should become internationalized. In this political gambling Cavour was confident of earning sympathy from the French ruler Napoleon III.

After the end of the war, a conference was convened at Paris in March 1856 and Sardinia was invited by England and France to attend it. In the conference Cavour painted the miserable condition of Italy in an impressive way and held Austria responsible for it. Thus Cavour converted the problem of Italy into a European problem. This increased his prestige not only in Sardinia — Piedmont but in entire Italy.

After the end of Paris Conference, Austria mitigated the severity of rule in Lombardy and Venetia and in January, 1857, Emperor Francis Joseph visited some provinces of Italy and made his brother, Maximilian the governor of Lombardy — Venetia. But his changed policy did not conciliate Italian patriots who wanted Austria to leave Italy.

The First Phase of the Unification of Italy

Cavour perceived that the cooperation of France was indispensable to win the future war of Italian independence. He was waiting for an opportunity when Orsini's episode occurred. In 1858, Mazzini's republican pupil Orsini tried to assassinate Napoleon III. Napoleon III had a very narrow escape, although some of his bodyguards were killed in the attack. Cavour condemned the crime committed by Orsini and as desired by Napoleon III imposed severe censorship upon newspapers. Napoleon was very much impressed by Orsini's letter in which he had prayed him to do something for the independence of Italy. The policy of Cavour during Orsini's episode brought Napoleon III closer to Cavour.

Napoleon III wanted to cooperate with Cavour in Italy's national movement for many reasons. Napoleon had been there in carbonari and had participated in the struggle for Italy's independence in his early life. Besides, he claimed himself to be the Messiah of the nationality of downtrodden countries. He wanted to finish Austria's dominance over Italy and take revenge on his enemy for the humiliation caused in 1815 to his dynasty and France.

Cavour reached Plombières where Emperor Napoleon III had been staying for a month. As a result of a meeting between them an agreement known as the Plombières Pact was concluded between France and Sardinia. According to the Plombières Pact Napoleon III promised to send 2 lakh soldiers to help Piedmont in case Sardinia started war against Austria in order to expel Austria from Italy. Lombardy, Venetia and other parts will remain with Sardinia after the expulsion of Austria. Cavour assured Napoleon to concede the regions of

Savoy and Nice to France in lieu of Napoleon's help to Sardinia. A new state would be carved in Italy by merging Aumbria and Tuscany and Prince Jerome Bonaparte would become its ruler. Naples and Sicily as well as Papal States would enjoy their earlier sovereignty. Victor Emmanuel's daughter Clotilde would be married to Napoleon's Cousin Prince Jerome Bonaparte in order to strengthen the bond of friendship between France and Sardinia.

Austro - Sardinian War

Cavour started preparations for war from the time he came back from plombiers. The newspapers of Piedmont started criticizing Austria vehemently. Cavour's intention was to instigate Austria for war. Cavour prompted people to revolt in Austrian colonies of Mantua and Ferrara situated in Italy. The situation became tense and it seemed that a war between Sardinia and Austria had become inevitable. On 23rd April, 1859, Austria sent an ultimatum to Sardinia to recede its troops in three days failing which a war would be declared against Sardinia. Cavour's dormant hopes shone suddenly. On 29th April, Austria's troops entered the boundary of Sardinia and war started. Austria became aggressor in the eyes of Europe and lost sympathy of European states. In May France too declared war against Austria and in favour of Sardinia.

The combined forces of France and Sardinia defeated Austria at Montebello on May 20, at Palestro on May 30, and at Magenta on June 4 successively. Milan was also defeated after a few days. On June 24th combined forces got victory at Solferino. In consequence of these defeats, Austria was constrained to leave Lombardy region. It seemed at that time that Sardinia would also take possession of Venetia but Napoleon III declared cease-fire abruptly without consulting Sardinia.

France withdrew from the war because French forces had sustained considerable loss in this war. Napoleon realized that the establishment of a powerful state along the South-East border would pose danger to France. The Roman Catholics of France did not want to continue war because Sardinia's expedition of victories could endanger the position of the pope. Napoleon had also realized that Austria's strength had not been broken despite so many defeats and Prussia was thinking of waging war in favour of Austria. Napoleon was not in a position to fight against the combined forces of both the countries.

The truce of Villa Franca (July 11, 1859)

In July, 1859, Napoleon III met Emperor of Austria Francis Joseph at Villa Franca and settled the conditions of armistice. According to this truce Lombardy will be given to Sardinia but Venetia would remain with Austria. The rulers of the Central Italian states of Parma, Modena and Tuscany should be restored. Italy will be converted into a federation under the presidency of the pope and Venetia will become a part of that Italian federation.

This Armistice shattered hopes of Cavour and Italians. Austria maintained its sovereignty over Venetia because of the Treaty which was detrimental to Italy. Shocked Cavour tendered his resignation. Victor Emmanuel too was displeased with that treaty. But he was wiser than his meritorious premier and could assess the gravity of the situation clearly. He held that when European powers had approved the right of Italy over Lombardy, Italy had moral right over Venetia too.

On November 10, 1859, Emmanuel in company with Austria and France signed the Zurich Treaty which ratified Villa Franca Armistice and established legal right of Piedmont over Lombardy. With it, the first phase of the unification of Italy came to an end.

The second phase of the unification of Italy

During this phase the states of central Italy were united with Piedmont - Sardinia. Cavour came back to his post of premiership again in 1860. He commented that 'They have stopped me from making Italy by diplomacy from the North; I will make it by revolution from the south. At the same time, the people of central Italy expelled the rulers of Parma, Modena and Tuscany. People removed the representatives of the pope from Bologna, Romagna and established temporary governments there. Those regions passed a resolution and decided to merge with Sardinia.

The liberal government of England which had sympathy for the ambitions of Italy adopted the policy of non-interference and declared that Italians had a right to solve their problems themselves. Austria and Prussia wanted to the reinstall previous rulers on the thrones of central Italy but they could not do anything in the prevailing atmosphere. Cavour bargained with Napoleon III on the question of Italy. It was decided that France would not raise objection on merging the states of Italy into Sardinia only if Nice and Savoy provinces were given to him.

In the middle of March 1860, through a referendum Parma, Modena, Tuscany, Bologna and Piyokenja decided to merge with Sardinia. The public of Nice and Savoy also voted for merger with France. Separation of Nice and Savoy from Italy was severely criticized. The area of Sardinia — Piedmont was doubled in that bargain. An Italian state was created comprising all regions of North Italy and Central Duchies except Venetia. With it the Second phase of Italy's unification ended.

Third phase of the unification of Italy

Naples, Sicily, Venetia and Rome were still out of reach of Italy. Italy still, had to capture the remaining half of the peninsula. Naples and Sicily were greatly influenced by the Austro — Sardinian war of 1859 and violent uprisings had taken place there also. The people of those states were dissatisfied as their rulers were of foreign origin. The public of Sicily was against the despotic rule of Bourbon dynasty. The patriots of Sicily requested Garibaldi to lead their mission. Garibaldi agreed to help them on Condition that they should rise in revolt in the name of victor Emmanuel and Italy.

On 4 April, 1860, revolt broke out near Masina although the French troops suppressed it. Garibaldi made up his mind to help Sicily. Cavour too wanted to help Sicily, but he could not do so openly for fear of breaking international laws. Therefore, externally he demonstrated his neutrality, but extended help to Garibaldi and Sicily secretly.

On May 5, 1860, Garibaldi Marched forward from Genoa to Sicily. On May, 11 with his famous Red Shirt volunteers Garibaldi reached Marsala on the West Coast of Sicily Island. On many, 15 he defeated the troops of Naples at Keltapheme, took possession of Palermo and by the end of June, established his dominance over Sicily and declared him self to be the sovereign of Sicily. But Garibaldi's stupendous achievements put many troubles at the door of Cavour who suspected that Garibaldi would make the Conquered territories republic under the influence of Muzzini. Cavour wanted to employ Garibaldi's success in favour of Italy so he proceeded with great Circumspection. In his message to Garibaldi, Cavour asked him to merge Sicily with north Italy but Garibaldi refused to do so. Cavour sent a few selected volunteers to Sicily and Naples. They succeeded in preparing consensus in favour of the merger of Naples with North Italy. On Cavour's advice, Admiral Parsano persuaded the fleet to Naples to act in favour of Italy.

On August 19, 1860, Garibaldi attacked Naples. He was in a better position than earlier because he had mustered the mass support and success had elevated the morale of his army. Napoleon III wanted to thwart Garibaldi's progress and sent a proposal to England to prevent Garibaldi from not reaching north of Sicily but Great Britain rejected that proposal and Garibaldi got the change of marching forward smoothly to Naples. All efforts made by Francis II to prevent Garibaldi ended in failure and the ruler of Naples fled to Geetta. Garibaldi marched forward without any hindrance and declared him self to be the sovereign of Naples. He appointed Bertain, the supporter of Mazzini as the minister of the state.

Goaded by the tide of enthusiasm, Garibaldi resolved to subjugate Venetia and Rome. But Cavour made a firm determination to finish Garibaldi's efforts. He decided to have Papal States attacked by the army of piedmont in order to defend Rome from the dominance of Garibaldi. Napoleon allowed Cavour to engineer attacks on the Papal States on Condition that Rome should be spared. Cavour found the path clear. On September 29, Sardinia took possession of Aumbria and Marches – Garibaldi was marching forward but the troops of Naples obstructed his march and held him for many days. By the end of October, the public of Naples, Sicily and the Conquered Papal States voted for merger into the state of North Italy. It strengthened Cavour's position. On the other hand, Garibaldi was convinced that he would not succeed in his mission

without the help of Italian forces. He accepted Emmanuel as a rule of Italy and— surrendered his rights and force to him. On 7th November, 1860 Victor Emmanuel was declared the rule of combination Italy. With the merger of the states of southern region the third phase of the unification of Italy come to an end on 18th February 1861. The first session of Italian parliament was held at Turin and was attended by all the representatives of Italy except those from Venetia and Rome. Victor Emmanuel II was accepted as the rule of Italy and Sardinia became a state of Italy. The parliament accepted to Cavour's proposal for making Rome the capital of Italy.

Fourth Phase of the Unification of Italy

Except Rome and Venetia, unification of Italy had been complete. The fate of Rome and Venetia was still connected with international circumstances. In 1866, Italy got an opportunity to acquire Venetia. Chancellor Bismarck of Prussia was making preparations for war against Austria and required Italy's cooperation in this venture. In April, 1866, a treaty was signed between Bismarck and Emmanuel, which provided that Venetia would be annexed to Italy in lieu of Italy's help to Prussia during war against Austria. On 14th June, 1866 Prussia declared war against Austria. Emmanuel's army attacked Venetia from southward on 20th June while Prussia attacked Austria from North. Consequently, Austrian forces were divided. Although Italy fought with great courage and bravery, Austria frustrated Italy at several places. On the contrary, Prussia defeated her on 3rd July, 1866 in the battle of Sadowa. The victory of Prussia enabled the unification of Venetia to Italy and by means of referendum Venetia was merged into Italy.

Fifth Phase of the Unification of Italy

Without Rome, the condition of Italy looked like that of a body without heart. Rome was dominated by Pope and French troops were deployed there to protect him. In 1867, Garibaldi made efforts to acquire Rome but in Vain. The politicians of Italy were aware that Rome could not be acquired without the cooperation of France. When the war broke out between Prussia and France in 1870 Napoleon called his army back from Rome and on 20th September, 1870, King Victor Emmanuel II established his dominance over it. Referendum was carried out in Rome and it was merged into Italy and made the capital of united Italy. With the acquisition of Rome, Italy did not remain merely a Geographical entity but became an independent and sovereign nation.



CHAPTER - 8**THE RUSSIAN
REVOLUTIONS OF
1905 & 1907****The 1905 Revolution and its Aftermath**

The 1905 Revolution had its roots in the Russo-Japanese War, which had begun in February of 1904. Advisers to the Tsar, Nicholas II, had viewed it as an excellent way to improve Russia's position in the Pacific and to encourage patriotic feeling at home. Instead, Russia suffered a series of humiliating defeats at the hands of the Japanese, a supposedly backward nation, and these setbacks led to unrest at home. On January 22, 1905, a crowd of peaceful demonstrators gathered before the Tsar's Winter Palace in St. Petersburg—but the Tsar was absent, his ministers displayed uncertainty, and soldiers sensing the tension gunned down the marchers. Hundreds died in a massacre that came to be known as “Bloody Sunday,” and Russia plunged into chaos. A series of strikes swept the country, closing banks, halting trains, and paralyzing industry. Revolutionary leaders returned from exile, and workers' councils, known as “soviets,” sprang up in Moscow and St. Petersburg. In rural areas, peasants burned manor houses and attacked landlords, and even political liberals joined the clamor, urging the Tsar to move the country toward representative government.

“The uprising has begun,” Lenin wrote in early February. “Rivers of blood are flowing; the civil war for freedom is blazing up.” The Third Social Democratic Party Congress was held in April and May, and this time Lenin dominated, stirring an enthusiastic response from the delegates as he leveled attack after attack on the Mensheviks. In December, he returned to Russia for the first time in five years, to take over the leadership of the Bolsheviks in St. Petersburg. By this point, however, the uprising's momentum was slowly dying out, as the Tsar had begun to address the people's concerns. Nicholas II, desperate to restore order, had made peace with Japan in September, and then issued the “October Manifesto,” promising civil rights and the formation of a legislative assembly, called the Duma.

This concession divided the opposition. The more moderate groups, especially the middle-class liberals, were satisfied with the promised reforms, and their support for revolutionary violence waned. Unrest continued among the peasantry and laboring classes, but the government felt sufficiently secure to arrest the leadership of the St. Petersburg Soviet, on December 16, and a subsequent uprising, in which a number of Bolsheviks took part, was brutally crushed.

Lenin denounced the “October Manifesto” as nothing but empty promises (which, in fact, it may have been), and although orders were out for his arrest, he managed to avoid imprisonment after returning to Russia. In December he went to Finland, which, although officially under the Tsars' control, maintained its autonomy and therefore served as a haven for dissidents. There, he attended a conference of Russian Bolsheviks in the town of Tammerfors, and met for the first time a young Bolshevik named Joseph Stalin, known at the time as “Koba,” after a famous Georgian bandit. As unrest diminished in the spring of 1906, the Social Democrats met for their Fourth Congress in Stockholm, where an attempt was made to bridge the gap between Mensheviks and Bolsheviks. The divide persisted, despite Lenin's best efforts, but even without the Mensheviks' support Lenin enjoyed high prestige. He returned to St. Petersburg on May 9 and addressed a crowd three thousand strong at the house of a sympathetic noblewoman. On July 8, the Tsar dissolved the first Duma, prompting a new series of uprisings, and again it seemed that revolution might be at hand. The Bolsheviks called for a general strike and a withholding of tax-payments, but the population, weary after the violence of 1905, did not respond, and the Tsar's government struggled on. After dissolving a second Duma in June of the following year, the Tsar finally allowed a Third Duma to hold a number of sessions between 1907 and 1912. During this period, the Tsar's government found a clever, politically shrewd leader in Peter Stolypin, a cagey conservative who mixed tight political control with “reforms” designed to bring the propertied

classes into an alliance with the monarchy.

With hopes of immediate revolution receding, Lenin remarked, “this is the beginning of a reaction which is likely to last twenty years, unless there is a war in the meantime. That is why we must needs go abroad and work from there.” The Fifth Party Congress, held in London in spring of 1907, saw the Mensheviks gain a stronger position, as a number of Lenin’s favorite tactics were condemned, including “expropriation” (a euphemism for grand theft), which had been a source of Bolshevik funds for some time. (Indeed, only a few weeks after expropriation was officially disavowed, the funds from a huge robbery in the city of Tiflis [in Russian Georgia] were delivered directly to Lenin.) After the Congress, Lenin returned to Finland briefly, and from there he sailed for Western Europe in December 1907. He would not return to Russia for ten years.

RUSSIAN REVOLUTION OF 1917

Introduction

Russia witnessed a series of revolutions during the opening decades of 20th century. These revolutions were the product of long standing grievances of Russians people. The corrupt and inefficient rule of Tsar Nicholas II had resulted in all round decline of Russia various political and economic hardships were faced by The Public and the Tsarist administration did not try to eliminate the hardship of the people.

The revolutions of 1917 were the result of the combinations of a number of factors. It was the manifestation of Public discontentment against the inefficient and corrupt Tsarist regime of Russia. The existing regime of Russia had lost its efficacy. The revolutionaries sought to establish a democratic republic in Russia after removing the autocratic rule of Tsar Nicholas II

The revolutions of 1917 are still known in Russia as the February and October Revolutions. This is because the Russians were still using the old Julian calendar which was 13 days behind The Gregorian calendar used by the rest of Europe Russia adopted the Gregorian calendar in 1918.

Causes of The revolution

Political issues

The Russians were dissatisfied with the existing autocratic administrative system. Nicholas II was a deeply conservative ruler. He viewed his criteria of virtue- orderliness family and duty as both personal ideals for a moral individual and rules for society and politics. Individual and society alike were expected to show self-restraint, devotion to community and hierarchy and a spirit of duty to country and tradition. Religious faith helped bind all this together as a source of comfort and reassurance in the face of contradictory conditions as a source of insight into the divine will as a source of state power and authority indeed perhaps more than any other modern monarch, Nicholas II attached himself and The future of his dynasty to the myth of the ruler as saintly and blessed father to his people. This inspiring faith many historians have argued blinded him to the actual state of his country: Unable to believe that his power was not from God and that the Russian people were not as devoted to him as he felt he was to them he was unwilling to allow the democratic reforms that might have prevented revolution and when after the 1905 revolution he allowed limited civil rights and democratic representation he tried to limit these in every possible way, in order to preserve his autocratic authority.

One of Nicholas’ reasons for going to war in 1914 was his desire to restore the prestige that Russia had lost during the Russo- Japanese war. Also. Nicholas Empire consisted of people of many diverse ethnicities and he hoped to galvanize them under a single banner by directing military force at a common enemy namely Germany and the central power. A common assumption among his critics is that he believed that by doing so he could also distract people from the ongoing issues of poverty inequality and poor working condition that were sources of discontent instead of restoring Russia political and military standing world war I led to horrifying military casualties on the Russians side and undermined The condition of The country further.

Social Causes

The social causes of The Russian Revolution mainly came from centuries of oppression of the lower classes by The Tsarist regime and Nicholas' failures in World War I while rural agrarian presents had been emancipated from serfdom in 1861, they still resented paying redemption payments of the states and demanded communal tender of the land they worked. The problem was further compounded by the failure of Sergei writer land reforms of The early 1900s Increasing peasant disturbances and sometimes full revolts occurred with the goal of securing ownership of The land they worked Russia consisted mainly of poor farming peasants with 15% of The population owning 25% of The land At the start of 1917 The condition were ripe for revolution in Russia. Peasant had migrated to urban industrial centres from villages in large numbers in the search of employment due to economic hardships in rural Ares. This relocation had created a growing urban labour force. A middle class of white collar employees businessmen and professional (the latter group comprising doctors, lawyers, teachers, journalists, engineers etc) was on the rise Even nobles had to Find new ways to subsist in this changing economy and contemporaries spoke of new classes forming (proletarians and capitalists for examples) although these classes were also divided along crisscrossing lines of status gender age, ethnicity and belief

If anything it was becoming harder to speak of clearly –defined social groups or boundaries. Not only were groups fractured in various ways, their defining boundaries were also increasingly blurred by mingling peasants workers intellectuals gentry professionals and the like almost everyone felt that the texture of their lives was transformed by a spreading commercial culture which remade the surfaces of material life (building, store fronts, advertisements, fashion, clocks and machines) and nurtured new object of desire

By 1917 the growth of political consciousness the impact of revolutionary ideas and the weak and inefficient system of government (which had been debilitated further by its participation in World War I) should have convinced the emperor Nicholas II to take the necessary steps towards reform. In January 1917 in fact Sir George Buchanan the British Ambassador in Russia advised the emperor to “breakdown the barrier that separates you from your people to regain their Confidence. He received little response from Nicholas. This prevailing social dissatisfaction played important role in bringing about the revolution in Russia

Economic Factors behind the revolution

The failure of land reforms initiated by Stolypin had become clear by 1911. Because of this the economic hardship faced by common public continued. The rapid growth of the peasant population further worsened the conditions the farming method employed by the Russian peasants were too insufficient to support the growing population adequately. The assassination of Stolypin in 1911 removed one of the few really able Tsarist ministers and perhaps the only man who could have saved the monarchy

The industrialization of Russia also resulted in urban overcrowding and poor condition for urban industrial workers between 1890 and 1910 the population of the capital Saint Petersburg, swelled from 1,033,600 to 1,905,600 with Moscow experiencing similar growth. This created a new “proletariat” which due to being crowded together in the cities was much more likely to protest and go on strike than the peasantry had been in previous times. In one 1904 survey it was found that an average of sixteen people shared each apartment in Saint Petersburg with six people per room. There was also no running water and piles of human waste were a threat to the health of the workers. There was a wave of industrial strikes set off by the shooting of 270 striking gold – miners in the Lena goldfields (April 1912) In all there were over 2000 separate strikes in that year's 2400 in 1913 and over 4000 in the first seven months of 1914 before war broke out whatever improvement had taken place They were obviously not enough to remove all the Pre-1905 grievances The Tsarist government failed to realize the gravity of The continued without any change. The secret police rooted out revolutionaries among university students and lecturers and deported masses of Jews thereby ensuring that both groups were firmly anti – Tsarist the situation was particularly dangerous because the government had made the mistake of alienating Three of the most important sections in society – peasants industrial workers and intelligentsia.

Rasputin Affair

The royal family was discredited by a number of scandals. It was widely suspected that Nicholas himself was a party to the murder of Stolypin who was shot by a member of the secret police in the tsar's presence during a gala performance at the Kiev opera. Nothing was ever proved but Nicholas and his right wing supporters were probably not sorry to see the back of Stolypin who was becoming too liberal for their comfort.

More serious was the royal family's association with Rasputin, a self-professed holyman, who made himself indispensable to the Empress Alexandra by his ability to help the ailing heir to the throne, Alexei. This unfortunate child had inherited haemophilia from his mother's family and Rasputin was able on occasion apparently through hypnosis to stop the bleeding when Alexei suffered a haemorrhage. Eventually Rasputin became a real hindrance and his numerous affairs with court ladies. Alexandra preferred to ignore the scandals and the Duma's request that Rasputin be sent away from the court (1912).

Impact of World War- I

The outbreak of war in August 1914 initially served to quiet the prevalent social and political protests; focusing hostilities against a common external enemy but his patriotic unity did not last long. As the war dragged on inconclusively war-weariness gradually took its toll. More important though was this deeper fragility; although many ordinary Russians joined anti-German demonstrations in the first few weeks of the war the most widespread reactions appear to have been skepticism and fatalism. Hostility toward the Kaiser and the desire to defend their land and their lives did not necessarily translate into enthusiasm for the war or the government. Russia's first major battle of the war was a disaster; in the 1914 Battle of Tannenberg over 30,000 Russian troops were killed or wounded and 90,000 captured while Germany suffered just 20,000 casualties. In the autumn of 1915, Nicholas had taken direct command of the army personally overseeing Russia's main theatre of war and leaving his ambitious but incapable wife in charge of the government. Reports of corruption and incompetence in the imperial government began to emerge and the growing influence of Rasputin in the imperial family was widely resented. In the eyes of a revisionist historian who focuses on the role of the people Rasputin was a "Fatal disease" to the Tsarist regime.

In 1915 things took a critical turn for the worse when Germany shifted its focus at attack to the Eastern Front. The superior German army –better led, better trained and better supplied– was terrifyingly effective against the ill-equipped Russian forces. By the end of October 1916 Russia had lost between 1,600,000 and 1,800,000 soldiers with an additional 2,000,000 prisoners of war and 1,000,000 missing all making up a total of nearly 5,000,000 men.

These staggering losses played a definite role in the mutinies which began to occur and in 1916 reports of fraternizing with the enemy started to circulate. Soldiers went hungry and they locked shoes, munitions and even weapons. Rampant discontent lowered morale only to be further undermined by a series of military defeats.

Casualty rates were the most vivid sign of this disaster. Already by the end of 1914 only five months into the war nearly 400,000 Russian men had lost their lives and nearly 1,000,000 were injured. Far sooner than expected scarcely trained recruits had to be called up for active duty a process repeated throughout the war as staggering losses continued to mount. The officer class also saw remarkable turnover, especially within the lower echelons which were quickly filled with soldiers rising up through the ranks. These men, usually of peasant or worker backgrounds were to play a large role in the politicization of the troops in 1917.

The huge losses on the battlefields were not limited to men. The army quickly ran short of rifles and ammunition as well as uniforms and food and by mid-1915 men were being sent to the front bearing no arms; it was hoped that they could equip themselves with the arms that they recovered from fallen soldiers of both sides on the battlefields with patent good reason. The soldiers did not feel that they were being treated as human beings or even as valuable soldiers but rather as raw materials to be squandered for the purposes of the rich and powerful.

By the spring of 1915 the army was in steady retreat which was not always orderly; desertion, plunder and chaotic flight were not uncommon. By 1916 however the situation had improved in many respects. Russian troops stopped retreating and there were even some modest successes in the offensives that were staged that year albeit at great loss of life. Also the problem of shortages was largely solved by a major effort to increase domestic production. Nevertheless by the end of 1916 morale among soldiers was even worse than it had been during the great retreat of 1915. The fortunes of war may have improved by the fact of the war, still draining away strength and lives from the country and its many individuals and families remained and oppressive unavailability. The Crisis in morale was caused by Allah Wildman (a leading historian of The Russian army in war and revolution) was rooted fundamentally in the feeling of utter despair that the slaughter would ever end and that anything resembling victory could be achieved”

The war devastated not only soldiers. By the end of 1915 there were manifold signs that the economy was breaking down under the shortages and rising prices. Inflation shoved real incomes down at an alarmingly rapid rate and shortages made it difficult to buy even what one could afford. These shortages were especially a problem in the capital Petrograd (formerly the city of Saint Petersburg) where distance from supplies and poor transportation networks made matters particularly bad. Shops got closed partially or entirely for lack of bread, sugar, meat and other provisions and lines lengthened massively for what remained. It became increasingly difficult both to afford and actually buy food.

Not surprisingly strikes increased steadily from the middle of 1915 and so did crime; but for the most part people suffered and endured – scouring the city for food – working – class women in Petrograd reportedly spent about forty hours a week in food lines – begging, turning to prostitution or crime, tearing down wooden fences to keep stoves heated for warmth, grumbling about the rich and wondering when and how this would all come to an end. Government officials responsible of public order worried about how long the people's patience would last. A report by the Petrograd branch of the security police the *okhrana* in October 1916 warned bluntly of the possibility in the near future of riots by the lower classes of the empire enraged by the burdens of daily existence”

Nicholas was blamed for all of these crises and what little support he had left began to crumble. As discontent grew the State Duma issued a warning to Nicholas in November 1916. It stated that inevitably a terrible disaster would grip the country unless a constitutional form of government was put in place. In typical fashion however, Nicholas ignored them and Russia's Tsarist regime collapsed a few months later during the and his entire family were executed. Ultimately Nicholas accepted handling of his country and the war destroyed the Tsars and ended up costing him both his rule and his life.

February Revolution

This revolution broke out without definite leadership and formal plans which may be seen as indicative of the fact that the Russian people had quite enough of the existing system. Petrograd, the capital, became the focus of attention and on February 23 (March 8) 1917. People at the head of queues started a demonstration

They were soon joined by many thousands of women textile workers who walked out of their factories – Partly in Commemoration of international women's Day but mainly to protest against the severe shortages of bread. Already large numbers of men and women were on strike and the women stopped at any still operating factories to call on their workers to join them. The mobs marched through these streets with cries of “bread” and “Give us bread” During the next two days the strike encouraged by the efforts of hundreds of rank and file socialist activists spread to factories and shops throughout the capital. By February 25th virtually every industrial enterprise in Petrograd had been shut down together with many commercial and service enterprises. Students' white collar workers and teachers joined the workers in the streets and at public meetings whilst in the still active Duma Liberal and socialist deputies came to realize a potentially massive problem. They presently denounced the current government even more vehemently and demanded a responsible cabinet of ministers the Duma consisted primarily of the bourgeoisie pressed the Tsar to abdicate in order to avert a revolution.

On the evening of Saturday the 25th with police having lost control of the situation Nicholas II who refused to believe the warnings about the seriousness of these events sent a fateful telegram to the chief of

the Petrograd military district General Sergei Khabarovsk: I command you tomorrow to stop The disorders in the capital which are unacceptable in the difficult time of war with Germany and Austria, “ Most of The soldiers obeyed these orders on the 26th but mutinies often started by lower-ranked officers spread overnight. On the morning of the 27th workers in the streets many of them now armed were joined by soldiers sent in by the government to quell the riots. Many of these soldiers were insurgents however and they joined the crowd and fired on the police. The outnumbered police then proceeded to join the army and civilians in their rampage. Thus with this near total disintegration of military power in the capital effective civil authority collapsed.

By the night time on the 27th the cabinet submitted its resignation to the Tsar and proposed a temporary military dictatorship but Russia's military leaders rejected this course. Nicholas meanwhile had been on the front with the soldiers where he had seen first hand Russia's defeat at Tannenberg. He had become very frustrated and was conscious of the fact that the demonstration were on a massive scale: indeed he feared for his life. The ill health of his son (suffering from the blood disorder hemophilia) was causing him difficulties too. Nicholas accepted defeat at last and abdicated on 2 March hoping by this last act of service to his nation (as he stated in his manifestos) to end the disorders and bring unity to Russia in the wake of this collapse of the 300 year old Romanov dynasty- Nicholas's brother to whom he subsequently offered The crown refused to become Tsar unless that was the decision of an elected government : he wanted the people to want him as their leader. A minority of the Duma's deputies declared themselves a provisional Government chaired by Prince Lvov a moderate reformist- although leadership moved gradually to Alexander Kerensky of The Social Revolutionary Party.

The Period between February and October

After The success of February revolution most people in Russia expected that the autocracy of the Tsarist system will be replaced by a democratic republic with an elected Parliament the Duma struggling to take control set up a mainly liberal Provisional government with Prince George Lvov as prime minister. In July he was replaced by Alexander Kerensky, a moderate socialist. But the new government was just as perplexed by the enormous problems facing it as the Tsar had been. In November a second revolution took place which overthrew the provisional government and brought The Bolsheviks to power.

Although return to Russia for Lenin had become a possibility the war made it logistically difficult. Eventually. German officials arranged for Lenin to pass through their territory, hoping that his activities would weaken Russia or even- if the Bolsheviks come to power – lead to Russia's withdrawal from the war. Lenin and his associates however had to agree to travel to Russia in a sealed Train: Germany would not take the chance that he would foment revolution in Germany. After passing through the front he arrived in Petrograd in April 1917.

With Lenin's arrival, the popularity of The Bolsheviks increased steadily. Over the course of The Spring public dissatisfaction with the Provisional Government and the war. In particular among workers, soldiers and peasants pushed these groups to radical parties. Despite growing support of The Bolsheviks buoyed by maxims that called most famously for “all power to the soviets” The party held very little real power in the moderate dominated Petrograd soviet. In fact historians such as Sheila Fitzpatrick have asserted that Lenin's exhortations for the soviet councils to take power were intended to arouse indignation both with the Provisional Government whose policies were viewed as conservative and the soviet itself, which was viewed as subservient to the conservative government. By most historians' accounts, Lenin and his followers were unprepared for how their groundswell of support especially among influential worker and soldiers groups would translate into real power in summer 1917

On June 18, The Provisional Government launched an attack against Germany which failed miserably. Soon after the military was ordered by the Petrograd to go to the front reneging a previously made promise the soldiers refused to follow the new orders. The arrival of radical Kronstadt sailors, who had tried and executed many officers including one admiral, further fuelled the growing revolutionary atmosphere. The Sailors and soldiers along with Petrograd workers, took to the streets in violent protest calling for “all power

to the soviets” The revolt however was disowned by Lenin and the Bolshevik leaders and dissipated within a few days. In the aftermath, Lenin fled to Finland under threat of arrest while Trotsky, among other prominent Bolsheviks was arrested. The July Days confirmed the popularity of the anti-war radical Bolsheviks but their unpreparedness at the moment of revolt was an embarrassing factor which resulted in loss of support among their main constituent groups – soldiers and workers

The Bolshevik failure in the July Days proved temporary though. In August, poor, or misleading communication led General Lavr Kornilov, the recently appointed supreme commander of Russian military forces to believe that the Petrograd Government had been captured by radicals or was in serious danger thereof. In response he ordered troops to move to Petrograd to pacify the city and to capture the radicals. In order to secure his position Kerensky had to ask for Bolshevik assistance. He also sought help from the Petrograd soviet which called upon armed Red Guards to “defend the revolution” The Kornilov affair failed largely due to the efforts of the Bolsheviks whose influence over railroad and telegraph workers proved vital in stopping the movement of troops with his coup failing Kornilov surrendered and was relieved of his position. The Bolsheviks’ role in stopping the attempted coup immensely strengthened their position.

In early September, the soviet council freed the jailed Bolsheviks and Trotsky became chairman of the Petrograd soviet. Growing numbers of socialists and lower-class Russians viewed the government less and less as a force in support of their needs and interests. The Bolsheviks benefited as the only major organized opposition party which had refused to compromise with the provisional Government and they also benefited from growing frustration and even disgust with other parties, such as the Mensheviks and SRs, who stubbornly refused to break with the idea of national unity across all classes. In Finland Lenin had worked on his book state and revolution and continued to lead his party by writing newspaper articles and policy decrees. By October he returned to Petrograd aware that the increasingly radical city presented him no legal danger and a second opportunity for revolution. The Bolshevik central committee drafted a resolution calling for the dissolution of the Provisional Government in favor of the Petrograd soviet. The resolution was passed 10-12 (Lev Kamenev and Gregory Zinoviev prominently dissenting) and the October Revolution began.

Factors and Forces responsible for The Failure of the Provisional government

The Provisional government formed after the success of February revolution failed to counter the existing challenges successfully many factors and forces played important role in failure of the provisional government. It took the unpopular decision to continue the war but the June offensive Kerensky’s idea proved to be another disastrous failure. It caused the collapse of army’s morale and discipline and sent hundreds of thousands of deserting troops streaming home.

The effective power of the Provisional Government was challenged by the authority of an institution that chimed to represent the will of workers and soldiers and could in fact mobilize and control these groups during the early months of the revolution – the Petrograd soviet { Council } of workers’ Deputies. The government had to share power with it. The Petrograd soviet can elect committee of soldiers and workers representative) Which tried to govern the city other soviets appeared in Moscow and all the provincial cities when the Petrograd soviet ordered all soldiers to obey only the soviet, it meant that in the last resort the provisional government could not rely on the support of the army.

The relationship between these two major powers was complex from the beginning and shaped the politics of 1917. The representatives of the provisional Government agreed to “take into account the opinions of the soviet of workers’ Deputies” Though they were also determined to prevent “interference in the actions of the government, “which would create “an unacceptable situation of dual power” In fact, this was precisely what was being created, Though this “dual power” was the result less of the actions or attitudes of the leaders of these two institutions than of actions outside their control especially the ongoing social movement taking place on the streets of Russian cities in factories and shops in barracks and in the trenches and in the villages.

The moderate socialist leaders of the soviet also undermined the authority of the provisional Government. Although the soviet leadership initially refused to participate in the “bourgeois” Provisional Government,

Alexander Kerensky, a young and popular lawyer and a member of the social Revolutionary party (SRP) agreed to join the new cabinet and he became an increasingly central figure in the government eventually taking leadership of the provisional Government. Administer of war and later Prime Minister Kerensky promoted freedom of speech and released thousands of political prisoners. These Liberal measures strengthened the opponents of the provisional Government. The political group which proved most troublesome for Kerensky, and would eventually overthrow him was the Bolshevik party, led by Vladimir Lenin. Lenin had been living in exile in neutral Switzerland and, due to the democratization of politics after the February Revolution which legalized formerly banned political parties he perceived the opportunity for his Marxist revolution.

The government also lost popular support because it delayed election for a constituent Assembly (Parliament) which it had promised. The government argued that these were not possible in the middle of a war when several million troops were fighting to save the existence of the country. Another promise not kept was for land reforms i.e. The redistribution of land from large estates among peasants. Tired of waiting, some peasants started to seize land from landlords. The Bolsheviks were able to use peasant discontent to win support.

Meanwhile, Thanks to the new political amnesty, Lenin was able to return from exile in Switzerland (April). The Germans allowed him to travel through to Petrograd in a special seated train in the hope that he would cause further chaos in Russia. After a rapturous welcome he urged (in his April Theses) that The Bolsheviks should cease to support the provisional government that all power should be taken by the soviets and that Russia should withdraw from the war.

The growing economic chaos with rising inflation rising bread prices lagging wages and shortages of raw materials and fuel also played important role in sealing the fate of the provisional government. In the midst of all this Lenin and the Bolsheviks put forward what seemed to be a realistic and attractive policy; a separate peace with Germany to get Russia out of the war all land to be given to the peasants and more food at cheaper prices.

The Kornilov affair embarrassed the government and increased the popularity of the Bolsheviks. General Kornilov The army commander in chief viewed The Bolsheviks as traitors decided it was time to move against The soviet and brought troops towards Petrograd (August) However many of his soldiers mutinied and Kornilov was arrested. Army discipline seemed on the verge of collapse, public opinion swung against the war and in favour of the Bolsheviks who were still the only party to talk openly about making a separate peace.

By October they had won a majority over the Mensheviks and social Revolutionaries in both the Petrograd and Moscow soviets though they were in a minority in the country as a whole. Leon Trotsky (who had just become a Bolshevik) was elected chairman of the Petrograd soviet.

On 20 October urged on by Lenin the Petrograd soviet took the crucial decision to attempt to seize power. Trotsky made most of the plans which went off without a hitch. During the night of 6-7 November, Bolsheviks Red Guards occupied all key points and later arrested the provisional government minister except Kerensky who managed to escape. It was almost a bloodless coup; enabling Lenin to set up a new soviet government with himself in charge the coup was successful because Lenin had judged to perfection The moment of maximum hostility towards the Kerensky government. The Bolsheviks knew exactly what they were aiming for and were well – disciplined and organized whereas the other revolutionary groups were in disarray. The Mensheviks for example thought that the next revolution should not take place until the industrial workers were in a majority in the country.

October Revolution

The October Revolution was led by Vladimir Lenin and was based upon Lenin's writing on the ideas of Karl Marx a political ideology often known as Marxism – Leninism. It marked the beginning of the spread of Communism in the twentieth century. It was far less sporadic than the revolution of February and came about as the result of deliberate planning and coordinated activity to that end. Though Lenin was the leader of the Bolshevik party, It has been argued that since Lenin wasn't present during the actual takeover of the

winter place it was really trotsky's organization and direction that led The revolution spurred by the motivation Lenin instigated within his party. Critics on the Right have long argued that the financial and logistical assistance of German intelligence via their key agent Alexander parvis was a key component as well through historians are divided for the evidence is sparse.

On 24th October 1917 (In the night of November 6-7, 1917) The Bolsheviks executed the long planned coup and overthrew the Kerensky government. They Seized railways bridges telephones and banks of the capital. They also surrounded thje imperial palsace and captured it after some resistanjce Kerensky who had left a little earlier escaped but his ministers were arrested the peace– parliamentswas abolished and the passed on into the Ukraine and The Cossack. The Bolsheviks did not encounter much opposition and easily captured power.

The October revolution ended the phase of The revolution instigated in February replacing Russia short lived provisional parliamentary government with government by soviets local councils elected by bodies of workers and peasants. Liberal and monarchist forces loosely organized into the white Army immediately went to war against the bolsheviks Red army

The coup accomplished by the Bolsheivks with success was duly approved by all Russian congress of the soviet of workers and soldier's deputies which met on 25th October 1917. Next day the congress authorized the setting up of a new government under the chairmanship of Lenin.

The new government was to be known as of people commissars this confirmed that the Bolsheviks had acquired full control over the Petrograd and Moscow , However most of the country was still independent of control , This was accomplished during the next three or four years.

Soviet membership was initially freely elected by many members of the socialist – Revolutionary party anarchists and other leftists opposed the Bolsheivks through The soviets when it became clear that the Bolsheviks had little support outside of the industrialized aras of saint Petersburg and Moscow They barred non-bolsheviks from membership The soviets othe socialists revolted and called for "a third revolution "The most notable instance were the Tambov rebellion 1919-1921 and the kronstadt rebellion in March 1921. These movements which made a wide range of demands nad lacked coordination were eventually defeated along with the while army during the civil war.

Russian Civil War

The Russian civil war, Which broke out in 1918 shortly after The revolution, brought death and suffering to millions of people regardless of their political orientation. The war was fought mainly between the Red Army ("Reds") Consisting of radical communists and revolutionaries and The "Whites" – The monarchists, conservatives, liberals an moderate socialists who opposed The drastic restroturing championed by The Bolsheviks. The whites had backing from nations such as Great Britain, France, USA and Japan

Causes for the Victory of Bolsheviks

Despite trouble parts of the country and active intervention by the allied powers the Bolsheviks ultimately emerged successful. Many factors contributed to the victory of the Bolsheviks. The opponents of The Bolsheviks were disunited and failed to take simultaneous action. As a Result the Bolsheviks were able to send their forces on the front where they were most needed.

The control exercised by the Bolsheviks over the interior lines of Communications and railways greatly helped them in meeting the challenge from the foreign powers.

The Bolsheviks also carried on an effective propaganda against their enemies. This not only united the Bolsheviks supporters but also created dissensions in the ranked of the enemies.

The red army which was raised by the Bolsheviks fought with missionary zeal and this zeal greatly contributed to the ultimate victory of Bolsheviks the red army was fully backed by thousands of communist party members who were inspired by high sense of devotion and discipline and were willing to undertake task assigned to them by the party without any hope of reward.



CHAPTER - 9**WORLD WAR - I****The World War I & its Causes and Consequences**

In the early years of the twentieth century Europe was standing on a heap of explosives which need just one spark to go off. For the last half century events in Europe had been taking such a turn that it was no longer possible to maintain peace. Each European Country vied with the other in augmenting her arsenals. Such unpalatable events as the Franco- Prussian war, Berlin congress, Bulgarian Question, birth of Triple Alliance Russo- German Dispute, Naval Competition between England and Germany, Eastern Question, spirit of Imperialism, Morocco Crisis Sarajevo murder etc. were dragging the whole world towards a ferocious conflagration . By now Europe had been dividing into two hostile camps. The first camp of allied and Associated Powers Consisted of England ,France, Russia, Serbia, Japan, Portugal, Italy, U.S.A, Rumania, Greece, Siam, Siberia, Cuba, Panama, Brazil, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Cistercian, etc. The other camp of central powers consisted of Germany, Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey.

The War between Austria and Serbia which started after the murder of Archduke Francis Ferdinand on June 28, 1914 gradually developed into a world war. Almost all the nation and races of the world were dragged into this war.

Political situation on the Eve of the World War I

Almost all countries participated in the War fought between 1914 to 1918 It was an explosion of coeval political, economic and social condition obtaining in European states. It was a War between imperialists of the division of colonies. There were Some Subsidiary causes also which flared up the flames of War.

When the World War I broke out there were five great powers- Austria, France Britain, Prussia and Russia. Later Italy entered this group and Germany replaced Prussia. By the middle of the nineteenth century there was perfect balance of power which began to dwindle with the passage of time.

The period of 40 to 50 years before the World War I witnessed a keen competition among the states to increase their military strength to occupy new colonies in Asia and Africa and to redistribute the territories already captured coalitions for self-defense were being formed and military equipment was fast expanding. The European states were trying to consolidate their strength. Southern Slaves inside and outside Austria-Hungary wanted to unite in a Separate state and the Poles living in Austria, Russia and Germany wanted to establish a new state of Poland. Italy was not satisfied with her unification and was arousing the feelings of world conquest among its youth France was preparing to take revenge on Germany which in 1870 had deprived it of Alsace and Lorraine- its deposits of mineral wealth Germany therefore entered into friendly alliances with the neighbors' of France and strengthened her military power. It inculcated chauvinistic feelings among its youth and preached that war is a necessity in the absence of which the world begins to stagnate Germany Concentrated on increasing the strength of her navy and in 1882 signed Triple Alliance with Austria and Italy, Which provided that in case of invasion by a foreign power they would jointly retaliate it. Thus, Germany made her position strong.

Britain grew apprehensive of German militarism and signed treaties with Japan (1902), France (1904), Russia and France (1907). It ratified the treaty of 1893 which had bound Britain France and Russia against Bismarck.

The Balkan states were in a state of turmoil which alarmed the monarchy in the multi-racial Austria-Hungary. Serbia was the main eyesore because she wanted to organize all the slaves into a state. Bulgarian

ruler donned the title of Czar and Greece dreamt of an empire. The Balkan States were torn by religious and social problems also. The Christian rulers here wanted to overthrow the domination of the Islamic Turkey and for this Austria-Hungary were ready to extend their help Russia under this excuse wanted to expand till the Mediterranean but Britain did not like it. Russia also designed to increase its area of influence against Germany, Austria and Hungary in the near east and the Balkan states. The USA though a powerful nation did not cherish any imperialistic ambition. It kept aloof from the disputes of the world and did not want to disturb the balance of power in Europe. It sold arms to all European States but did not relish any interference in its own affairs Japan was rising as a power to reckon with.

Thus there was an atmosphere of apprehension and ribaldry and the War was in the offing.

The Causes of the First World War

Imperialism and Economic Competition: In the beginning of the twentieth century, the world made progress in two ways. The rich and industrialized countries were eager to earn more and more money and procure markets to sell their products. To meet their economic needs they needed more and more colonies France and Italy which were passing through a stage of balance between agriculture and industry wanted to establish hold on Asia, Africa and east European countries to invest their excess wealth and to dump their products. This led to a scramble for colonies by the end of the nineteenth century most of Africa had been shared out among European States. The major portion went to England and France. In the early part of the twentieth century commercial between England and Germany mounted up. The European powers scrambled for expending their economic and imperialistic ambitions of the European nations made an armed conflict inevitable.

Militarism and Armament Race: In the latter half of the nineteenth century, militarism was growing in Europe. It was caused by violent nationalism, economic competition and international tension. 'Militarism includes two conceptions: first the dangerous and burdensome mechanism of great standing armies and large navies, with the attendant evil of espionage, Suspicion, fear and hatred Second the existence of a powerful class of military and naval officers headed by the General staff who tend to dominate especially at a time of political crisis over the civilian authorities when Germany began to strength her naval power it led to naval competition with the British naval power and influenced other European states as well. Military Strength became synonymous with national prestige and every state began to increase her military power though all this military preparations was being made from the point of view of defense yet it gave rise to a race for armaments which filled the atmosphere with fear apprehension and mutual hatred.

Feeling of Nationalism: The French Revolution gave birth to the spirit of nationalism which saw a fast development after the Vienna congress. This feeling was responsible for the unification of Italy and Germany Nationalism inspired Creation of new nations whereas, violent nationalism caused mutual differences among them. After 1871, the French demand for Alsace and Lorraine became her national demand. The Italian nationalist's started and irredentist movement to get back the territory of Trentino Trieste, which adversely affected relations between Italy and Austria. People were under foreign rule wanted to re-establish their own nation. Balkan states like Serbia wanted that their fellow nationals who lived in these states should come together to form a greater Balkan state. The feeling of nationalism made all the countries of the world eager to clash with each other.

Diplomatic Treaties: Diplomacy often Creates Conditions Conducive to War. Such Conditions existed before the First World War Prof Fay writes, 'The greatest single underlying cause of War was the System of Secret alliances which developed after the Franco- Prussian War. It gradually divided Europe into two hostile Camps of powers who were increasingly Suspicious of one another and who steadily built up greater and greater armies and navies'. 'From one point of view this system was helpful in maintaining peace of view this system was helpful in maintaining peace in Europe because to spare one of their colleagues from War they persuaded their friends to keep off War: on the other hand this system as curtailed that if there was a War, all the big powers would have to join it'. Because of this campaign every member was forced to take part in activities which were obviously of no advantage to him but were necessary to support his friends. For

example Germany had no interest in the Balkans, but had to take action in Support of her friend Austria: Similarly France had to Support the Balkan policy of Russia Just to maintain friendship with her. Thus these diplomatic alliances made the World War inevitable.

International Anarchy: In the first decade of the 20th century anxiety and anarchy had engulfed Europe. The events that occurred after 1900 made the international atmosphere tense. Russo- Japanese War (1904-05) also influenced European Politics Germany challenged France in Morocco and Created a Serious situation in the international field. When Russia was thwarted from expanding her empire in the far-east she began to intervene in the affairs of the Balkan states. This complicated the political situation there. In 1911 to suppress the revolt in Fez and to safeguard the life and property of the Europeans living here. France sent her troops. Germany opposed this but had to bow down before the British warning. During the crisis England Supported France: this embittered her relations with Germany. The Balkan wars of 1912-13 also made the international atmosphere tense. They accelerated the race for militarism and armaments. Grant and Temper lay write. 'No other event was so much responsible for the world War of 1914 as the Balkan Wars;

Absence of an International Organization: At this time there was no international organization in Europe which could solve disputes between various states through negotiations and put off the imminence of war. Every state considered herself most affluent and turned an indifferent eye towards international promises.

Because of the system of secret alliances the people or the house of representative in a country did not know what type of agreement its ambassadors or ministers had entered into with other countries. For example the house of commons was not told anything about the assurances given to France before the war started. Similarly, Italy, a member of the Triple Alliance, Signed Separate Secret treaties with France (1902) and Russia (1909) but there was no institution which could mound pressure on her not to do so.

The Influence of Press and Means of Communication: Inspired by vigorous nationalism the press in all countries reported many events in such a way that excited the people and made a peaceful settlement of disputes seem impossible German became inimical to the people of England and the relations between France and Germany deteriorated because of press reports After the murder of Archduke Francis Ferdinand newspapers in Serbia and Austria wrote acrimonious articulate against each other. This enraged people both the countries. The press in Eastern and Western Europe enjoyed comparatively less freedom than it enjoyed in England, still it played an important role in enraging the War.

Social Imbalance: Narrow nationalism, bitterness caused by diplomacy selfishness and concern for economic interests had grown so much that appeals for peace proved to be cries in the wilderness. Instead of peace and good will there arose fear apprehension and malice People of each nation considered their culture Superior to that of the other and thought that it was their holy duty to civilize the backward and barbarous nations.

Immediate cause of the War: The relations between Serbia and Austria had not been cordial since 1908 and reached their highest pitch in 1914. Some violent associations in Serbia planned the murder of governor of Bosnia. At this time they learned that prince Ferdinand of Austria was coming on an official visit to Bosnia, so they planned to murder him. The high official of Serbia supplied arms and ammunition to these people and arranged their entry into Bosnia. When on 28 June 1914 the royal cavalcade was moving towards the town hall in Sarajevo, a conspirator Gabriella principal fired two shots and killed Prince Ferdinand and his wife Sophie, This event pushed Europe into the conflagration of War.

Austrian Reaction to this Murder

As Soon as this news reached Austria, a wave of rage and resentment overwhelmed the people. The government held Serbia responsible for this. The Austrian foreign minister Berch to decided to take a stern action against her.

The Commander in chief of Austria, Conrad also held Serbia responsible for this Murder and wanted to wage a war against her but Emperor Francis Joseph was noting Favor of war because he feared that a war against Serbia might lead to war against Russia.

Austrian Ultimatum to Serbia

Austria could not risk an armed conflict with Serbia without the support of Germany. The Austrian foreign minister Berch told wrote on behalf of Emperor Francis to the Emperor of Germany explaining the Austrian policy and requested his help and cooperation. On 5 July 1914 Germany assured Austria to fully support any decision she took against Serbia. This German Support to Austria is considered a 'Blank Cheque' Austrian government issued an Ultimatum to Serbia on July 23 and asked her to accept its condition within 48 hours. The Serbian Government accepted most of the Conditions except two which hurt her sovereignty and prestige. All European states found the Serbian reply satisfactory. It symbolized a most subdued surrender and left no basis for War.

Attempts to prevent War: Britain and Germany tried to localize the War, but the situation had gone out of their control. The British foreign minister sir Edward Gray made the greatest efforts to prevent the war because he did not want peace in Europe to be disturbed. He proposed that the ambassadors of France, Germany, Italy and England Should meet in London and discuss ways and means of preventing the war between Serbia and Austria, but Germany turned down this proposal. She did not exercise her influence on Austria otherwise the War could be put off. Thus all attempts for an agreement failed.

The War begins

The First World War began on July 28, 1914 when Austria attacked Serbia. Next day Russian army was alerted and Germany declared war against Russia (August 1, 1914) and against France (August 3), Italy declared her neutrality on this day. Thus all the important states of Europe Joined the War.

British Entry into the War

The British Foreign Minister Gray made last minute efforts to prevent War but he was disappointed. At every crisis between 1905 and 1912 England had Supported France and the military officers of the two countries had been secretly consulting each other. On July 31, 1914 the French President sent his special envoy to Emperor George V to ask for help and on August 1, France ordered the mobilization of her army and War between France and Germany became in evitable. On August 2, Germany occupied the neutral territory of Luxembourg and demanded passage for her army through Belgium within 12 hours so that she might attack France. Belgium appealed to England to help her. In case Germany occupied Belgium, it might endanger the security of England, Soon August 4, Britain declared War against Germany.

The Beginning of the World War

As Soon as Britain entered the War against Germany, it spread among all the big powers of Europe. Montenegro entered the arena in Support of Serbia on August 7; Japan issued an ultimatum to Germany on August 23 and declared War. On October 29, 1914 Turkey bombarded Russian ports on the Black Sea without formally declaring War. This made Russia declare war against Turkey on November 3, 1914. The Allied powers were greatly concerned when Turkey Joined the War on the side on Germany, because no w it became difficult to send war supplies to Russia and get food grains form her through the straits.

Italy Joins the Allied Powers

On August 3, 1914 Italy announced neutrality on the ground that her friends had started war themselves But when the Allied powers admitted her to their Camp on April 6, 1915 and assured her to accept her domination over Trentino, Triest, South Tyrol, Gorzia, Gradisca, Estria and Albania archipelago as well as to establish her influence on the Asian region of Turkey and to cede Some portion of the German territory in Africa She declared war against Austria on May 23, 1915.

Bulgaria declared War against Serbia on October 14, 1915 This Strengthened the German Side. Portugal Joined the War on the Side of Allied Powers in February 1916. Than on 27 August 1916 Romania declared war against Austria and reinforced the Allied Powers.

The U.S.A Joins War on behalf of the Allied powers

On August 4, 1914 the American President Wilson declared neutrality but majority of the American citizens sympathized with the Allied powers. Two important events occurred in 1917 First the Bolshevik Revolution broke out in Russia and she signed a peace Treaty with Germany and retracted from the War. Second Germany navy sunk American passenger liner *Lucitania* carrying about 1200 passengers and the French passenger liner *Sussex* wounding a large number of American citizens on board. At this the American government threatened Germany to break off diplomatic relation with her. In March 1917 Germany sank five American Cargo ships. Now American lost her patience and declared war against Germany on 6 April 1917. Thus the War became a world- War in the true sense of the phrase.

For the world War, the whole world divided into two camps:

- (a) The Allied and Associated powers Comprising Britain, France, Russia, Serbia, Japan, Portugal, Italy, U.S.A, Romania, Greece, Siam, Siberia, Cuba, Panama, Brazil and Guatemala etc.
- (b) The Central Powers Chiefly consisted of Germany, Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey.

The Responsibility for the War

When the world War was over and the peace Conference had been convened the Victorious countries appointed in 1919 a commission on Responsibility for the War. In its report the commission found Germany and her allied power mainly responsible for the War. In its report the Commission found Germany and her allied powers mainly responsible for the War. But it cannot be said decisively who was the real culprit; still the charges can be arranged in the sequence. Prof Fay holds all nations responsible in one way or the other. The Serbian Government was aware of the Conspiracy of murder but took no effective steps to prevent it or informed Austria about it. Austria was more responsible for the immediate origin of the War than any other power. To maintain his power the Foreign minister of Austria decided to destroy Serbia in war and showed unnecessary haste in declaring war against Serbia. Thus Austria was responsible for the origin of War. With the Assurance of her Cooperation, Germany inflamed her all the more.

Similarly the probability of destruction of Serbia enraged Russia and she concentrated her armies on the border. Germany was under the delusion that this war would only be a 'local War' and she would reap its advantages. But the military action taken by Russia frightened Germany. France followed Russia and it became impossible to contain the War. In reality it is impossible to hold any one country or camp responsible for War. Really speaking nationalism imperialism militarism had created such an explosive atmosphere that it was impossible to maintain peace any longer.

The First World War lasted around 4 years and 65 million soldiers from 30 countries participated in it. Both the victors and vanquished had to pay price. About 8 million soldiers were killed and twenty million wounded. Besides these the number of people who died under inhuman and toretious conditions in the areas occupied or subjected by the enemy countries was not insignificant. There was unprecedented loss of property. On the whole various countries had to suffer and economic loss to the tune of \$ 40,000 million.

A large verity of latest and deadly weapons was used in this war. Tanks, aero planes and Submarines caused tremendous destruction and did not spare even innocent civilians.

The Consequences of the War were important from the point of view of politics also. Three ancient dynasties Hapsburg of Austria, Hohenjouloun of Germany and Romanov of Russia were washed off. The war was won by the democracies of the west.

THE IMPACT OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR

Economic Impact

Economic loss: The direct expenditure on the war was 1,000 million rupees, but it is difficult to estimate the indirect loss of people and property. The national debt of Britain which was formerly 70 crore 8 lakh pound rose to 743 crore 50 lakh pound. The French national debt rose from 34,182 million franc to 147,447 million franc and that of Germany from 5000 million marks to 1,60,6000 million marks. Germany and her allies

spent one third of the total amount and the remaining two thirds was spent by the Allied and Associated powers. In the beginning of the Great War the average daily expenditure was Rs 400 million which rose to 35 million per hour after 1918. The American Federal Reserve board estimated that all the belligerent nations had spent 35,000 million pound by 31 May 1918.

Loss of Manpower: That the present war was highly destructive is proved by 8 million people who lost their lives and 20 million who were wounded during the four years and quarter. The average death toll during this period was 7000 persons per day. In all 60 million people participated in military activities, which is unprecedented in history. The proportion of slain and wounded among them rose steeply to 40%.

War debts: The extraordinary expenditure during the War caused a signal rise in public debts all over the world. The public debt in main countries in both the sides was 80,000 million pounds in 1914 which rose to 4,00,000 million pounds in 1918. Several countries had to face great difficulty because of the destruction of property. In all property, a worth Rs, 1,32,000 million was demolished.

Loss to Trade and Commerce: Loss of Corers and Corers of rupees adversely affected the trade and commerce now every nation was trying to curtail imports and increase her exports. For this they raised customs duties exorbitantly and this reduced international trade all the more. After the war U.S.A Japan and some Latin American Countries took firm hold of these markets which were formerly in the hands of Britain and Germany.

Inflation: A Huge amount was spent in this war for destruction and devastations. Mills and factories railways, and ships and other property were decimated. This forced all the nations to borrow heavily to meet their growing expenses. Loans were raised both internally and externally. To pay off their debts many European countries issued a large amount of purer currency which caused a very heavy rise in prices.

Labour Movement: Millions of young men Joined military Services during the War. This caused scarcity of labour. The Supply of arms and ammunition and other military equipment spiraled up. This raised demand for labor. So they began to demand higher wages and reduction in the number of hours of work.

Rise of National Socialism: The ideas of Communism had begun to exert influence even before the Great War but the management of trade and commerce was still in the hands of capitalists. But during the war many states were forced to take the management of some undertaking in their hands in order to conduct the war properly and to have control over the country economy.

Social Impact

Attempts to solve the Problem of Minorities: The Most formidable problem that faced the peace conference at Paris was how to safeguard the interests of the minorities permanently residing in foreign countries. The peace conference of Paris forced Poland and Czechoslovakia to guarantee the safeguard of the language religion and culture of the minorities permanently residing in these countries but Italy refused to comply.

Changes In Women Status During First World War

The war bestowed two valuable legacies on women those are: It opened up a wider range of occupations to female workers and hastened the collapse of traditional women's employment, particularly domestic service. From the 19th century to 1911, between 11 and 13 per cent of the female population in England and Wales were domestic servants. By 1931, the percentage had dropped to under eight per cent. For the middle classes, the decline of domestic servants was facilitated by the rise of domestic appliances, such as cookers, electric irons and vacuum cleaners. The popularity of 'labour-saving devices' does not, however, explain the dramatic drop in the servant population. Middle-class women continued to clamour for servants, but working women who might previously have been enticed into service were being drawn away by alternative employment opening up to satisfy the demands of war. Thus, nearly half of the first recruits to the London General Omnibus Company in 1916 were former domestic servants. Clerical work was another draw card. The number of women in the Civil Service increased from 33,000 in 1911 to 102,000 by 1921. The advantages of these alternative employments over domestic service were obvious: wages were higher, conditions better, and independence enhanced.

Cultural Damage: The world war proved very devastating from the cultural point of view. Many cultural bequests were destroyed and a whole generation of artists and intellectuals was swept away. Several schools and colleges were razed to the ground and scientists, writers and artists killed. It gave a great set back to cultural development and destruction of works of art, libraries and historical building etc. obstructed the path of cultural development.

Peace Treaty After The First World War

The victorious powers or the Allies, as they were called, met in a conference first in Versailles, a suburb of Paris, and later in Paris, between January and June 1919. Though the number of countries represented at the conference was 27, the terms of the peace treaties were really decided by three countries — Britain, France and USA. The three persons who played the determining role in framing the terms of the treaties were Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States, Lloyd George, Prime Minister of Britain, and George Clemenceau, Prime Minister of France. The defeated countries were not represented at the conference. The victorious powers also excluded Russia from the conference. The terms of the treaty were thus not the result of negotiations between the defeated and the victorious powers but were imposed on the defeated by the victors.

The Treaty of Versailles

- The main treaty was signed with Germany on 28 June 1919. It is called the Treaty of Versailles. The republican government of Germany was compelled to sign this treaty under the threat of invasion.
- The treaty declared Germany and her allies guilty of aggression.
- Alsace Lorraine was returned to France.
- The coal mines in the German area called Saar were ceded to France for 15 years while that area was to be governed by the League of Nations.
- Germany also ceded parts of her prewar territory to Denmark, Belgium, Poland and Czechoslovakia.
- The area of the Rhine valley was to be demilitarized.
- The treaty also contained provisions for disarming Germany.
- The strength of her army was to be limited to 100,000 and she was required not to have any air force and submarines. She was dispossessed of all her colonies which were taken over by the victors.
- Togo and the Cameroon were divided and shared by Britain and France.
- German colonies in South West Africa and East Africa were given to Britain, Belgium, South Africa and Portugal.
- German colonies in the Pacific and the spheres under her control in China were given to Japan. China was aligned with the Allies during the war and was even represented at the Paris Conference. But her areas under German possession or control were not restored to China; instead they were given away to Japan.
- Germany was also required to pay for the loss and damages suffered by the Allies during the war. The amount of reparations was fixed at an enormous figure of \$6,500,000,000.

Other Treaties: Separate treaties were signed with the allies of Germany. Austria-Hungary was broken up and Austria was required to recognize the independence of Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Poland. She had to cede territories to them and to Italy. Many changes were made in the Balkans where new states were created and transfers of territories from one state to another took place. Baltic States which earlier formed parts of the Russian empire were made independent. The treaty with Turkey stipulated the

complete dismemberment of the Ottoman empire Britain was given Palestine and Mesopotamia (Iraq) and Syria went to France as what were called 'mandates'. In theory, the 'mandatory' power, that is Britain and France, were to look after the interests of the people of the 'mandates' but actually they were governed as colonies. Most of the remaining Turkish territories were to be given to Greece and Italy and Turkey was to be reduced to a very small state. However, there was a revolution in Turkey under the leadership of Mustapha Kemal. The Sultan was deposed and Turkey was proclaimed a republic in 1922. Turkey regained control of Asia Minor and the city of Constantinople (Istanbul) and the Allies were forced to abandon the earlier treaty.

The League of Nations

An important part of the peace treaties was the Covenant of the League of Nations. Wilson's Fourteen Points included the creation of an international organization for the preservation of peace and to guarantee the independence of all states. The League of Nations was created. It was intended as a world organization of all independent states. It aimed at the preservation of peace and security and peaceful settlement of international conflicts, and bound its members 'not to resort to war'. One of its important provisions was with regard to sanctions. According to this provision, economic and military action would be taken against any country which committed aggression. It also bound its members to improve Labour and social conditions in their countries. For this the International Labour Organization was set up which is now one of the specialized agencies of the United Nations.

The hopes of having a truly world organization devoted to the preservation of peace and independence of nations were, however, not realized with the formation of the League. Two major countries – Germany and the Soviet Union — were not allowed to become its members for many years while India, which was not independent, was made a member. The United States which had played an important part in the setting up of the League ultimately decided not to join it. The League was never an effective organization. In the 1930s when many countries resorted to aggression, the League was either ignored or defied.

An important feature of the peace treaties which indicates its nature was the decision with regard to the colonies of the defeated powers. The Allies had entered into many secret agreements for dividing the spoils of war. The Soviet government, to bring out the imperialist nature of the war, made these treaties public. During the war, the Allies had been claiming that the war was being fought for freedom and democracy. President Wilson had said that the war was being fought "to make the world safe for democracy". The publication of secret treaties by the Soviet government exposed these claims. However, in spite of this, the distribution of the colonies of the defeated countries among the victors took place as has been mentioned before. Of course, the Soviet Union which had repudiated all the secret agreements did not receive any spoils which had been promised to the Russian emperor. The League of Nations also recognized this division of the spoils. Legally most of the colonies which were transferred to the victorious powers were 'mandates' and could not be annexed.

Reason For The Failure Of League Of Nation

The League of Nations was the first major attempt as an international organization of state to maintain peace and promote international co-operation. But it failed. Some of the causes of its failure are briefly mentioned as follows:—

The political background of Europe at the time of the birth of the League was not very conducive to a peace organization. World War I had been fought ostensibly to make the world safe for democracy, to end all future wars, etc. But essentially it was an imperialist war for the division and re-division of colonies.

The major powers namely the allied and the associated powers were, no doubt, victorious but peace as it emerged was an imperialist peace. The secret treaties among major powers were concluded at the very outset.

The League of Nations was a part of the Versailles peace treaty. But men like Clemenceau (French P.M.) and Lloyd George never wanted its success. Clemenceau actually ridiculed the idea and said to Wilson, "I like your League of Nations. I like it very much but I do not believe in it," Thus the imperialist character

of the peace handicapped the League throughout its history.

At no stage of its history did the League represent the world balance of forces. The U.S.A. never became its member and Russia stepped in only in 1934. Thus its effectiveness as an instrument of the world peace suffered.

In absence of Russia and America, it was actually dominated by the Anglo-French powers and became an instrument of their policy in Europe and since these powers were not interested in peace so much as in maintenance of their imperialist domination and destruction of Soviet Union, the League of Nations never had a chance to succeed.

The League of Nations was founded on the principle of unanimity of all the members except those who were party to a dispute. Thus every single member including the smallest had the right to veto. This system had two very important consequences.

1. A small power could very irresponsibly hamstring the League in its action against an aggressor. For instance aid to Republican Spain and condemnation of Fascist attack against Spain was prevented by a hostile vote of Portugal. The small powers who could not have the responsibility of maintaining world peace, could yet wreck it.
2. The big powers very often used small powers as stalking horses from behind the veto of a small member and thus escaped responsibility for a particular decision before their own people and world public opinion.

The world was divided into two social systems-the capitalistic and socialistic. The absence of Russia created a very real danger that the League might be used against the new socialist state. Unfortunately this danger proved to be real. The League which condoned fascist aggressions one after the other, wasted no time in violating its very principles by expelling Soviet Union on the question of Finland.

The spheres of activity of the Council and the Assembly were not clearly defined. It led to confusion of responsibility.

The responsibility for maintenance of peace was not securely placed anywhere. The Council of the League which alone could shoulder it was burdened with other responsibilities regarding minority treaties, mandatory territories, etc.

Despite these flaws, the League could have been made an instrument of peace if the powers dominating had wished it so. The articles of the covenant of the League provided for economic and military sanctions against the aggressors. The League failed because the leading powers never wanted a durable peace.



CHAPTER - 10**BETWEEN THE
TWO WORLD WAR****GERMANY AND ITALY AFTER THE FIRST WORLD WAR****The Weimar republic of Germany**

As Germany moved towards defeat in 1918, public opinion turned against the government, and in October the Kaiser] in a desperate bid to hang on to power, appointed prince Max of Baden as chancellor. He was known for, in favour of a more democratic form of government in which parliament had more power.

In November 1919, a revolution broke out in Germany. The Kaiser escaped to Holland and abdicated, and Prince Max resigned, Friedrich Ebert, leader of the left-wing social democrat party, and becomes head of the government. In January 1919 a general election was held, the first completely democratic government was formed in Germany. The social democrats emerged as the largest single party and Ebert became first president of the republic. They had some Marxist ideas but believed. That the way to achieve socialism was through parliamentary democracy.

The new government was by no means popular with all Germans. Even before the elections the communists had attempted to seize power in the Spartacist rising (January 1919). In 1920 right-wing enemies of the republic occupied Berlin (The Kapp Putsch). The government managed to survive these threats and several later ones, including Hitler's Munich Beer Hall Putsch (1923).

By the end of 1919 a new constitution had been agreed by the national assembly which was meeting at Weimar because Berlin was still torn by political unrest. This Weimar constitution (sometimes called the most perfect democratic constitution of modern times, at least on paper), gave its name to the Weimar republic and lasted until 1933, when it was destroyed by Hitler. The new constitution adopted the democracy. It had a set of fundamental rights. Elections were to be held on the basis of universal adult suffrage on the basis of proportional representation. It favored parliamentary system of government in which chancellor and his cabinet was directly responsible to Reichstag. Germany was to be a republic and its head i.e., the president was to be elected for a period of 7 years by a popular vote. The parliament was a bicameral legislature of which the lower house was to be called Reichstag. Provision was also made for Supreme Court.

Achievements of Weimar republic

With all the limitations constraints and hostile attitude of allied power Weimar government did some good work. In the domestic field the government tried to solve financial crisis by using labor saving devices and by arranging international loan under Dawes plan which helped in the payment of reparation installment and economic stability of the country. New currency was issued and new techniques in coal mining were made to reduce dependence on imports of foreign goods. Shipping industry was paid full attention. But these efforts could achieve only partial success because automation and rationalization resulted in unemployment. The Weimar government failed to solve all the domestic problems. The country continued to face the same serious problems of inflation and unemployment. The government failed to bring economy on sound footings. It could balance its budget only when she was in a position to receive foreign loans. She continued to have unfavorable balance of trade. The masses continued to suffer. Because of all these reasons the Weimar government failed to last long in Germany.

The Weimar republic also achieved considerable success in foreign relations also. During Weimar government in foreign policy matters Stresemann was the guiding force. He made international field including the areas of trade and commerce, Germany should get back her lost prestige. He also tried to get back lost

colonies which Germany had to surrender by signing the treaty of Rapallo with Russia. The aim was both to win the friendship of Russian on the one hand and gain some concession from France and Britain on the other. He also suggested his people to accept Dawes plan, which he felt could help in the economic recovery of the country. It was because of his wise policy that France was made to leave Ruhr. In addition to his Germany got the membership of league of nation during this period. Germany was also in a position of conclude Locarno pact, about which a mention has been made, which very much increased German prestige in international affairs. In 1926 Germany signed another treaty with Russia which reaffirmed the spirit of Rapallo treaty of 1922. It was this German drift towards Russia that Germany was not only offered permanent membership of League of Nations but also forced the allied powers to leave Rhineland five years ahead of the schedule.

Fall of Weimar Republic

The reasons for the Weimar republic's collapse are the subject of continuing debate. It may have been doomed from the beginning since even moderates disliked it and extremists on both the left and right loathed it. Germany had no democratic traditions and Weimar democracy was widely seen as chaotic. And since Weimar politicians had been blamed for the "stab in the back" myth that was then widely believed in Germany as the real cause of the surrender of the German army in World War 1, the popular legitimacy of the government was on shaky ground. No single reason can explain the failure of the Weimar republic. The most commonly asserted causes can be grouped in to three categories: economic problems, institutional problems and the roles of specific individuals.

The republic faced a number of challenges from the beginning. The republic had accepted the humiliating and unpopular Versailles treaty, with its arms limitations, reparations and war guilt clause and was therefore always associated with defeat and dishonor. German nationalists could never forgive it for that. By the treaty of Versailles it had been provided that Rhineland was to be permanently 15 years. The attitude of French troops stationed there was that of arrogance and the soldiers had the airs of a victor which was a serious challenge to patriot Germans, who wanted to throw these soldiers out of Germany was an important problem for the new government.

There was a traditional lack of respect of democratic government and a great admiration for the army and the officer class as the rightful leaders of Germany. In 1919 the view was widespread that the army had not been defeated but it had been betrayed and stabbed in the back by the democrats who had needlessly agreed to the Versailles treaty. What most Germans did not realize was that it was General Ludendorff who had asked for an armistice while the Kaiser was still in power. However, the stab in the back legend was eagerly fostered by all enemies of the republic.

The parliamentary system introduced in the new Weimar constitution had weaknesses, the most serious of which was that it was based on a system of proportional representation, so that all political groups would have a fair representation. Unfortunately there were so many different groups that no party could ever win an overall majority. For example, in 1928 the Reichstag (lower house of parliament) contained at least eight groups of which the largest were the social democrats (153), nationalists (conservatives-78) and the catholic centre party (62). The communist has 54 seats, while the smallest groups were the Bavarian people's party (16) and the national socialists (12). A succession of coalition government was inevitable, with the social democrats having to rely on co-operation from left-wing liberals and the catholic centre. Because of this no party was able to carry out its programme.

The political parties had very little experience of how to operate a democratic parliamentary system, because before 1919 the Reichstag had not controlled policy: the chancellor had the final authority and was the one who really ruled the country. Under the Weimar constitution it was the other way round- the chancellor was responsible to the Reichstag, which had the final say-however, the Reichstag usually failed to give a clear lead because the parties refused to compromise. The communists and nationalists did not believe in the republic anyway and refused to support the social democrats. Disagreements became so bitter that some of the parties organized their own private armies, for self-defence to begin with, but this increased the threat of civil- war. The combination of these weaknesses led to more outbreaks of violence and attempts to overthrow the republic. The government seemed incapable of preventing these.

Institutional problem faced by the republic

It is widely agreed that the 1919 constitution had several weaknesses, making the eventual establishment of a dictatorship likely but it is unknown whether a different constitution could have prevented the third Reich.

The institution of the Reichspräsident (president) was frequently considered as an Ersatzkaiser (substitute emperor) on attempt to replace the Kaiser (who resigned and fled in 1918) with a similarly strong institution meant to diminish party politics. Article 48 of the constitution gave the president power to take all necessary steps if public order and security are seriously disturbed or endangered. Although this was intended as an emergency clause, it was often used before 1933 to issue decrees without the support of parliament and also make Gleichschaltung easier. For example, the Reichstag fire decree was issued on the basis of article 48.

The use of almost pure proportional representation meant any party with a small amount of support could again entry into the Reichstag. This led to many small parties, some extremist, building political bases within the system (in 1949, four years after the second world war the electoral law was changed and only parties with 5 % or more of the total vote would be allowed to enter the bundestag).

The Reichstag could remove the Reichskanzler (chancellor) from office even if it was unable to agree on a successor. This “motion of no confidence” led to many chancellors in quick succession, adding to the republic’s instability. The constitution provided that in the event of the presidents’ death or resignation, the Reichskanzler would assume that office (and crucially possess its power) pending election of a new president. This allowed Hitler to easily unit the offices of Reichskanzler and Reichspräsident after Hindenburg’s death in 1934.

Role of individuals in the fall of the republic

Some historians prefer to consider individuals and the decisions they made in the fall of the republic. This brings up the problematic question of what alternatives were available at the time and leads to speculation and hypothesis.

Burning’s economic policy from 1930-1932 has been the subject of much debate. It caused many debate. it caused many Germans to identify the republic with cost in social spending and extremely liberal economics. Whether there were alternatives to this policy during great depression in an open question.

Paul von Hindenburg became Reichspräsident in 1925. He represented the older authoritarian 1871 empire, and it is hard to label him as a democrat in support of the 1919 republic, but he was never a Nazi. During his later years (at well over 80 years old), he was also senile. A president with solid democratic beliefs may not have allowed the Reichstag to be circumvented with the use of article 48 decrees and might have avoided signing the Reichstag fire decree. Hindenburg waited one and a half days before he appointed Hitler as Reichskanzler on January 30, 1933, which indicates some hesitance. Some claim Nazism would have lost much public support if Hitler had not been named chancellor.

Writers John Cornwell and Lam Kershaw are amongst the modern commentators who have studied the role of Ludwig Kaas and his alliance to Pope Pius XII. As regards the Rhenish-Westphalian industrial magnates and Franz von Papen, the Nuremberg trials studied the era from January 30, 1933, and came to the conclusion that it would not be an indictable offence to have assisted Adolf Hitler and the NSDAP to power.

Economic difficulties faced by the republic

In 1999 Germany was close to bankruptcy because of the enormous expense of the war. Thus the new born republic was faced with serious financial crisis the allied power forced Germany to pay huge reparation on the on hand and on the other hand her resources were taken away. Her coal and industrial belts were taken away from her. Thus the new government found it impossible to balance her budget. This resulted in high inflation. Because of decline of industries and the international trade the government was faced with serious economic problems.

The German attempts to pay reparations installments made matters worse. In august 1921, after paying the \$ 50 million due, Germany requested permission to suspend payment until her economy recovered.

France refused, and in 1922. The Germans claimed they were unable to make the full annual payment. In January 1923 French troops occupied the Ruhr can important factories and mines. The German government ordered the workers to follow a policy of passive resistance and German industry in the Ruhr was paralyzed. The French had failed in their aim, but the effect on the German economy was catastrophic – galloping inflation and the collapse of the mark.

The economic situation improved dramatically in the year's offer 1924, largely thanks to the Dawes plan of that year, which provided a immediate loan from the USA equivalent to \$ 40 million, relaxed the fixed reparations payments and in affect allowed Germany to pay what she could afford. French troops withdrew from the Ruhr. The currency was stabilized, and wealthy landowners and industrialists were quite happy with the republic, since they were doing well out of it. Germany was even able to pay her reparations installments under the Dawes plan.

The work of the Dawes plan was carried a stage further by the young plan agreed in October 1929. This reduced the reparations from \$ 6600 million, to be paid in annual instilments over fifty nine years. There were other successes for the republic in foreign affairs. Thanks to the work of Stresemann, and it seemed stable and well-established. But behind this success there was a total weakness.

The prosperity was much more dependent on the American loans than most people realized. It the USA were to find herself in financial difficulties so that she stopped the loans, or worse still, wanted them paid back quickly, the German economy would be shaken again. Unfortunately this is exactly what happened in 1929. Following the Wall Street crash (October 1929) the world economic crisis developed. The USA stopped any further loan and began to call in many of the sort-term loans already made to Germany. This caused a crisis of confidence in the currency and led to a run on the banks, many of which had to close. The industrial boom had led to world- wide over-production, and German exports, along with those of other countries, were severely reduced. Factories had to close, and by the middle of 1931 unemployment was approaching 4 million sadly for Germany, Gustav Stresemann, the politician best equipped to deal with the crisis, died of a heart attack in October 1929 at the early age of 51.

To deal with the crisis the government of chancellor Brüning reduced social services, unemployment benefit, and salaries and pensions of government officials, and stopped reparations payments high tariffs were introduced to keep out foreign foodstuffs and thus help German farmers, while the government bought shares in factories hit by the slump- however, these measures did not produce quick results, though they did help after a time; unemployment continued to rise and by the spring of 1932 it stood at over 6 million. The government came under criticism from almost all groups. In society, especially industrialists and the working class who demanded more decisive action. The loss of much working class support because of increasing unemployment and the reduction in unemployment benefit was a serious blow to the republic. By the end of 1932 the Weimar republic had thus been brought to the very of collapse.

Violent incidents against Weimar republic

In January 1919 the Sparta cist Rising Occurred (Spartacus was a roman who led a revolt of slaves in 71 BC), in which the communists, inspired by the success of the Russian revolution and led by kart Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg, occupied almost every major city in Germany, in Berlin, president Ebert found himself besieged in the chancellery. The government managed to defeat the communists only because it accepted the help of the freikorps (independent volunteer regiments raised by anti-communist ex-army officers). It was a sign of the government weakness that it had to depend on private forces which it did not itself control. The two communist leaders did not receive a fair trial; they were simply clubbed to death by freikorps members.

In March 1920 the Kapp putsch was organized. This was an attempt by right- wing groups to seize power. It was sparked off when the government tried to disband the freikorps. They refused to disband and declared Dr. Wolfgang Kapp chancellor. Berlin was occupied by a freikorps regiment and the cabinet fled to Dresden. The German army (Reichswehr) took no action against the putsch (coup or rising) because the generals were in sympathy with the right. In the end the workers of Berlin came to the aid of the social democrat government by calling a general strike which paralyzed the capital. Dapp resigned and the government

regained control. However, it was so weak that nobody was punished except Kapp, who was imprisoned, and it took two months to get the freikorps disbanded. Even then the ex-members remained hostile to the republic and many later joined Hitler's private armies.

Another threat to the government occurred in November 1923 in Bavaria, at a time when there was much public annoyance at the French occupation of the Ruhr and the disastrous fall in the value of the mark. Hitler, helped by General Ludendorff, aimed to take control of the Bavarian state government in Munich. And then lead national revolution to overthrow the government in Berlin. However, the police easily broke up Hitler's march, and the beer hall putsch (so called because the march set out from the Munich beer hall in which Hitler had announced his national revolution the previous evening) soon fizzled out. Hitler was sentenced to five years imprisonment but served only nine months because the Bavarian authorities had a lot of sympathy with his aims.

The violence died down during the years 1924 to 1924 as the republic became more stable, but when unemployment grew in the early 1930s, the private armies expanded and regular street fights occurred between Nazis and communists all parties had their meetings broken up by rival armies and the police seemed powerless to prevent happening.

Rise of Nazism in Germany

Nazi Germany and the third Reich are the common English names for describing Germany under the regime of Adolf Hitler and the national socialist German workers party to the Nazi party. This was an anti-Semitic and racist fascist political party that established a totalitarian dictatorship which existed in Germany from 1933 to 1945.

For about a decade after the First World War from 1919-29 democracies made remarkable progress all over the world. However this trend did not last long and during the next decade Europe witnessed the rise of totalitarian dictatorships under different names and forms. The failure of Weimar republic provided Hitler and the Nazi party a good opportunity to come to the power.

Following civil unrest, the worldwide economic depression of the 1930s spurred by the stock market crash in the US, the counter traditionalism of the Weimar period, and the rise of communism in Germany, many voters began turning their support towards the Nazi party with its promises of strong government, civil peace, radical changes to economic policy, and restored national pride. The Nazi party promised cultural renewal based on traditionalism, and it proposed military rearmament in opposition to the treaty of Versailles, the Nazis claimed that in the treaty of Versailles and the liberal democracy of the Weimar republic, Germany's national pride had been lost. The Nazis also endorsed the Dolchstoßlegende ("stab in the back legend") which figured prominently in their propaganda as it did in propaganda of most other nationalist leaning parties in Germany.

The Nazis offered what seemed to be an attractive alternative just when the republic had become most ineffective. The humiliating treatment meted out to Germany under the treaty of Versailles was greatly resented by the German people and army and they wanted to see Germany rise to the glory which it once enjoyed. No doubt. During the republican rule, Germany's terrible amount of war indemnity was reduced, reparation was divided into 85 installments, and the allies withdrew their armies from the Rhine land, yet the Germans nourished a feeling of resentment against the humiliating and insulting behavior meted out to them by the allies, and eagerly looked for an opportunity to avenge the same, these sentiments were fully exploited by Hitler, who was "an adept psychologist, a clever demagogue and a master showman, he was a resourceful agitator, a tireless worker and an able organizer. He openly encouraged the Germans "to consign the treaty of Versailles into the waste-paper basket offer tearing it." They also popularized the myth of the back. The Nazis promised to restore the lost national glory. Hitler proclaimed that he will bring all Germans (in Austria, Czechoslovakia and Poland) into the Reich.

The fortunes of the Nazi party were linked closely to the economic situation. Without the economic crisis though, it is doubtful whether Hitler would have had much chance of attaining power. It was the

widespread unemployment and social misery, together with the fear of communism and socialism, which gained the Nazis mass support, not only among the working class (recent research suggests that between 1928 and 1932 the Nazis attracted over 2 million voters away from the socialist SPD), but also among the lower middle class-office-workers, shopkeepers, civil servants, teachers and small scale farmers. The more unstable the economy, the more seats the Nazis won in the Reichstag. They offered national unit, prosperity and full employment by ridding Germany of what they claimed were the real causes of the troubles- Marxists, the November criminal (the people who had agreed to the armistice in November 1918 and later the Versailles treaty), Jesuits, freemasons and Jews. The Nazi private army, the SA (sturmbteilung- storm troopers) was attractive to young people out work. It gave them a small wage and a uniform. Wealthy landowners and industrialists encouraged the Nazis because they feared a communist revolution and they approved of the Nazi policy of hostility towards the communists.

A small clique of right-wing politicians with support from the Reichswehr (German parliament) decided to bring Hitler into a coalition government with the nationalists. The main conspirators were Franz von Papen and General Kurt von Schleicher. They were afraid of the Nazis attempting to seize power by a putsch. They believed they could control Hitler better inside the government than if he remained outside it, and that a taste of power would make the Nazis mollify their extremism the nationalists only had 37 seats in the Reichstag (July 1932), but the Nazi votes would go a long way towards giving them a majority which might make possible a restoration of the monarchy and a return to the system which had existed under Bismarck in which the Reichstag had much less power. Though this would destroy the Weimar republic, these right-wing politicians were prepared to go ahead because it would give them a better chance of controlling the communists who had had their best result so far in the July 1932 election by winning 89 seats.

President Hindenburg was persuaded to dismiss Brüning and appoint Papen as chancellor. They hoped to bring Hitler in as vice-chancellor, but he would settle for nothing less than himself as chancellor. In January 1933 therefore they persuaded Hindenburg to invite Hitler to become chancellor with Papen as vice-chancellor, even though the Nazis had by then lost ground in the elections of November 1932. Papen still believed that he can push Hitler into a corner. Hitler was able to come to power legally therefore, because all the other parties failed to recognize the danger from the Nazis, and so failed to unite in opposition to them. It ought to have been possible to keep the Nazis out; they were losing ground and had nowhere near an overall majority. But instead of uniting with the other parties to exclude them, the nationalists made the fatal mistake of inviting Hitler into power.

Consolidation of Hitler

On January 30, 1933 Adolf Hitler was appointed chancellor of Germany by president Hindenburg after attempts by General Kurt von Schleicher to form a viable government fouled. Even though the Nazis had gained the largest share of the popular vote in the two Reichstag general elections of 1932, they had no majority of their own and just a slim majority in parliament with their Papen-Proposed nationalist DNUP-NSDAP coalition.

The new government installed a totalitarian dictatorship through a series of measures in quick succession. On the night of February 27, 1933 the Reichstag building was set on fire and Dutch council communist Marinus van der Lubbe was found inside the building. He was arrested and charged with starting the blaze. The event had an immediate effect on thousands of anarchists, socialists and communists throughout the Reich, many of whom were sent to the Dachau Concentration Camp the unnerved public worried that the fire had been a signal meant to initiate the communist revolution, and the Nazis found the event to be of immeasurable value in getting rid of potential insurgents. The event was quickly followed by the Reichstag fire decree, rescinding habeas corpus and other civil liberties.

The Enabling Act was passed in March 1933, with 444 votes, to the 94 of the remaining social democrats. The act gave the government (and thus effectively the Nazi party) legislative powers and also authorized it to deviate from the provisions of the constitution for four years. With these powers, Hitler removed the remaining opposition and turned the Weimar republic into the "Third Reich".

For Hitler to create the Nazi dictatorship, Germany had to become a one party state. this was achieved by the Nazis, as by June 1933 the social democrats had been banned, the communists had been banned and the German nationalists (DNVP), German peoples' party (DVP) and German democratic party (DDP) had all been forced to disband. The remaining catholic centre party, at Papen's urging, disbanded itself on July 5, 1933 after guarantees over catholic education and youth groups. On July 14, 1933 Germany was officially declared a one-party state with the passing of the law a gains the formation of parties.

Symbols of the Weimar republic, including the black-red-gold flag (now the present day flag of Germany) were abolished by the new regime which adopted both new and old imperial symbolism to represent the dual nature of the imperialist- Nazi regime of 199. The old imperial black-white-red tricolor, almost completely abandoned during the Weimar republic, was restored as one of Germany's two officially legal national flags. The other official national flag was the swastika flag of the Nazi party. It became the sole national flag in 1935.

Further consolidation of power was achieved on January 30, 1934 with the Gesetz uber den Neuaufbau des Reich's (Act to rebuild the Reich). The act changed the highly decentralized federal Germany of the Weimar era into a centralized state. it disbanded state parliaments, transferring sovereign rights of the states to the Reich central government and put the state administrations under the control of the Reich administration.

In the spring of 1934 only the army remained independent from Nazi control. The German army had traditionally been separated from the government and was somewhat of an entity of its own. The Nazi paramilitary SA expected top position in the new power structure and wanted the regime to follow through its promise of enacting socialist legislation for Aryan Germans. Wanting to preserve good relation with the army and the major industries who were weary of more political violence erupting from the SA, on the night of June 30, 1934, Hitler initiated the violent "Night of the long knives" a purge of the leadership ranks of Rohm's SA as well as hare-left Nazis (strasserists), and other political enemies, carried out by another, more elitist, Nazi organization, theses.

At the death of President Hindenburg on August 2, 1934 the Nazi-controlled Reichstag merged the offices Reichspräsident and Reichskanzler and reinstalled Hitler with the new title fuhrer and Reichskanzler. Until the death of Hindenburg, the army did not follow Hitler, partly because the paramilitary SA was much larger than the German Army (limited to 100,000 by the treaty of Versailles) and because the leaders of the SA sought to merge the Army into itself and to launch the socialist "second revolution" to complement the nationalist revolution which had occurred with the ascendancy of Hitler. The murder of Ernst Roehm, leader of the SA, in the night of the long knives, the death of Hindenburg, the merger of the SA into the army and the promise of other expansions of the German military wrought friendlier relations between Hitler and the army, resulting in a unanimous oath of allegiance by all soldiers to obey Hitler. The Nazis proceeded to scrap their official alliance with the conservative nationalists and began to introduce Nazi ideology and Nazi symbolism into all major aspects of life in Germany. School books were either rewritten or replaced, and school teachers who did not support Nazi fiction of the curriculum were fired.

The inception of the Gestapo, police acting outside of any civil authority, highlighted the Nazis intention to use powerful, Coercive means to directly control German society. An army, estimated to be of about 100,000, spies and informants operated throughout Germany, reporting to Nazi officials the activities of any critics or dissenters. Most ordinary Germans, happy with the improving economy and better standard of living, remained obedient and quiet, but many political opponents, especially communists and Marxist or international socialists, were reported by omnipresent eavesdropping spies and put in prison camps where many were tortured and killed. It is estimated that tens of thousands of political victims died or disappeared in the first few years of Nazi rule.

Characteristic features of Nazism

There has been great debate among historians about whether National Socialism was a natural development of German history, or whether it was a one-off, a distortion of normal development. Many British and American historians argued that it was a natural extension of earlier Prussian argued that it was a natural

extension of earlier Prussian militarism and German traditions. Marxist historians believed that National Socialism and fascism in general were the final stage of western capitalism which was bound to collapse because of its total flows. But German historians like Gerhard Ritter and K.D Bracher stressed on the personal contribution of Hitler, arguing that Hitler was striving to break away from the past and introduce something completely new, and that National Socialism was a grotesque departure from the normal and logical historical development. This is probably the majority view at the moment.

The Nazi party was more than just one political party among many. It was a way of life dedicated to the rebirth of the nation. The Nazis believed that all classes in society must be united to make Germany. A great nation again and restore national pride. Since the Nazis had the only correct way to achieve this, it followed that all other parties, in one party rule. The Nazis were not at all prepared to tolerate any opposition and wanted that the party should control all activities in the state. For them multiplicity of political parties and political ideologies created more confusion rather than solving any problem.

The state was supreme to them and the interests of the individual always came second to the interests of the state. The Nazis glorified state and for them the state was above everything else. The will of the state was expressed through party leader. Thus every individual must merge himself in the state. He has no right either to challenge the authority of the leader or that of the state. It is the state which cared for the collective welfare of the all living in the state. In Nazism there was no place for the individualism. Without state the individuals had no place and existence. The state represents all individuals and their collective interests. Since it was likely that greatness could only be achieved by war; the entire state must be organized on a military footing.

The race theory was vitally important to Nazi philosophy; they believed that mankind could be divided into two groups, Aryans and non-Aryans. The Aryans were the Germans, ideally tall, blond, blue-eyed and handsome; they were the master race and were destined to rule the world. Hitler believed the German race was the only pure race and that all other races were mixed races. He therefore pleaded that German race All other races such as slaves, colored peoples and particularly Jews were inferior and must accept German superiority and its culture and traditions.

POLICIES OF HITLER

Economy policy

When the Nazis came to power the most pressing issue was an unemployment rate of close to 30% the economic policies of the third Reich were in the beginning the brainchildren of Hilmar Schacht, who assumed office as president of the central bank under Hitler in 1933, and became finance minister in the following year. Schacht was one of the few finance ministers to take advantage of the freedom provided by the end of the gold standard to keep interest rates low and government budget deficits high, with massive public works funded by large budget deficits. The consequence was an extremely rapid decline in unemployment and that was most rapid decline in unemployment in any country during the great depression. Eventually this Keynesian economic policy was supplemented by the boost to demand provided by rearmament and swelling military spending.

The strict state intervention in the economy and the massive rearmament policy led to almost full employment during the 1930s. But the real wages in Germany dropped by roughly 25% between 1933 and 1938. Trade unions were abolished as well as collective bargaining and the right to strike. The right to quit also disappeared. Labor books were introduced in 1935, and required the consent of the previous employer profit incentive to guide investment; investment was guided through regulation to accord with needs of the state. Government financing eventually came to dominate the investment process, which the proportion of private securities issues falling from over half of the total in 1933 and 1934 to approximately 10 % in 1935-1938. Heavy taxes on profits limited self-financing of firms. The largest firms were mostly exempt from taxes on profits; however government control of these were extensive enough to leave “only the shell of private ownership.” Another part of the new German economy was massive rearmament, with the goal being to expand the 100,000- strong German army into a force of millions.

Political ideology

The totalitarian nature of the Nazi party was one its principal tenets. The Nazis contended that all the great achievements in the past of the German nation and its people were associated with the ideals of National Socialism, even before the ideology officially existed. Propaganda accredited the consolidation of Nazi ideals and successes of the regime to the regime's fuehrer ("leader") Adolf Hitler, who was portrayed as the genius behind the Nazi party's success and Germanys savior. To secure their ability to create a totalitarian state, the Nazi party's paramilitary force, the sturmabteilung (SA) or "storm unit" used acts of violence against leftist's democrats, Jews, and other opposition or minority groups. The SA'S violence created a climate of fear in cities, with people anxious over punishment, or even death, if they displayed opposition to the Nazis the SA also helped attract large numbers of alienated and unemployed youth to the party.

The Nazis endorsed the concept of Gerobdeutschland, or greater Germany, and believed that the incorporation of the Germanic people into one nation was a vital step towards their national success. It was the Nazis' passionate support to the concept of greater Germany that lead to Germany's expansion, that gave legitimacy and the support needed for the third Reich to proceed to conquer long-lost territories with overwhelmingly non-German population like former Prussian gains in Poland that it lost to Russia in the 1800s, or the acquire territories with German population like parts of Austria. The German concept of lebensraum (Living Space) or more specifically its need for an expanding German population was also claimed by the Nazi regime for territorial expansion. As a further extension of policy of political expansion (the lebensraum Programme) the Nazis attempted that Eastern Europe should be settled with ethnic Germans. And the Slavic population who met the Nazi racial standard should be absorbed into the Reich. Those, who were not fitting the racial standards, were to be used as cheap labour force or they were to be deported eastward.

Foreign policy

From 1933 onward, Hitler and the Nazi regime performed a number of political manoeuvres in order to restore German power on an international level, all in violation of the Versailles treaty. As Germany's agenda became increasingly revisionist, opposition grew. However, the 1935 Anglo-German naval agreement between Great Britain and Germany, allowing Germany to resume formerly- illegal naval construction, was seen by both sides as an important overture of peace given a Shipbuilding rivalry of the past.

That same year Germany endorsed a plebiscite in German populated sear, which resulted in its returning to Germany in 1935, after held by France as a protectorate since 1919. In 1936, with no British or French forces remaining in the Rhineland (which was to be permanently demilitarized of German forces). Germany defied the Versailles treaty by sending military forces into the Rhineland.

From 1936 onward, Germany steadily proceeded on an interventionist foreign policy approach, beginning by supporting the fascist nationalist forces of Francisco Franco during the Spanish civil war against the republican forces which were supported by the Soviet Union. German aircraft took park in attacks on Spanish republican forces as well as the infamous bombing of civilians in the Basque town of Guernica in 1937.

Although Germany's relations with Italy improved with creation of the Rome-Berlin axis, tensions remained high because the Nazis wanted Austria to be incorporated into Germany. Italy was opposed to this, as were France and Britain. In 1938, an Austrian- led Nazi coup took place in Austria and Germany sent in its troops, annexing the country. Italy and Britain no longer had common interests and, as Germany had stopped supporting the Germans who were under Italy's control in south Tyrol, Italy began to gravitate towards Germany.

Germany's annexation of the Sudetenland from Czechoslovakia in September 1938 came about during talks with British Prime Minister Neville chamberlain, in which Hitler, backed by Italian dictator Benito Mussolini demanded that the German territories be ceded. Chamberlain and Hitler came to an agreement when Hitler signed a piece of paper which said that with the annexation of the Sudetenland, Germany would

proceed with no further territorial aims. Chamberlain took this to be a success in that it avoided a potential war with Germany. However, the Nazis helped to promote Slovakian dissension which resulted in the dismemberment of Czechoslovakia. Hitler annexed the Czech part into Germany.

Germany had engaged in informal negotiations with Poland regarding the issue of territorial revision for quite some time but after the Munich Agreement and the reacquisition of Memel, the Hitler became increasingly vocal. But Poland refused to allow the annexation of the free city of Danzig. Germany and the Soviet Union began talks over planning an invasion of Poland. In August 1939, the Molotov pact was signed and Germany and the Soviet Union agreed to divide Poland along a mutually-agreed set boundary. The invasion was put into effect on September 1, 1939. Last-minute Polish-German diplomatic proceedings failed, and Germany invaded Poland as scheduled. Germany alleged that Polish operatives had attacked German positions. Hitler's attack on Poland resulted in the outbreak of World War II as allied forces refused to accept Germany's claims on Poland.

Legal system of Nazi Germany

Most of the judicial structures and legal codes of the Weimar Republic remained in use during the Third Reich, but significant changes within the judicial codes occurred, as well as significant changes in court rulings. The Nazi Party was the only legal political party in Germany and all other political parties were banned. Most human rights of the constitution of the Weimar Republic were disabled by several Reichsgesetze (Reich's Laws). Several minorities such as the Jews, opposition politicians and prisoners of war were deprived of most of their rights and responsibilities.

The plan to pass a Volksstrafgesetzbuch (people's code of criminal justice) arose soon after 1933, but didn't come into reality until the end of WWII. Hitler established a new type of court, known as the People's Court in 1934. This court dealt with the cases of political importance only. From 1934 to September 1944, a total of 5,375 death sentences were spoken by the court.

Military policy

The military of the Third Reich- the Wehrmacht- was the name of the unified armed forces of Germany from 1935 to 1945 with Heer (Army), Kriegsmarine (Navy), Luftwaffe (Air Force) and a military organization Waffen-SS (National Guard), which was, de facto, a fourth branch of the Wehrmacht.

The German army furthered concepts pioneered during the First World War, combining ground and air force assets into combined arms teams. Coupled with traditional war fighting methods such as encirclements and the "battle of annihilation", the German military managed many lightning quick victories in the first year of the second world war prompting foreign journalists to create a new word for what they witnessed: blitzkrieg. The total number of soldiers who served in the Wehrmacht during its existence from 1935 until 1945 is believed to approach 18.2 million.

Social policy

The Nazi social policy divided the German public into two groups namely the "Aryans" and the "non-Aryans" for "Aryan" Germans, a number of social policies were initiated by the regime to benefit them. These steps included state opposition to the use of tobacco and an end to official stigmatization toward Aryan children who were born from parents outside of marriage, as well as giving financial existence to Aryan German families who bore children.

The Nazi Party pursued its racial and social policies through persecution and killing of those who were considered social undesirables or "enemies of the Reich" Especially targeted were minority groups such as Jews, Romani (also known as gypsies), slaves, people with mental or physical disabilities and homosexuals. In the 1930s, plans to isolate and eventually eliminate Jews completely in Germany began with the construction of ghettos, concentration camps, and labor camps which began with the 1933 construction of the Dachau concentration camp, which Heinrich Himmler officially described as "the first concentration camp for political prisoners."

In the years following the Nazi rise to power, many Jews were encouraged to leave the country and many did so. By the time the Nuremberg laws were passed in 1935, Jews were stripped of their German citizenship and denied government employment. Most Jews employed by Germans lost their jobs at this time, which were being taken by unemployed Germans. Notably, the Nazi government attempted to send 17,000 German Jews of Polish descent back to Poland. This provided the pretext for a pogrom the Nazi party incited against the Jews on November 9, 1938, which specifically targeted Jewish businesses. By September 1939 more than 200,000 Jews had left Germany, with the Nazi government seizing any property they left behind.

The Nazis also undertook programmes targeting “weak” or “unfit” people, such as the T-4 Euthanasia programme, killing tens of thousands of disabled and sick Germans in an effort to “maintain the purity of the German master race” as described by Nazi propagandists. The techniques of mass killing developed in these efforts would later be used in the Holocaust under a law passed in 1933, the Nazi regime carried out the compulsory sterilization of over 400,000 individuals labeled as having hereditary defects, ranging from mental illness to alcoholism.

Another component of the Nazi programme of creating racial purity was the Lebensborn, or “fountain of life” programme founded in 1936. The programme was aimed at encouraging German soldiers- mainly SS- to reproduce. This included offering SS families support services (including the adoption of racially pure children into suitable SS families) and accommodating racially- valuable women, pregnant with mainly SS men’s children, in care homes in Germany and throughout occupied Europe. Lebensborn also expanded to encompass the placing of racially pure children forcibly seized from occupied countries such as Poland – with German families.

At the outset of World War II, the German authority in the general government in occupied Poland ordered that all Jews face compulsory labor and that those who were physically incapable such as women and children were to be confined to ghettos.

To the Nazis a number of ideas appeared on how to answer the “Jewish question”. One method was a mass forced deportation of Jews. Adolf Eichmann suggested that Jews be forced to immigrate to Palestine. Franz Redemacher made the proposal that Jews be deported to Madagascar; this proposal was supported by Himmler and was discussed by Hitler and Italian dictator Benito Mussolini but was later dismissed as impractical in 1942. The idea of continuing deportations to occupied Poland was rejected by the governor Hans Frank, of the general government of occupied Poland, as Frank refused to accept any more deportations of Jews to the territory which already had large numbers of Jews. In 1942, at the Wannsee Conference, Nazi officials decided to eliminate the Jews altogether, as discussed the “final solution of the Jewish question”. Concentration camps like Auschwitz were converted and used gas chambers to kill as many Jews as possible. By 1945, a number of concentration camps had been liberated by allied forces and they found the survivors to be severely malnourished. The allies also found evidence that the Nazis were profiteering from the mass murder of Jews not only by confiscating their property and personal valuables but also by extracting gold fillings from the bodies of some Jews held in concentration camps.

Social welfare

Recent research by academics such as Gotz Aly has emphasized the role of the extensive Nazi social welfare programmes that focused on providing employment for German citizens and insuring a minimal living standard for German citizens. Heavily focused on was the idea of a national German community. To aid the fostering of a feeling of community, the German people’s labour and entertainment experiences- from festivals, to vacation trips and travelling cinemas- were all made a part of the “strength through joy” (Kraft durch Freude, kdf) programme. Also crucial to the building of loyalty and comradeship was the implementation of the national labour service and the Hitler youth organization, with compulsory membership. In addition to this, a number of architectural projects were undertaken kdf created the kdf-wagen, later known as the Volkswagen (people’s Car) which was designed to be a cheap, inexpensive automobile that every German citizen would be able to afford. The kdf wagon also was created in the idea that it could be converted to military vehicle for

war. Another national project undertaken was the construction of the autobahn, made in the first freeway system in the world.

Education policy

Education under the Nazi regime focused on racial biology, population policy, culture, geography and especially physical fitness. Anti-Semitic policy led to the expulsion of Jewish teachers and professors and officials from the education system. All university professors were required to be a member of the national socialist association of university lecturers in order to be able to be employed as professors.

Women's Rights

The Nazis opposed women's emancipation and opposed the feminist movement, claiming that it was Jewish and was bad for both women and men. The Nazi regime advocated a patriarchal society in which German women would recognize the "world is her husband, her family, her children, and her home." Hitler claimed that taking of vital jobs away from men by the women during the great depression, was economically bad for families in that women were paid only 66 percent of what men earned. The being said, Hitler never considered forcing the idea of raising women's wages to avoid such a scenario again, but instead called for women to stay at home. Simultaneously with calling for women to leave work outside the home, the regime called for women to be actively supportive of the state regarding women's affairs. In 1933, Hitler appointed Gertrud Schultz-Klink as the Reich women's leader who instructed women that their primary role in society was to bear children and that women should be subservient to men, once saying "the mission of woman is to minister in the home and in her profession to the needs of life from the first to last moment of man's existence.

The Nazi regime discouraged women from seeking higher education in Secondary school, universities and colleges. The number of women allowed to enroll in universities dropped drastically under the Nazi regime, which shrank from approximately 128,000 women being enrolled in 1933 to 51,000 in 1938. Female enrollment in secondary schools dropped from 437,000 in 1926 to 205,000 in 1937. However with the requirement of men to be enlisted into the German armed forces during the war, women made up half of the enrollment in the education system by 1944.

Organizations were made for the indoctrination of Nazi values to German women. Such organizations included the jungmadel (Young Girls) section of the Hitler youth for girls from the age 10 to 14, the bund Deutscher model CBDM, (German girls league) for young women from 14 to 18. Nonetheless, one reason for allied success in the war was that Germany never fully mobilized with regard to women while the nations arrayed against Germany not only recruited women into the military services but also unhesitatingly accepted women into the civilian workforce, particularly militarily critical jobs (Such as heavy truck/lorry driver, ship-fitter) previously held by men. Only late in the war, after many German municipalities were already bombed into rubble, did Germany begin training women and girls in how to operate anti-aircraft cannon located in their own neighborhoods. Despite the somewhat official restrictions, some women forged highly visible, as well as officially praised, achievements.

Fascism

Fascism is an ideology, a faction or a political philosophy that believes in aggressive nationalism. The fascists place the interests of the state above the individual. The fascist form of government is characterized by a centralized autocratic state government by a dictatorial head, stringent organization of the economy and society, and aggressive repression of opposition. In addition to placing the interests of the individual as subordinate to that of the nation or race, fascism seeks to achieve a national rebirth by promoting colts of unity, energy and purity. Fascists promote a type of national unity that is usually based on (but not limited to) ethnic, cultural, national, racial, and/or religious attributes.

Rise of fascism in Italy

The fascists in Italy were those who wore the black shirt as a sort of uniform and drilled themselves in quasi military companies. They were highly patriotic and exalted the authority of the state. They also stood of the

Italian patriotism and nationalism. The leader these people was Benito Mussolini who participated as a soldier in First World War and ultimately became founder and leader of fascist party.

Disappointment at Italy's gains from the peace settlement was one of the important factors responsible for the rise of fascism. Though Italy fought on the side of the victorious allies in the First World War, she emerged from the war a defeated nation. Six hundred and fifty thousand Italians had been killed and a million wounded. She was not happy with the terms of peace settlement because she was not given what had been promised to her by the treaty of London concluded during the war when she entered the war the allies had promised her trentino, the south Tyrol, Istria, Trieste, part of Dalmatia, Adalia, some Aegean islands, and a protectorate over Albania by the secret treaty of London (1915) in exchange for Italy's entrance into the war. Although she was given the first four areas, the rest were awarded to other states, mainly Yugoslavia and Albania was made independent. The Italians felt cheated in view of their valiant efforts during the war. Their failure to get Fiume (given to Yugoslavia), was particularly irritating to them. Naturally Italy felt dissatisfied, disappointed and considerable wounded in her self-esteem.

The programme of the fascists promised order and glory to the people of Italy. This programme was in consonance with the aspirations of the people and attracted the people towards them. Because of this the public extended willing support to its leaders. The fascists emphasized that the democracy was not suitable for the country because it widens the gap between the poor and the rich, the country could make progress only under one leader.

The fascism grew Italy to meet the challenges of the disorder created by the international communist movement in Italy. The communists, who were growing in large numbers, created serious danger to the Italian way of life. The government also proved weak to check the penetration of the communists. The fascists set up clubs all over the property and conservative sections of the society. After a series of fascist-socialist street fights and riots, the Anti Bolsheviks began to look to Mussolini's fascist bands to defend their interests. D'Annunzio defeat left Mussolini as his natural heir. The leftist opposition to Mussolini was further weakened when the communists split off from the socialist party in 1921. The fascists grew enormously, from 30000 in May 1920 to 100,000 in February 1921, to more than 300,000 in October 1922. Liberal parliamentary leaders of Italy felt that the fascist bands were teaching the left a useful lesson, so they encouraged army officers to issue rifles, trucks and gasoline to the fascists and assigned officers to command their operations. The police were encouraged to look the other way during disorders started by fascists, and local judges were urged to help by releasing arrested fascists. Mussolini's newspaper was circulated free to the soldiers in the army as a patriotic sheet thus, the fascism arose as an answer to the bolshevism and to curb anarchy.

The effects of the war on the economy and the standard of living were disastrous. The government had borrowed heavily, especially from the USA, and these debts now had to be repaid. Italian industry slumped immediately after the war and within a few months 10 per cent of the industrial workers were unemployed, prices rose rapidly, and wages failed to keep up. The promised pensions for wounded veterans and families of the killed were long delayed. Strikes and disorders became frequent. Many of the young men were released from the armies with no trade but war and no job to go to, they drifted restlessly, prey for leaders with glittering promises. As the lira declined in value, the cost of living increased accordingly by at least five times. There was massive unemployment as heavy industry cut back its wartime production levels, and 2.5 million ex-servicemen had difficulty in finding jobs. Secondly after the end of the war, Italy resorted to demobilization which created serious unemployment and bred discontent, there were wide spread strikes and lock-outs in the country. Hungry mobs organized a number of uprisings and there were frequent riots. Even the middle classes were greatly impoverished. The existing democratic government was considered to be too feeble to tackle the numerous problems confronting the country.

During 1920 and 1921 the industrialists and landowners, squeezed by taxation and inflation, became bitter shopkeepers and traders wanted the street disorders to end, food prices to be regulated and the cooperative food stores of the socialist and catholic parties to be closed as competitors. Professionals and

others with fixed incomes suffered, as prices went up and salaries lagged behind. The police grew tired of suppressing local disorders. In fact there was complete political instability in the country between 1919 and 1922. Six coalition governments were formed in Italy. People thought that under the circumstances only a strong and powerful government could take the country forward. The situation was fully exploited by the fascists under the leadership of Mussolini and they fed the people with the idea of providing a strong truly national government. The Russian revolution also inspired the Italian leaders. The Italian socialist leaders tried to fully exploit the extremely bad economic conditions prevailing in the post world war period and tried to transplant the soviet system in Italy. They organized strikes, lock-outs, riots etc. in Italy and created chaotic conditions in Italy. This way fully exploited by the fascists.

Growing contempt for the parliamentary system also enabled the rise of fascists. Votes for all men and proportional representation were introduced for the 1919 elections. Although this gave a fairer representation than under the previous system, it meant that there was large number of parties in parliament. This flimsy system of franchise prevailing in the country greatly contributed to the rise of fascism in Italy. After the election of May 1921, for example, there were at least nine parties represented, including liberals, nationalists, socialists and communists, this made it difficult for any one party to gain an overall majority, and coalition government were inevitable. No consistent policy was possible as five different cabinets with shaky majorities came and went there was growing impatience with system which seemed designed to prevent decisive government. On account of their mutual differences and bickering, these parties could not take any concerted action against the fascists and thereby greatly contributed to the rise of fascism in Italy.

In the elections of May 1921 Mussolini and thirty four other fascists were elected to the chamber of deputies (the lower house of the Italian parliament), along with ten nationalists as their political allies. The momentum of the fascist movement was now too great to be slowed down. Mussolini abandoned his antimonarchical views, and fascism became a political party in November as a necessary step in the drive for power. The government became alarmed too late and tried to take measures against the fascists, but the fascists were too strong by now and the police too was accustomed to collaborating with them. The liberal politicians were also unaware till now that a lightly directed armed mob could take over the state. The king's cousin had become a fascist sympathizer, as had many generals, the entire nationalist party, and leading industrialists.

In the fall of 1922 it was clear that the army would not resist fascist coup in Rome. When a decree of martial law was presented to the king, he refused to sign it, probably law was presented to the king, he refused to sign it, probably influenced by his knowledge that the army would not fight the fascists and that his cousin would gladly take his crown. The cabinet resigned, and on October 29 the king telegraphed Mussolini in Milan to come to Rome and form a cabinet. Mussolini arrived by sleeping car the next morning, just ahead of thousands of followers who "marched on Rome" by commandeering railroad trains.

Political and legislative policies of the fascist regime

At various times after 1922, Mussolini personally took over the ministries of the interior, foreign affairs, colonies, corporations, defense, and public works. Sometimes he held as many as seven departments simultaneously, as well as the premiership. He was also head of the all powerful fascist party and the armed local fascist militia, the MVSN or "black shirts." Who terrorized incipient resistances in the cities and provinces? He later formed the OVRA, institutionalized secret police that carried official state support. In this way he succeeded in keeping power in his own hands and preventing the emergence of any rival.

Over the next two years, Mussolini progressively dismantled virtually all constitutional and conventional restraints on his power, thereby building a police state. A law passed on Christmas Eve 1925 changed Mussolini's formal title from "president of the council of ministers" to "head of the government." He was no longer responsible to parliament and could only be removed by the king. While the Italian constitution stated that ministers were only responsible to the sovereign. In practice it had become all but impossible to govern against the express will of parliament. The Christmas Eve law ended this practice, and also made Mussolini the only person competent to determine the body's agenda. Local autonomy was abolished and podestats

appointed by the Italian senate replaced elected mayors and councils.

All other parties were outlawed in 1928, though in practice Italy had been a one party state since Mussolini's 1925 speech. In the same year, an electoral law abolished parliamentary elections. Instead, the grand council of fascism selected a single list of candidates to be approved by plebiscite. The grand council had been created five years earlier as a party body but was "constitutionalised" and became the highest constitutional authority in the state. The grand council also had power to recommend Mussolini's removal from office, and was thus theoretically the only check on his power. However, only Mussolini could summon the grand council and determine its agenda.

Economic policy

Mussolini launched several public construction programmes and government initiatives throughout Italy to combat economic setbacks or unemployment levels. His earliest and one of the best known was Italy's equivalent of the green revolution, known as the "battle for grain", in which 5,000 new farms were established and five new agricultural towns on land reclaimed by draining the Pontine Marshes. This plan diverted valuable resources to grain production, away from other less economically viable crops. The huge tariffs associated with the project promoted widespread inefficiencies and the government subsidies given to farmers pushed the country further into debt. Mussolini also initiated the "battle for land", a policy based on land reclamation outlined in 1928. The initiative had a mixed success; while projects such as the draining of the Pontine Marsh in 1935 for agriculture were good for propaganda purposes, provided work for the unemployed and allowed for great land owners to control subsidies; other areas in the battle for land were not very successful. This programme was inconsistent with the battle for grain (small plots of land were inappropriately allocated for large-scale wheat production), and the Pontine Marsh was lost during world war II. Fewer than 10,000 peasants resettled on the redistributed land, and peasant poverty remained high. The battle for land initiative was abandoned in 1940.

He also combated the economic recession by introducing the "gold for the fatherland" initiative, by encouraging the public to voluntarily donate gold jewellery such as necklaces and wedding rings to government officials in exchange for steel wrist bands bearing the words "gold for the fatherland". Even Rachel Mussolini donated her own wedding ring. The collected gold was then melted down and turned into gold bars, which were then distributed to the national banks.

Mussolini pushed for government control over all types of businesses. By 1935, Mussolini claimed that three quarters of Italian businesses were under state control. That same year, he issued several edicts to further control the economy, including forcing all banks, businesses, and private citizens to give up all their foreign-issued stocks and bonds to the bank of Italy. In 1938, he also instituted wage and price controls. He also attempted to turn Italy into a self-sufficient autarchy, instituting high barriers on trade with most countries except Germany.

Foreign policy of fascist Italy

In foreign policy, Mussolini was pacifist and anti-imperialist during his lead-up to the power but he soon shifted to an extreme form of aggressive nationalism. An early example was his bombardment of Corfu in 1923. Soon after he succeeded in setting up a puppet regime in Albania and in ruthlessly consolidating Italian power in Libya, which had been loosely a colony since 1912. It was his dream to make the Mediterranean *mare nostrum* ("our sea in Latin"), and established a large naval base on the Greek island of Leros to enforce a strategic hold on the eastern Mediterranean.

Conquest of Ethiopia

In an effort to realise an Italian empire or the new Roman Empire as supporters called it, Italy set its sights on Ethiopia with an invasion that was carried out rapidly. Italy's forces were far superior to the Abyssinian forces, especially in regards to air power and were soon declared victors. Emperor Haile Selassie was forced to flee the country. Italian forces entered the capital Addis Ababa and proclaimed an empire in May 1936, making Ethiopia part of Italian East Africa.

Despite the fact that all of the major European power of the time had also colonized part of Africa, including some who maintained power by particularly brutal means such as the French and British, detractors of Mussolini commonly choose to single out Italy's actions, retroactively, Italy was criticized for its use of mustard gas and phosgene against its enemies and also for its zero tolerance approach to enemy guerrillas.

When Rodolfo Graziani the viceroy of Ethiopia was nearly assassinated at an official ceremony, with the guerrilla bomb actually exploding among the people there, a very strong handed reaction followed against the guerrillas, including those who were prisoners according to the international Red Cross. The IRC also alleged insisting that the rebels were targeted. It wasn't until the east African campaign's conclusion in 1941 that Italy lost its east African territories.

Spanish civil war and Rome-Berlin axis

Mussolini actively participated in the Spanish civil war during 1936-1939 on the side of Franco. His participation in this conflict any possibility of reconciliation of Italy with France and Britain. As a result, his relationship with Adolf Hitler became closer and he chooses to accept the German annexation of Austria in 1938 and the dismemberment of Czechoslovakia in 1939. At the Munich conference in September 1938, he posed as a moderate working for European peace, helping Nazi Germany seize control of the Sudetenland. Until May 1939, the axis had not been entirely official, however during that month the fact of steel, a treaty was made outlining the "friendship and alliance" between Germany and Italy, signed by each of his foreign ministers.

Munich conference (September 1938)

The allies still regarded Mussolini as approachable at this point and 11 Duce acted as the go between at the Munich agreement. This was an effort to avoid all-out warfare between the powers, which was signed by Neville chamberlain of Britain, Eduard Daladier of France, as well as Mussolini and Hitler. However the Italia irredenta stance, desired the returning of lands which previously belonged to older states now incorporated inside of Italy, to complete the Italian unification. This included nice which was part of the kingdom of Sardinia until 1860, Corsica which was part of the republic of Genoa until 1768 and most contentiously for European relations, Malta which was part of the kingdom of Sicily until 1530.

Mussolini had imperial designs on Tunisia which had some support in that country. In April 1939 with world focus on Hitler's invasion of Czechoslovakia, looking to restore honour form a much older defeat Italy invaded Albania. Italy defeated Albania within just five days forcing king zong to flee, setting up a period of Albania under Italy.

BRITAIN AND FRANCE BETWEEN THE TWO WORLD WAR

Britain

Britain and France did not succumb to fascist movements. However, both these countries were faced with serious economic difficulties. In 1921, there were 2 million unemployed persons in Britain. The workers' movement made great advances. In 1924, the first Labour Party government came to power. However, it did not remain in power for long. In 1926 occurred the biggest strike in the history of Britain involving 6 million workers. The strike ultimately failed. A few years later, Britain was badly affected by the worldwide economic crisis and about three million people were unemployed. In 1931, the National government comprising the Conservative, the Labour and the Liberal parties was formed. This government took some steps to overcome the serious economic difficulties though the unemployment situation remained serious. After the victory of fascism in Germany, a fascist movement started in Britain but it could not make much headway and Britain continued as a democratic country.

France

The government of France for many years was dominated by big bankers and industrialists. It hoped that by making use of the resources of the German areas which had come under her control after the war, it would be able to make France economically strong. However, these hopes were not fulfilled. France could not

attain political stability also. Many governments came and fell. Political instability was made worse as a result of the economic crisis, and corruption became rampant. Fascist movement rose its head and there was violence in the streets. Ultimately, to meet the threat posed by fascist and other antidemocratic forces, a government comprising Socialist, Radical Socialist and Communist parties was formed in 1936. This is known as the Popular Front government and it lasted for about two years. During this period many important economic reforms were introduced in France.

Thus Britain and France succeeded in remaining democratic countries even though they were faced with serious problems. However, the foreign policy of these countries, as you will see later, was not conducive to the maintenance of democracy in other parts of Europe and in preventing the outbreak of war.

USA between Two World Wars

One of the most important features of the period after the First World War was the decline in the supremacy of Europe in the world and the growing importance of the United States of America. She had, in fact, emerged as the richest and the most powerful country in the world at the end of the war. This was clear from the important role that she played during the framing of the peace treaties. While the war had severely damaged the economy of the European countries, the economy of USA during this time had in fact become stronger. She had made tremendous industrial progress and was beginning to make heavy investments in Europe. However, in spite of this progress, the United States was frequently beset with serious economic problems. These problems were the result of the capitalist system about which you have read before.

The Great Depression

The worldwide economic crisis which began in 1929 has been mentioned before. The crisis originated in USA. The years after First World War had seen a big increase in the production of goods in America. In spite of this, however, more than half of the population lived at less than the minimum subsistence level. In October 1929, the entire economy began to collapse. The stock market in New York Crashed. The fall in the value of shares had created so much panic that in one day 16 million shares were sold in New York Stock Exchange. In some companies, the shares held by people became totally worthless. During the next four years, more than 9,000 American banks closed down and millions of people lost their life's savings. The manufacturers and farmers could not get any money to invest and as people had little money to buy, the goods could not be sold. This led to the closing of thousands of factories and throwing of workers out of employment. The purchasing power of the people was thus reduced which led to the closing down of more factories and to unemployment.

The Depression, as this situation is called, began to spread to all the capitalist countries of Europe in 1931. After the First World War, the economies of the countries of Europe, excluding Russia, had become closely connected with and even dependent on the economy of USA, particularly on the American banks. The consequences of the Depression in Europe were similar to those in the USA and in some cases even worse. The economies of the colonies of the European countries were also affected.

Result of The Great Depression

The Depression resulted in large scale unemployment, loss of production, poverty and starvation. It continued throughout the 1930s even though after 1933, the economies of the affected countries began to recover. The crisis as long as it lasted was the most terrible and affected the lives of scores of millions of people all over the world. The estimates of unemployed during this period all over the world vary between 50 and 100 million. In USA alone, the richest country in the world, the number of the unemployed exceeded 15 million. Thousands of factories, banks and business enterprises stopped working. The industrial production fell by about 35 per cent, in some countries by about half.

It may appear surprising that the crisis was caused by overproduction. You have read earlier how under capitalism, the owners of factories and business enterprises try to maximize their profits by producing more and more goods. When production increases but the purchasing power of the workers remains low,

the goods cannot be sold unless their prices are reduced. However, the prices cannot be reduced because this would affect the profits. So the goods remain unsold and the factories are closed to stop further production. With the closure of factories people are thrown out of employment which makes the situation worse as the goods which have been produced cannot be sold. Such crises occurred often in almost every country after the spread of the Industrial Revolution. The crisis of 1929-33 was, however, the worst in history. In this crisis while millions were starving, lakhs of tonnes of wheat were burnt down in some areas to prevent the price of wheat from falling.

Political Consequences

The economic crisis had serious political consequences. You have read how the Nazis in Germany exploited the discontent of the people to promote their anti democratic programme. In many countries, hunger marches were organized and the socialist movement pressed for far-reaching changes in the economic system so that such crises would not recur. The only country which was not affected by the economic crisis of 1929-33 was the Soviet Union.

Economy Of The USA

The economic crisis had worst affected—the economy of the United States. It led to the victory of the Democratic Party and Franklin D. Roosevelt became the President of the United States in 1933. Under his leadership a programme of economic reconstruction and social welfare was started. This programme is known as the New Deal. Steps were taken to improve the conditions of workers and to create employment. As a result of the New Deal, the economy of the United States recovered from the crisis and the industrial production picked up again. In 1939, however, there were still 9 million unemployed people in the United States.

The United States had retained her position as a mighty power. However, her foreign policy was not very different from that of Britain and France. She, like Britain and France, did not adopt a strong position to resist aggressive acts of fascist powers until after the outbreak of the Second World War when she herself had to enter the war.

SOVIET UNION BETWEEN THE TWO WORLD WARS

The emergence of Soviet Union as a major power

The period after the First World War saw the emergence of the Soviet Union as a major power and she began to play a crucial role in world affairs.

Russia's participation in the First World War and the long period of civil war and foreign intervention which followed the revolution had completely shattered the economy of the country. This was a period of acute economic distress for the people. There was a severe shortage of food. The production of industrial goods had fallen far below the prewar level. To make the distribution of goods equitable in conditions of severe scarcity, certain strong measures were taken. The peasants were made to part with their produce which was in excess of what was essential for their own needs. They were not allowed to sell it in the market. The payment of salaries in cash was stopped and instead people were paid in kind, that is foodstuffs and manufactured goods. These measures had created unrest among the peasants and other sections of society but were accepted because they were considered essential to defend the revolution. After the civil war ended, these measures were withdrawn and in 1921, the New Economic Policy was introduced. Under this policy, the peasants were allowed to sell their produce in the open markets, payment of wages in cash was reintroduced and production of goods and their sale in some industries under private control was permitted. A few years later, in 1929, the USSR started its vigorous programme of economic reconstruction and industrialization when it adopted the first of a series of its Five Year Plans. Within a few years, the Soviet Union emerged as a major industrial power. The extraordinary economic progress that the Soviet Union achieved was against heavy odds. Though the foreign intervention had been ended, many countries of Europe, and the United States followed a policy of economic boycott with the aim of destroying the revolution. However, the Soviet Union not only survived but continued to grow economically at a fast rate. She was, as

mentioned before, the only country which remained unaffected by the economic crisis of 1929-33. On the contrary, its industrial development went on as before while millions of people in the west were unemployed and thousands of factories had come to a standstill.

The Soviet Union was not recognized by most European powers and USA for a long time. You have read before that she was not allowed to be represented at the Peace Conference which was held at the end of the First World War nor in the League of Nations. She remained surrounded by countries which were openly hostile to her. However, with its growing strength she could not be ignored and gradually one country after another recognized her. Britain established diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union in 1933. In 1934 she also became a member of the League of Nations. However, in spite of the ending of the isolation of the Soviet Union, the hostility towards the Soviet Union continued. The Soviet Union followed a policy of support to the movements for independence. The help given to China is notable in this context. When the fascist countries started their acts of aggression, the Soviet government pressed for action against them. However, the Western countries did not agree to the Soviet proposals. They continued to regard the Soviet Union as a danger to them and hoped that the fascist countries would destroy her. Their hostility to the Soviet Union led to the appeasement of fascist powers and paved the way for the Second World War.

Asia And Africa Between The Two World Wars

The period following the First World War saw the strengthening of the movements of the peoples of Asia and Africa for independence. As stated earlier, many leaders of freedom movements in Asia and Africa had supported the war effort of the Allies in the hope that their countries would win freedom, or at least more rights after war was over. Their hopes had been belied and the imperialist leaders soon made it clear that the wartime slogans of freedom and democracy were not meant for then colonies. However, the war had weakened the imperialist countries and had contributed to the awakening of the colonial peoples. Their struggles for freedom entered a new phase after the war. The support of the Soviet Union further added to the strength of the freedom movements. Even though most of the countries of Asia and Africa emerged as independent nations after the Second World War, the period after the First World War saw serious weakening of imperialism.

India between The Two World War

In India this was the period when the freedom movement became a mass movement under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi. Many countries in Asia made significant advances towards freedom. You have read before that Iran had been divided into Russian and British spheres of influence before the First World War. The Soviet government after the revolution of 1917 had given up the sphere under her control and had withdrawn all her troops from there. The British, however, tried to extend their influence over the entire country. These efforts were met with a widespread uprising. In 1921, power was seized by Reza Khan who in 1925 became the emperor. The British troops left Iran and the modernization of Iran began.

The British government had waged many wars against Afghanistan in the nineteenth century. As a result of these wars, the independence of Afghanistan had been curbed. The foreign relations of Afghanistan had passed under British control. In 1919, the king of Afghanistan was assassinated and his son, Amanullah became the King. Amanullah proclaimed complete independence of Afghanistan, which was immediately recognized by the Soviet Union. The British government in India waged a war against the new Afghan government but in the end Britain agreed to recognize the independence of Afghanistan. Amanullah's government made vigorous efforts to modernize Afghanistan.

There was an upsurge in Arab countries against Britain and France. The Arabs had been asked by the Allies, during the First World War, to fight against their Ottoman rulers. However, the end of the war did not result in the independence of Arab countries. These countries had assumed additional importance after it was known that they had immense oil resources. Britain and France had extended their control over these countries as their protectorates and 'mandates'. There were uprisings against Britain in Egypt and Britain was forced in 1922 to grant independence to Egypt though British troops continued to stay there.

Syria had been handed over to France after the war. However, from the very beginning France met with intense opposition there. In 1925 there was an open rebellion and the French government resorted to a reign of terror. The city of Damascus which became a centre of revolt was reduced to ruins when the French troops bombed the city from the air and made use of heavy artillery to shell the city. About 25,000 people were killed as a result of bombing and shelling of Damascus. However, in spite of these massacres, the resistance to French rule continued.

China between The Two World War

One of the most powerful movements in this period began in China. In 1911, there was a revolution in China which resulted in the established of a republic. However, power passed into the hands of corrupt governors called warlords. The national movement in China aimed at the overthrow of foreign domination and the unification of China by ending the rule of the warlords. The founder of the national movement in China was Dr. Sun YatSen. He had played an important role in the 1911 revolution and in 1917 had set up a government at Canton in south China. The party formed by him called Kuomintang led the national struggle in China for a number of years.

The Russian Revolution had a deep impact on China. The new government in Russia had renounced all the unequal treaties which the Russian emperors had imposed on China and had promised full support to the Chinese national struggle. In 1921 the Communist Party of China was formed. In 1924, the Kuomintang and the Communist Party decided to work together and the Soviet government gave various kinds of aid, such as the training of a revolutionary army. A number of Soviet political and military advisers worked with the Chinese liberation movement. After the death of Sun YatSen in 1925, the unity between the Kuomintang and the Communist Party was broken and a period of civil war began. In the 1930s when the Japanese attacked China with the aim of subjugating the entire country, the two parties agreed to work together to resist the Japanese invasion. The Communist Party played a leading role in the war of resistance against the Japanese invasion. It was able to establish its supremacy in the country and within a few years after the end of the Second World War was victorious in the civil war.

Africa between the Two World War

This period also saw the emergence of political and national consciousness in Africa. Though the struggles for national independence in Africa gained momentum after the Second World War, the 1920s and the 1930s were a period when the first political associations were formed. An important role in the growth of national consciousness in Africa was played by a series of Pan African Congresses. The Pan African movement asserted the identity and unity of the African people, and independence of Africa. The national movement in 'the Union of South Africa had emerged earlier than in other parts of Africa. In 1912 had been formed the African National Congress which became the leading organization of the South African people. The people of Ethiopia fought heroically against the Italian invasion of Chen country in 193536 and their resistance served as a source of inspiration to the people of Africa.

The national awakening of the people of Asia and Africa and the growing strength of their struggle for freedom were factors of great importance in the making of the modern world. While the long oppressed peoples in these two continents were beginning to assert their right to independence, preparations for another war were being made in Europe.

Japanese Invasion of China

One of the first major acts of aggression after the First World War was the Japanese invasion of China in 1931. A minor incident involving a railway line owned by the Japanese in Manchuria, the northeastern province of China, was made the pretext for the invasion. China, a member of the League of Nations, appealed to the League for sanctions against Japan to stop the aggression. However, Britain and France, the leading countries in the League, were completely indifferent to the appeal and acquiesced in the aggression. Japan occupied

Manchuria installed a puppet government there and proceeded to conquer more areas. The United States also did nothing to counter the aggression. In 1933, Japan quit the League of Nations. She had also started seizing the British and American property in China. However, the appeasement of Japan continued as the Western countries thought that the Japanese could be used to weaken China as well as the Soviet Union. Britain had an additional reason. She did not want to alienate Japan and thus endanger her possessions in Asia.



CHAPTER - 11**WORLD WAR - II****Introduction**

All the close of the Paris peace conference the delegates of the great power expressed hopes that the old mistakes would not be repeated and no nation would amass brute force, but these hopes were completely belied. The events that followed World War I led to the Second World War stern French policy of extraction reparation from Germany worldwide Depression, imperialistic policy of Japan. Mussolini's lust for an empire and the development of dictatorial power of Hitler in Germany were some of the factors that gave a fatal blow to the international order established in 1919. England adopted the policy of appeasement and this encouraged the aggressive nations. Consequently the international situation became frightful. After 1936 the War cloud begins to thicken everywhere and finally on September 1 1939 the Second World War broke out exactly twenty years after World War I, when Germany attacked Poland naturally the ground for the Second World War had been prepared during these twenty years.

Economic and political situation in the world on the Eve of the World War II

The whole world had to suffer economic and political consequence of the World War I. The Conquest of the natural forces and the production of materials goods and arms were held in high respect but after the world war the condition of all these countries became very wretched Economic rivalry between nations increased. There was explosion of population in several countries. Politically the world divided into the Camps: the totalitarian states and the democratic states.

1. Economic Rivalry

The World – Wide Economic depression that followed the world War. I foisted hardships on all government. Industry was in straits, export was declining and unemployment was wide rampant. National Income fell, making it difficult to repay loans. To cope with this situation many countries devolved their currency. England gave up gold standard in 1931 and 35 government followed suit in 1932. Most of the countries restricted imports and increased exports. Some raised tariff and resorted to barter system. But all these measures failed to bring in stability. They simply aroused animosity and Jealousy. It was said at this time 'If goods are not allowed to cross border, armies will'

2. Opulent Vs Indigent Countries

Economic disparity between the countries increased as a consequence of treaties signed after the World War. I Relations with Germany, Italy and Japan became bitter because they thought that in Justice had been done to them. In 1930, Britain, France and the USA Occupied 30 million square miles of land whereas Germany, Italy and Japan shared only 1 million square miles. Out of the seven big nations four were prosperous and owned enough land and the natural resources whereas the other three were resource less and for bidden to expand their territory.

3. Growing Pressure of Population:

The distribution of colonies that was affected after the World War I was not rational there was no space for the growing population of Germany, Italy and Japan were as Britain, Russia, America and France possessed vast areas sparsely populated. As a solution to this problem 10 million Italians immigrated to the new world, Canada and Latin America between 1880 and 1930 during the same period two million Germans immigrated to the USA. This exodus slackened after 1930 and some Europeans settled in British colonies and Latin America. Later on like America, Britain also banned the entry of Asians and Africans into her colonies.

4. *Totalitarianism vs. Democracy:*

The World War I culminated into a struggle between democratic (Britain, France and America) and totalitarian (Germany, Austria and Hungary) powers. The Allied powers came out victorious on the belief that this was a war to finish War. In the name of strengthening democracy. The USA supported Britain and France. The Russian revolution did away with the despotism of the Czar but installed in its place all the more absolute but efficient communist dictatorship. Discontent with its parliamentary democracy, Italy in 1922 handed over power to Fascists under Benito Mussolini. Frustrated with its defeat. Germany wholeheartedly supported Nazi party to establish its dictatorship in 1933. These events proved fatal to democracy. Communist, Fascist and Nazi government differed with each other in their ideology and objectives still they had significant similarities. They were all totalitarian governments where the power was concentrated in the hands of a disciplined organizations which did not want to share it with any one, for all political parties were at the mercy of the government which subscribed to the ideal 'Government of the party, by the party for the party'. These differences between ideologies aggravated international tension and paved the way for the World War.

5. *The Background of World War- II*

After a peace for twenty years the flames of war once again engulfed the whole of Europe on September 1, 1939 and the struggle became Worldwide. The apprehension of war had begun after the Paris peace conference of 1919 when the German delegates were coerced to sign the 'dictated' and 'humiliating treaty' of Versailles. They considered the treaty of Versailles a profane document and wanted to overthrow the restrictions imposed on them. Though Germany had been defeated and crushed, it could not be neglected. At the time of Paris Peace Treaty the German leader Erzberger had said with great confidence. 'The nation with 60 million oppressed people could never perish'.

The 'German Problem' which remained one of the most complicated and disturbing problems of Europe during the period between the world wars finally became the most prominent cause of the Second World War. At the Paris Peace Conference Germany was not treated in a befitting manner. The French policy of extracting reparation from Germany in a harsh manner intensified her indignation. America had gradually adopted the policy of isolationism. Discontented with the peace treaties, Italy joined the revisionists. France wanted to reduce Germany to a state of extinction but Britain wanted to see her prosperous nation able to maintain balance in Europe and act as a shield against communism. Thus Germany got an opportunity of violating the condition of the Treaty of Versailles.

Japan was also discontented with the Paris peace Treaties. Prompted by militarism she started implementing her expansionist policies. Japan attacked and captured Manchuria in September 1931, renamed it Manchukuo and set up a puppet government there. When the League of Nations found Japan guilty of aggression and condemned her, she quit it.

At this time, Mussolini's nationalism touched its high and he attacked Abyssinia. Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis came into existence and divided the whole world into two powerful camps. The Axis powers on one side and the Democratic states on the other. Hitler disregarded the Treaty of Versailles and the German troops entered Rhineland. Republicanism died in Austria and it was merged with Germany on 10 April 1938.

Another important event was the dismemberment of Czechoslovakia. The German population in one of the provinces Sudetenland was above 50 percent. So it was merged with Germany. This temporarily averted the danger of war but cast a fatal effect on the international situation. Through her diplomatic maneuvers Germany won over the Baltic States to her side and signed a treaty with Russia. Britain wanted Germany to peacefully resolve the problem of Poland but Hitler preferred a stern policy. Hitler demanded from Poland the port of Danzig and the Polish Corridor to reach the Sea. With this demand Hitler attacked Poland on the morning of September 1, 1939. This was the beginning of World War II.

Causes of World War II

The Crisis caused by the German demand for Danzig and Polish Corridor was the immediate cause of World War II, but the ground for it had been prepared since the end of world War I. The fundamental causes of this Great War were:

1. Harsh Terms and Conditions of the Treaty of Versailles:

In World War I Germany was defeated and made to sign the humiliating treaty of Versailles. The Allied powers invoked the fourteen principles of Wilson but loyal George. Clemenceau and their fellow diplomats were so overwhelmed by the feelings of revenge. National self-interest and future security that they traded to create an order in which defeated Germany would never be able to raise her head. 'As a result of this treaty Germany had to lose one- eighth of her territories in Europe and 7 million people together with all her colonies. Her naval force which rivaled the naval force of Britain was destroyed and her army was reduced to one lakh. She had to forgo 2/3 of her coal field, 2/3 of iron, 7/10 of zinc and more than half of lead deposits. Churchill writes about this treaty. 'The economic clauses of the Treaty were foolish and harmful. They assisted in conjuring up the curse of militarism and economic crisis. 'A self- respecting country like Germany could not bear such harsh and humiliation conditions for long. Therefore as soon as the opportunity appeared Germany took up arms against the Allied powers to seek vengeance.

2. Rise of Dictators:

After World War I democracy had been set up in the defeated as well as newly created states Weimar republic which was established in Germany was accused of signing the Treaty of Versailles, so the Nazi party rose. It wanted to re-establish the prestige of Germany in the international field. Hitler tried to convince the people of the world that he aimed at establishing peace but soon he turned aggressive. In 1935 he flouted the military clauses in the Treaty of Versailles and declared re-armament. In 1938 he annexed Austria and dismembered Czechoslovakia. Now the clouds of War began together on all sides.

After World War I Mussolini established dictatorship in Italy. He Opposed the Treaty of Versailles. Italy demonstrated her imperialistic designs by attacking Abyssinia. The League of Nations failed to take any action against Italy, which exhibited the weakness of the League.

Japan also unfolded her imperialistic desires and disregarding the League of Nations occupied Manchuria in 1937. Italy Joined the Anti-cementers Pact and the Rome-Berlin –Tokyo Axis came into existence. In May 1939, Italy signed a ten years Treaty with Germany and both the states promised to cooperate with each other in case of war. With the help of the dictators of Italy and Germany Franco established his dictatorship in Spain. Thus these dictators drove the countries of the world to the verge of war.

3. Failure of the League of Nations:

End of the system of collective Security- The league of Nations failed to fulfill its objectives. America did not join the League. This deprived it of the support and assistance of a powerful nation. In the beginning the membership of the League was not open to the vanquished nations. Impressed by the Commendable work done by the League of Nations in certain fields between 1925 and 1929, fifty nations obtained its membership but this was a temporary phase. The Allied powers used the League to grind their own axe. England wanted to exercise international controls over the communistic tendencies of Russia. The aim of France was to see that the terms and condition of the peace conference were observed. Japan ignored the proposals of the League and quit it. Mussolini attacked Abyssinia in 1935, and grabbed it. The League failed to take effective steps during these world crises.

4. Failure of Disarmament Efforts:

Politicians the world over believed that to ensure peace and security the arms race should cease. After the Treaty of Versailles in 1919, the arms and armed forces of the vanquished nation had been greatly reduced. The Allied powers had assured Germany threat after the sometime general disarmament would be implemented to ascertain collective security but the policies adopted by different nations only encouraged armament The first attempt towards disarmament was made in 1921 in the Washington conference in which the major naval powers Britain, America and Japan agreed to delimit the proportions of the tonnage of their warships. The German disarmament conference held in 1932 made efforts to reduce the arms and to put check on them. The five power conference, the four powers pact and the Mac Donald plan were some of the important steps taken in the direction of establishing peace and implementing disarmament, but because of the differences

between France and Germany no decisions could be taken and when Hitler announced to walk out of the conference it totally fizzled out. After this all big and small states began to augment their military power and they would once again sink into the same international chaos in which Europe had been before the First World War began. The atmosphere that developed all round made a future war seem imminent.

5. Contradictory policies of Western Nations and the Failure of the Policy of Appeasement:

The mutual disputes among the Allied powers also contributed to the development of the power of Italy and Germany. After the Paris peace conference the group of Five Allied Powers came to an end and the responsibility for enforcing the peace treaties mainly fell on the shoulders of France and Britain. But differences between these two states had increased on the question of reparation collective security. It was unfortunate that for the sake of her commercial benefits, Britain implicitly helped Germany in her plans of rearmament. To maintain her worldwide empire and international trade Britain wanted to ward off any danger in the Mediterranean region and the Far East. This was why she appeased Italy. Britain did not oppose Japan (from Manchurian Crisis till Sino-Japanese War) because it appeared to be the only war of safeguarding her immediate and future trade interests in far and south-East Asia.

Another reason for adoption of the policy of appeasement was that after World War I France had become very powerful in Europe and to keep her under control Britain wanted to strengthen Germany. This enraged the Allied powers and France made separate treaties with Poland, Belgium and Czechoslovakia. Hitler and Mussolini took full advantage of the differences between France and England and of the policy of appeasement. Mutual distrust weakened the front of Allied powers and they found it difficult to check the growing power of the dictators. Thus the policy of appeasement completely demolished the concept of collective security.

6. Spirit of Extreme Nationalism:

As in World War I, the spirit of extreme nationalism was one of the important causes of the conflict. Because of industrial revolution economic competition had been growing in the world. This economic nationalism was responsible for the war. The need for controlling this nationalism had been felt since World War I came to an end. The spirit of internationalism failed to grow. The influence of extreme nationalism was pre-eminent in Italy, Germany and Japan. Nationalism there aimed at making the nation strong and glorious. Hitler made the concept of 'master race' the basis of national greatness. The economic depression played an important role in accentuating the spirit of nationalism.

7. Rise of the two Rivalry Military Blocs:

Before World War I the whole world was divided into two rival military camps: the one stood for democracy and the other for despotism. Now before World War II again there were two rival military camps. On the new side were nations like Germany, Italy and Japan which formed the Rome Berlin Tokyo Axis. On the other side were allied powers like Britain, France, Soviet, Russia and America. They formed a strong treaty organization when the German armed forces under Hitler attacked Poland, Britain and France supported Poland and the Second World War broke out.

8. The Discontent of the Minorities:

When the Paris treaties shifted boundaries of the states, exchange of races was inevitable. Austria was separated from Germany and Czechoslovakia was recognized as an independent state. This complicated the situation in Balkan Peninsula and central Europe. While the treaties were under preparation the Allied powers dispelled the fear of the minorities by asserting the principle of 'Self-determination'. But these minorities became a source of exciting 'mutual discord' agitation and discontent which finally initiated mutual struggle between various states.

9. The Immediate cause of War: German Attack on Poland:

Hitler suddenly stormed Poland on September 1, 1939. On September 3, Britain and France warned Germany to stop war. But Hitler turned a deaf ear. Consequently Britain and France declared war against Germany. In a short time the war spread like wild fire. This was the origin of World War II.

10. Events of World War II:

For the sake of convenience the events of the World War II can be put into four phases.

11. Phase one:

It comprises events from 1 September 1939 to 21 Jun 1941 when Germany attacked Poland Denmark Netherlands, Belgium, Luxemburg, France, Britain and Greece.

12. Phase two:

Between 22 June 1941 and 6 December 1941. The Axis powers attacked Africa and Germany attacked Russia.

13. Phase Three:

From 7 December 1941 to 7 November 1942. It includes Japanese attack on Pearl Harbors and occupation of Netherlands, East Indies and Caucasus by the armed forces of the Allied powers.

14. Phase Four:

From 8 November 1942 to 6 May 1945. It includes American attack on French North Africa and the surrender of Germany as well as the surrender of Japan between 7 May 1945 to 14 August 1945.

15. Attack on Poland: The War begins:

On 1 September 1939 Hitler forces crossed into the boundary of Poland captured Western Poland within two weeks and besieged her capital Warsaw. Meanwhile, Britain and France declared war against Germany on September 3. The Commonwealth countries (Australia New Zealand, South Africa, Canada and India) also joined the war against Germany. On September 28 Germany and Russia signed an agreement according to which the western part of Poland remained with Germany and the eastern with Russia.

16. Russia occupies Baltic states and attacks Finland:

After the Russo – German agreement, Germany engaged in War with Britain and France on the Western Front. Russia made treaties of cooperation with the three small states of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania in the Baltic region and sought from them an assurance to station her forces there. For the security of Leningrad she wanted facilities to build a military base in Finland. When negotiations between them failed Russia attacked Finland and forced her to surrender on 12 March 1940. Under a Treaty Finland had to cede to Russia a large part of her territory together with Ladoga lake as well as consent the construction of a naval base at Hangö. Thus Russia reoccupied all the states that had slipped out of her hands after World War I.

17. Fall of Denmark and Norway:

After occupying Poland Hitler asked Britain and France to cease fire. But the Allied powers turned down his proposal. Thereupon in April 1940, Germany attacked and defeated Norway and Denmark. The defeat of these two states invited people's censure of the Chamberlain government. Chamberlain resigned and Churchill became the Prime Minister in his place. He proved to be Great War leader and conducted the war very efficiently.

18. German Attack on Holland and Belgium:

On May 10, Germany attacked Luxemburg, Belgium and Holland. Luxemburg fell the very same day, Holland was occupied after five days and Belgium surrendered on 28 May 1940.

19. Fall of France:

Hitler attacked France on May 10. On May 17 the German forces broke the French line of defense captured a vast area of 60 miles and created a rift between the combined French, Belgian and British Forces stationed in the north and the French forces in the south. France and the Allied powers were in a fragile position now. Calais fell on May 25, Dunkirk on May 27, and the German Forces Converged near the port of Dunkirk. The Belgian ruler Leopold surrendered on May 28 and ceased fire. This made the left wing of the Allied forces

stationed in the north vulnerable and presaged their defeat. Germany again attacked France on June 5 and on June 10 the French government shifted from Paris to Tours.

20. Italy Joins the War:

On June 10, Italy declared war against France and Britain on June 14, the German Forces easily entered Paris because French government had withdrawn her troops from there. Armistice was signed between France and Germany on June 22. According to the terms and condition of the Armistice, France had to cede more than half of her territory which contained most of her industrial estates and all the seaports on the coast of Atlantic. Armistice with Italy was signed on June 23, 1940 according to which France ceded to Italy all the territory she had already won as well as conceded to demilitarize her major bases of Toulon, Tunisia, Corsica and Algeria spread along the Italian border. Some French patriots who still wanted to continue war with Germany reached England under the leadership of De Gaulle, formed an independent French government there and organized an independent French army. This independent French government carried on war with Germany.

21. Germany attacks Britain:

The French defeat weakened the position of Britain. Germany now held sway over all the seas from Norway to south Spain. Encouraged by all this, Germany launched a fierce attack on England on 18 June 1940. The German airplanes bombarded England for five months. But the Churchill government faced Germany with great fortitude. Churchill not only made enthusiastic speeches but made all possible preparations for the defense of England. Therefore, Hitler gradually slowed down his attacks. On the other hand, Italy occupied Somaliland, Kenya and Sudan as well as attacked north Egypt and then Greece. Greece with the help of other states repulsed the Italian forces out of her territory. Now Germany came to help Italy and occupied Greece in April 1941. Russia which was also occupying the Balkan region signed an Agreement with Italy and Germany in September 1941 and entered war on the side of the Axis powers. Within two months Hungary, Rumania and Slovakia also joined the Axis powers. In February 1941, German forces put British forces to rout in Libya, attacked Yugoslavia on 9 April 1941 and conquered her. To finish the British Empire Germany attacked Iraq, Iran and Syria, but here Germany had to give in before the British power, this closed the eastern road for Germany.

22. Germany attacks Russia:

Though Russia and Germany had signed a non-aggression pact in August 1939, Hitler wanted to defeat Russia to ensure the safety of the Eastern frontier. Both Germany and Russia wanted to increase their influence in the Balkan region. This caused rivalry between them. On 22 June 1941 Germany's forces attacked Russia and brought Ukraine, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Finland and eastern Poland under her rule. But Hitler failed to capture Moscow and destroy the Russian army. Germany made a mistake by attacking Moscow. When the winter set in it became difficult for Germany to advance further. Counter attack by the Russian army forced German forces to retreat from the suburbs of Moscow. However, they occupied 5 Lakh square miles of Russian territory.

23. Japan Attacks America:

Japan had already been trying to establish her influence in Asia and the Pacific region. With Germany she formed the Rome–Berlin–Tokyo–Axis. Taking advantage of the fall of France, Japan occupied French Indochina and captured her military and naval bases. These activities of Japan alerted Britain and America. America warned Japan not to disturb the peace of the Pacific region. But all of a sudden Japan attacked Pearl Harbor in the Hawaii islands on 17 December 1941. 19 naval ships including 8 warships were either sunk or damaged badly. 177 airplanes were lost, 2,343 soldiers were killed and more than 2000 wounded. On the next day that is on December 8, America and England declared war on Japan and made the war a world war in true sense.

24. Japan Military Campaign (December 1941- May 1942):

Japan like Germany achieved great success in the beginning. Having attacked Pearl Harbor, she quickly

moves towards European empires in South East Asia and the Pacific as well as the American islands and by the end of December 1941. She deprived Britain of Hong Kong and in January 1942 brought a large portion of Philippine Islands under her control. By the middle of February, the British naval base at Singapore passed under the control of Japan she defeated Burma by the end of March and closed all the routes of sending military equipment to China. In March itself she defeated the Joint fleets of Holland, America, England and Australia, sent some of her armed forces into Java and within a few weeks occupied the whole of Dutch East Indies and sailed up to Australia. In May 1942 she captured Watan and Coregidar. The remaining bases in the Philippines. Thus within six months she destroyed the European and American empires in East Asia and the Pacific region.

25. The Russian Front:

In spite of a prolonged struggle the Germany armed forces failed to penetrate any further into Russia. In the winter of 1941 the Russian attacked Germany forces and forced them to retreat. German forces failed to capture Moscow, but they soon trampled over Crimea and occupied Sebastopol during the summer a division of the German forces moved south towards Caucasus and captured its rich oil fields; another division moved east in the direction of Stalingrad on the Volga and reached there by the end of August. Thus by March 1942 the German armed forces had captured the whole of western region, Ukraine and Crimea in the south and had penetrated deep into the Caucasus region defense mechanism and inspired the Russian army and citizens to resist the enemy with new enthusiasm. In August 1942, Churchill visited Russia, explained the plan of Allied Powers to Stalin and obtained his concurrence. On November 19, 1942 the Russian army mounted a fierce counter attack against Germany and besieged twenty two divisions of Germany army between the Volga and Don Rivers. This gave a momentous shock to German armed forces as well as the prestige of Hitler. This put an end to German dream of ever establishing control over Russia.

26. The War takes a New Turn-Defeat of Axis Powers in Africa and Europe:

Up to the middle of 1942, the Axis powers carried on their victory march successfully in Europe. Africa and East Asia and Britain, America and Russia had to recede at every front. But by the end of 1942 the progress of Axis powers came to a halt. In November 1942, the Joint forces of Britain and America began to drive out Italian and German forces from North Africa and ultimately the Allied powers established their control there. In this victory campaign General Montgomery and Eisenhower showed great powers.

27. Defeat of Italy:

The Condition of Allied powers improved in 1943. On July 10, they attacked Sicily. Italian forces were very weak and suffered defeat at every place. Mussolini asked Hitler to help but he could not send any help. The Joint forces of Allied powers attacked Italy on July 18, after a fierce struggle Mussolini was arrested on July 23 Italy surrendered on 3 December 1943. Meanwhile the German paratroopers liberated Mussolini who once again tried to bring Italy under his influence with the help of Germany but in vain. Ultimately the Allied powers occupied Rome on 4 June 1944.

28. Defeat of Germany:

The defeat of Germany started from Stalingrad when the Russian army surrendered the German armed forces. By February 1943 more than one lakh German soldiers had been killed. The danger to Moscow had passed off. In the summer Russia frustrated the German forces. In the struggle that lasted about two months more than one lakh eighty thousand German soldiers perished and about 3500 German planes 20 thousand military vehicles and other arms and weapons including 1300 tanks were destroyed. The Russian armed forces now entered Poland devastated Nazi forces and Conquered Rumania England and Bulgaria. Finally on 8 March 1944 two thousand American bombers bombarded Berlin. The armies of the Allied powers were landed on the north western seacoast of France. By 1944 the number of forces in France reached 3 lakhs. German Fortification on the French border was pulled down.

On August 15, 1944 the forces of Allied powers were landed on the east. Mediterranean coast of France; they Captured the ports of Toulouse and Marseilles. The German occupied Paris fell on August 25 and the German army Surrendered.

After the Liberation of France the Allied Forces liberated all other states occupied by Germany. Almost all the states in the Balkan Peninsula sided with the Allied powers. In November 1944 the Allied powers entered Germany via Holland. When these forces had crossed the River Rhine, The German people turned against Hitler and a conspiracy was hatched to murder him. Meanwhile, Russian forces liberate all the states under German rule in the eastern region and marched towards Berlin. On April 22, 1945 Russia attacked Berlin, British, French and American forces also converged there. Finally, Berlin Fell on 2 May 1945 and the German army surrendered on May 4. Hitler with his wife Iva Braun committed suicide and the Italian patriots shot Mussolini and wife dead. Armistice was signed on May 7, 1945 and on May the war in Europe came to an end.

Defeat of Japan and the End of the World War: After the defeat of Germany Allied powers turned their attention towards Japan. Now the British forces made a rapid advance in the Far East and liberated Burma Then Malaya, Philippines and Singapore were liberated lastly a fierce attack was mounted to Japan. In the Potsdam Conference held on July 26, 1945 the Allied powers asked Japan to make an unconditional surrender but Japan turned a deaf ear. As a result on August 6, 1945, America dropped the first atom bomb on the prosperous city of Hiroshima. A second bomb was dropped on Nagasaki on August 9. Japan offered to surrender on the terms of Potsdam declaration on August 10 and the War came to an end on August 14 thus the fierce and annihilating Second World War lasted almost six years.

Political Consequences of World War-II

The Second World War was the most barbarous, fierce and devastating war in human history, it was so colossal and consequential than an age ended with it many new ideologies were born in Europe after World War II. The new ideologies of democracy and nationalism that had emerged after the French Revolution had successfully stood the test of time. But after the world War some of these ideologies had worn out. The spirit of nationalism began to decline. The new awakening brought about by the industrial revolution and the development of science enhanced the importance of economic organization of society. We can study the political consequences of this war under the following heads:

1. *Change in the Techniques of War fare:*

Beginning of the Nuclear Age: The techniques used in this war greatly differed from those used in the previous wars. Hitters' technique of Blitzkrieg Surprise the whole world. The victorious that required years and months to accomplish were now attained in weeks and days Army and navy did not have as much importance in this was as the air force and aero lances. New methods of attack and counter – attack were successfully tested. The use of the atom bomb brought the world on the verge of disaster. All the scientists the world over realized that man had attained super human powers in the form of atomic energy.

In the present day man has developed intercontinental supersonic Jet planes missiles carrying nuclear heads as well as planes and sub marines powered with nuclear energy.

2. *Division of Society into two Ideologies:*

Several new tendencies were born in the history of Europe after World War II. The spirit of nationalism had waned and was being replaced by those new ideologies that aimed at reorganizing society in a new way. Society was now divided into two ideologies communism and democracy. The communists wanted the means of production to be owned by the public as a whole and nobody should get any income without engaging himself in productive labour. Differences between high-low should be abolished a classless society should be established and the government should control all business activities. On the other hand believers in democracy, no doubt favored the abolition of Social distinction between high and low but they held that the government should make laws to control the origin exchange and distribution of property to maintains coordination between capital and labour land owners and peasants and everyone should get an adequate share of property .During the world war many people felt no scruples in helping the enemy if it held identical ideas against which their own national governments were fighting Now loyalty to the nation, Patriotism and the spirit of sacrifice for the motherland were replaced by devotion to ideology.

3. Weakening of the Spirit of Nationalism:

Scientific development has annihilated time and space. Differences based on language, religion, race and culture have dissolved. Nations have now begun to organize themselves into various groups. After World War II the East Europeans nations which followed the communist ideology decided to form a bloc under the overall patronage of Russia. Similarly the west European nations which stood for democracy decided to join into a group to avert communism.\

United Nations

A conference was held at San Francisco, USA, from 25 April 1945. The conference was attended by 50 nations. On 26 June the conference adopted the United Nations Charter under which a new world organization was set up This was the United Nations Organization which was based on the principle of “the sovereign equality of all peace loving states” The purposes of the United Nations Organization were to maintain international peace and security, to develop friendly relations among nations and to achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character.

To carry out these objectives, six principal organs of the United Nations Organization (now referred to as the United Nations or simply the UN) were created these were:

1. The General Assembly composed of all the members of the UN;
2. The Security Council composed of five permanent members, viz. the United States, the Soviet Union, Britain, France and China, and six others to be elected by the General Assembly for a period of two years The Security Council was made primarily responsible for the maintenance of peace and security (The number of nonpermanent members was subsequently raised from six to ten).
3. The Economic and Social Council of 18 members to promote “respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all”
4. The Trusteeship Council
5. The International Court of Justice
6. The Secretariat with a Secretary General appointed by the General Assembly as its head.

OTHER specialized agencies of the UN

A number of specialized agencies of the UN were also created such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the World Health Organization (WHO), Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the International Labour Organization (ILO) (this body had been created after the First World War), etc. It was realized that unless all the permanent members of the Security Council, who were at that time the biggest powers, were agreed, no course of action for the maintenance of peace and security could be effective. Hence it was provided that any decision of the Security Council must have the support of all five permanent members. The setting up of the United Nations was one of the most important consequences of the Second World War.

Successes of the United Nations

- The First and foremost it has prevented the occurrence of any further world wars. Instrumental in the maintenance of international balance of power.
- It played a Significant role in disarming the world and making it nuclear free. Various treaty negotiations like ‘Partial Test Ban Treaty’ and ‘nuclear non-proliferation treaty’ have been signed under UN.
- Demise of colonialism and imperialism on one hand and apartheid on the other had UN sanctions behind them.

- UN Acted as vanguard for the protection of human rights of the people of the world, Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948.
- Despite crippled by Bretton Woods Institutions, UN has played limited but effective role on economic matters. Supported the North-South dialogue and aspired for emergence of new international economic order.
- Agencies of United Nations like WHO, UNICFF, UNESCO have keenly participated in the transformation of the international social sector.
- Peace keeping operations, peaceful resolution of disputes and refugee concerns had always been on the list of core issues.
- Since 1945, the UN has been credited with negotiating 172 peaceful settlements that have ended regional conflicts.
- The world body was also instrumental in institutionalization of international laws and world legal frame work.
- Passage of various conventions and declarations on child, women, climate, etc, highlights the extra-political affairs of the otherwise political world body.
- It has successfully controlled the situation in Serbia, Yugoslavia and Balkan areas.
- A number of peace missions in Africa has done reasonably well to control the situation.

Failures of the United Nations

- UN opinion on Hungary and Czechoslovakia were ignored by the erstwhile Soviet Union in 1950s.
- Israel had been taking unilateral action through decades in its geographical vicinity and nothing substantial has come out even by September 2010.
- No emphatic role in crisis of worst kinds like the Cuban Missile Crisis, Vietnam crisis etc.
- UN was nowhere in the picture when the NATO rained bombs over former Yugoslavia.
- Uni-polarity and unilateralism has shaken the relevance of the world body. Unilateral action in Iraq was bereft of UN sanction.
- Failed to generate a universal consensus to protect the deteriorating worldclimate, even at Copenhagen in 2009.
- Number of nuclear powers in the world has kept on increasing. UN Could not control the horizontal expansion and proliferation of weapons and arms.
- Financial dependence on the industrialized nations has at times deviated UN from neutrality and impartiality.
- The world body has failed to reflect the democratic aspiration of the world. Without being democratic itself, it talks of democratization of the world.
- Aids is crossing regions and boundaries both in spread and intensity.
- Domestic situation of near anarchy in Iraq and many regions of Afghanistan, despite on active UN. The US President scheme of withdrawal has not able to bring any specific solutions in the region. In fact, the situation has been further aggravated.
- The UN totally exposed in the case of US invasion on Iraq in name for the search weapon of mass destruction. US has withdrawn its combat forces but the law and order and mutual distrust has worsened and at this juncture UN seems to be clueless



CHAPTER - 12**COLD WAR****Meaning of cold war**

The term cold war refers to the war of ideologies. It signifies disturbed jealousy and state of active hostility without actually fighting the war. Cold war involves an arms race and a war of ideological propaganda. The term cold war was used in modern times to describe the tension that prevailed between the two power blocks namely the capitalist bloc headed by USA and the communist bloc led by Russia. American Bernard Bruch used the term cold war for the first time in the context of the relations between USA and USSR. In a speech in South Carolina on April 16, 1947 Bruch said that "let us not be deceived: we are today in the midst of a cold war." After Bruch the American, the American journalist Walter Lippman used this phrase.

The cold war was the period of conflict, tension and competition between the United States and the Soviet Union and their respective allies from the mid-1940s until the early-1990s throughout this period the rivalry between the two superpowers unfolded in multiple arenas: military coalitions; ideology; psychology and espionage; sport; military, industrial and technological development including the space race; costly defence spending; a massive conventional and nuclear arms race; and many proxy wars.

Several events led to suspicion and distrust between the United States and the Soviet Union; US intervention in Russia supporting the White Army in the Russian Civil War, Russia's withdrawal from World War I and the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany, the Bolsheviks' challenge to capitalism, the US refusal to recognize the Soviet Union until 1933. Other events in the period immediately before WWI increased this suspicion and distrust. The British appeasement of Germany and the German-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact are two notable examples.

There was never a direct military engagement between the US and the Soviet Union, but there was half a century of military build-up as well as political battles for support around the world, including significant involvement of allied and satellite nations' proxy wars. Although the US and the Soviet Union had been allied against Nazi Germany the two sides differed on how to reconstruct the post-war world even before the end of World War II. Over the following decades, the cold war spread outside the containment of communism and forged numerous alliances to this end particularly in Western Europe, the Middle East and South East Asia. There were repeated crises that threatened to escalate into world wars but they never did notably the Berlin Blockade (1948-1949) the Korean War (1950-1953) the Vietnam War (1959-1975) the Cuban Missile Crisis (1962) and the Soviet-Afghan War (1979-1989) there were also periods when tension was reduced as both sides sought détente. Direct military attacks on adversaries were deterred by the potential for mutual assured destruction using deliverable nuclear weapons.

Origin of cold war

The basic cause of cold war lay in the differences of principle between the communist state or liberal democratic states. The communist system of organizing the state and society was based on the ideas of Karl Marx which believed that the wealth of a country should be collectively owned and shared by everybody the economy should be centrally planned and the interests and well-being of the working classes safeguarded by state social policies. The capitalist system on the other hand operates on the basis of forces behind capitalism are private enterprise in the pursuit of making profits and the preservation of the of private wealth.

There is some disagreement over that constitutes the beginning of the cold war. While most historians say that it began in the period just after World War II, some say that it began towards the end of World War

I though tensions between Russia/USSR and Britain and the united states date back to the middle of the 19th century fferences between the political and economic systems of Russia and the Russian revolution of 1917. From the neo-Marist world systems perspective, Russia differed from the west as a result of its late integration into the capitalist world systems perspective, Russia differed from the west as a result of its late integration into the capitalist world economy in the ath century. Striding to catch up with the industrialized west as of late 9th century, Russia at the time of the revelation in 1917 war essentially a semi-peripheral or peripheral states whose internal balance of forces. Tipped by the domination of the Russian industrial sector by foreign capital, had been such that it suffered a decline in its relative diplomatic power internationally. From this perspective the Russian revolution represented a break with a form of dependent industrial development and a radical with drawl form the capitalist world economy.

Other scholars have argued that Russia and the west developed fundamentally different political cultures shaped by Easter orthodoxy and rule of tsar other have linked the cold war to the legacy of different heritages of empire building between the Russian and Americans. From this view, the United States like the British Empire was fundamentally a maritime power based on trade and commerce, and Russia was a bureaucratic and land based power that expanded from the centre in a process of territorial accretion.

Modern historians trace the origins of the cold war to the Bolshevik revolution of 1917. Ever since the world's first communist government was setup in Russia (USSR) in 1917, the governments of most capitalists states viewed it with mistrust and were afraid of communism spreading to their countries- when civil war broke out in Russia in 1918 several capitalist states the USA, Britain, France and Japan sent troops to Russia to help the anti communist forces. The communists won the war, but Joseph Stalin, who became Russian leader in 1929, was convinced that there in 1929, was convinced that there would be another attempt by the capitalist powers to destroy communism in Russia the German invasion of in 1941 proved him right.

Stallin suspected that the USA and Britain were still keen to destroy communism, he felt that their delay in launching the invasions of France, the second front was deliberately calculated to keep most of the pressure on the Russian's and bring them to the point of exhaustion. Nor did they tell stallin about the existence of the atomic bomb until shortly before its use on Japan, and they rejected his request that Russia should share in the occupation of Japan. The need of self- preservation against Germany and Japan caused the USSR, the USA and Britain to forget their differences and work together, but as soon as the work together, but as soon as the defeat of Germany clear, both sides and espe Cially Stallin began to plan for the post war period.

POST 1945 DEVELOPMENTS

The Yalta conference (Feb. 1945)

At the Yalta conference in February 1945, the allies attempted to define the framework for a post war settlement in Europe. This was held in Russia (in the Crimea) and was attended by the three Allied leaders, Stalin. Roosevelt and Churchill so that they could plan what was to happen when the war ended. At the time it seemed to be a success, agreement being reached on several points. The German capital Berlin, which happened to be in the middle of the Russian Zone, would also be split into corresponding Zones. Similar arrangements were to be made for Austria.

However, there were differences in opinion about Poland. Russian armies had swept through Poland, driving the German back, they had set up a communist government in Lublin, even though there was already a polish government should be allowed to join the Lublin government, while in return, Russia would be allowed to keep a strip of eastern Poland which she had annexed in 1939. It was also decided at Yalta that a new organization called, the united nations, should be set up to replace the failed League of Nations.

The pots dam conference (July 1945)

Harry S. Truman, Churchill, and Joseph stallin met at the Potsdam and the conference started on July 18, 1945. Churchill was replaced by clement Attlee the new births Labour prime minister after labour election

victory. This conference revealed a distinct cooling off in relations.

The war with Germany was over, but no agreement was reached about her long term future. The big question was whether and when the four zones would be allowed to join together to form a united country again. She was to be disarmed, the Nazi party disbanded and its leader tried as war criminals. Most of these payments (known as reparations) were to go to the USSR, which was to be allowed to take non food goods from their own zone and from the other zone as well, provided the Russians sent food supplies to the western zones of Germany in return. Truman did not inform Stalin about the exact nature of the atomic bomb though Churchill was told about it. A few days after the conference closed the two atomic bombs were dropped on Japan and the war ended quickly on 10 August without the need of Russian help. The annexed south Sakhalin as agreed at Yalta, but they were allowed no part in the occupation of Japan. Stalin protested to us officials when Truman offered the Soviets little real influence in occupied Japan.

Communism established in Eastern Europe

The establishment of communist government in Eastern Europe caused alarm in the west. In the months following Potsdam, the Russians systematically interfered in the countries of Eastern Europe to set up pro-communist governments. This happened in Poland, Hungary, Bulgaria, Albania and Romania. In some cases their opponents were imprisoned or murdered in Hungary.

It was in this atmosphere of American anxiety that the cold war spotlight shifted to Korea, where in June 1950, troops from communist North Korea invaded non-communist South Korea.

The development in Germany further aggravated the difference between the Soviet Union and the western countries. Germany had been divided into four occupation zones each under the Soviet Union, USA, Britain and France. At the Potsdam conference, Germany became divided into two parts, the three zones under USA, Britain and France becoming one, the western part and the eastern part under USSR. The latter ended the supply of agricultural goods to the former; each part now had a separate currency. The political and economic policies followed in each part were different. Large landholdings were confiscated and redistributed among peasants, many industries and mines were nationalized and German communists, who had been living in exile since the fascist take over, were encouraged to come back. In the western part, a capitalist type of economy began to develop with massive US aid and political parties and groups which were hostile to communists and the Soviet Union became dominant. The policies followed in the western part were now based on the fear of communism and the Soviet Union. By 1947, Germany had been divided into two distinct economic and political parts. Later its division was formalized with the setting up of two independent states.

The communist takeover of Czechoslovakia (Feb 1948)

There was a coalition government of communists and other left wing parties which had been freely elected in 1946. The communists had won 38 percent of the votes and 114 seats in the 300 seat parliament and they held a third of the cabinet posts. The prime minister, Clement Gottwald, was a communist; President Benes and the foreign minister, Jan Masaryk were non-communists. They hoped that Czechoslovakia with its highly developed industries would remain as a bridge between east and west.

However, a crisis arose early in 1948. Elections were due in May and all in control of the union and the police seized power in an armed coup. All non communist ministers with the exception of Benes and Masaryk resigned. A few days later Masaryk's body was found under the windows of his office. His death was officially described as suicide. However, when the archives were opened after the collapse of communism in 1989 documents were found which indicated that he was murdered.

Similar developments took place in Bulgaria, Romania and Hungary. In Yugoslavia and Albania also communists who had led the national resistance had come to power. Thus seven countries in Europe had gone to communist government. Dominated by communist parties and the Soviet Union was no longer the only country in the world to be ruled by a communist party. Britain and USA were particularly concerned at this development which they viewed as a danger to what they called the free world.

Greece civil war

Another development which brought about the cold war was the civil war in Greece. Communists had been a major force in the resistance against fascist occupation of Greece. However, the British troops which had been sent to Greece wanted to restore the rule of the king who was brought back. This led to the civil war. There were 10,000 British troops who fought against the Greek communists in the civil war. However, Britain decided to withdraw from Greece. She informed the United States that she could no longer bear the burden of supporting the Greek government. This would have almost certainly led to communist victory in the civil war. The US government decided to take the burden of supporting the Greek government in the civil war upon itself. She also supported Turkey which it was thought, was threatened by the Soviet Union. The US decision to intervene in the Greek civil war may be considered as formally ushering in the cold war. President Truman while asking the Congress for \$ 400 million as military and economic aid to the Greek government made a policy statement which has been called the Truman doctrine.

The Truman doctrine

By 1947, Truman's doctrine advisors were worried that time was running out to counter the influence of the Soviet Union. In Europe, post war economic recovery was faltering, and shortages of food and other essential consumer goods were common. Truman's advisors feared that the Soviet Union was seeking to weaken the position of the US in a period of post war confusion and collapse.

The event which spurred Truman on to announce formally the US's adopting the policy of "containment" was the British government's announcement in February 1947 that it could no longer afford to finance the Greek monarchical military regime in its civil war against communist led insurgents. Rather than view this war as a civil conflict revolving around domestic issues, US policy makers interpreted it as a Soviet effort; however, the insurgents were helped by Josip Broz Tito's Yugoslavia, not Moscow. Secretary of State Dean Acheson accused the Soviet Union of conspiracy against the Greek royalists in an effort to "expand" into the Middle East, Asia, and Africa and in March 1947 the administration unveiled the "Truman doctrine". It must be the policy of the United States, Truman declared, "to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or outside pressures."

The Truman doctrine proclaimed communism as the threat to the free world which the United States, as the head of the free world, would not allow to succeed anywhere in the world. Every result of the Soviet expansionism which had to be crushed by all the might of the United States. This doctrine became the basis of the foreign policy of the United States for about four decades. Every conflict in the world was seen in terms of a struggle between the United States and the Soviet Union.

Immediately anti communists of Greece received massive amount of arms and other supplies, and by 1949 they defeated the communists. Turkey, which also seemed under threat, received aid worth about 60 million dollars. The Truman doctrine made it clear that the USA had no intention of returning to isolation as she had after the First World War; she was committed to a policy of containing communism, not just in Europe, but throughout the world, including Korea and Vietnam.

Marshall Plan

For US policymakers, threats to Europe's balance of power were not necessarily military ones, but political and economic challenge. George Kennan helped to summarize the problem at the State Department planning staff in May 1947 "communist activities" were not "the root of the difficulties of western Europe". According to this view, the communists were "exploiting the European crisis" to gain power. In June, following the recommendations of the State Department planning staff, the Truman doctrine was complemented by the Marshall Plan. A pledge of economic assistance aimed at rebuilding the Western political-economic system. And countering perceived threats to Europe's balance of power. After lobbying by the joint chiefs of staffs and Generals Clay and Marshall, the Truman administration finally realized that economic recovery in Europe could not go forward without the reconstruction of the German industrial base on which it had previously been dependent.

In July, Truman rescinded on “national security grounds”. The punitive Morgenthau plan JCS 1067, which had directed the US forces of occupation in Germany to “take no steps looking toward the economic rehabilitation of Germany”. It was replaced by JCS 1779, which stressed instead that “an orderly, prosperous Europe requires the economic contributions of a stable and productive Germany.

The twin policies of the Truman doctrine and the Marshall plan led to billions in economic and military aid to Western Europe, and Greece and Turkey. With US assistance the Greek military won its civil war, and the Italian Christian Democrats defeated the powerful communist socialist alliance in the elections of 1948.

The Cominform

This was the communist response. Set up by Stalin in September 1947, this was an organization to draw together the various European communist parties. All the satellite states were members, and the French and Italian communist parties were represented. Stalin's aim was to tighten his grip on the satellites: to be communist was not enough it must be Russian style communism, eastern Europe was to be industrialized, collectivized and centralized: states were members, and all contacts with non-communist countries were discouraged. When Yugoslavia objected, she was expelled from the Cominform (1948) though she remained communist.

Molotov Plan

In 1949 the Molotov plan was introduced, offering Russian aid to the satellites. Another organization known as COMECON (Council of Mutual Economic Assistance) was set up to co-ordinate their economic policies.

The Berlin blockade and airlift (June 1948- May 1949)

This brought the cold war to its first climax. The crisis arose out of disagreements over the treatment of Germany. At the end of the war, as agreed at Yalta and Potsdam, Germany and Berlin were each divided into four zones. While the three western powers did their best to make Germany pay for all the damage inflicted on Russia but Russia treated his zone as a satellite, draining its resources away to Russia.

Early in 1948 the three western zones were merged to form a single economic unit, whose prosperity, thanks to Marshall Aid, was in marked contrast to the poverty on the Russian Zone. The west wanted all four zones to be re-united and given self-government as soon as possible; but Stalin had decided that it would be safer for Russia if he kept the Russian zone separate, with its own communist, pro-Russian government. The prospect of the three western zones re-uniting was alarming enough to Stalin, because he knew they would be part of the western bloc.

When in June 1948 the west introduced a new currency and ended price controls in their zone and in West Berlin. The Russians decided that the situation in Berlin had become impossible; already irritated by this island of capitalism a hundred miles inside the communist zone, they felt it impossible to have the two different currencies in the same city, and they were embarrassed by the contrast between the prosperity of West Berlin and the poverty of the surrounding area.

The Russian responses were immediate: all road, rail and canal links between West Berlin and West Germany were closed; their aim was to force the west to withdraw from West Berlin by reducing it to starvation point. The western powers convinced that a retreat would be the prelude to a Russian attack on West Germany, were determined to hold on. They decided to fly supplies in, rightly judging that the Russians would not risk shooting down the transport planes. Truman had thoughtfully sent a fleet of B-29 bombers to be positioned on British airfields. Over the next ten months 2 million tons of supplies were airlifted to the blockaded city in a remarkable operation which kept the 2.5 million West Berliners fed and warm right through the winter. In May 1949 the Russians admitted failure by lifting the blockade, the affair had important results, and the outcome gave a great psychological boost to the western powers, though it brought relations with Russia to their worst ever. It caused the western powers to co-ordinate their defences by the formation of NATO. It meant that since no compromise was possible, Germany was doomed to remain divided for the foreseeable future.

The formation of NATO

The Berlin blockade exposed the military unpreparedness and frightened them into making definite preparation. Already in March 1948 Britain, France, Holland, Belgium and Luxemburg had signed the Brussels defence treaty promising military collaboration in case of war. Now they were joined by the USA, Canada, Portugal, Denmark, Eire, Italy and Norway. All signed the north Atlantic treaty and the formation of the north Atlantic treaty organization (NATO) took place in April 1949. The NATO countries agreed to regard an attack on any one of them as an attack on them all, and placing their defence forces under a joint NATO command organization which would co-ordinate the defence of the west.

This was a highly significant development because the American had abandoned their traditional policy of not entangling in alliances and for the first time had pledged themselves in advance to military action. In most people's minds, the USSR was the most likely source of any attack. Predictably Stalin took it as a challenge and tensions remained high. NATO was not just a European organization. It also included the USA and Canada. The Korean War (1950-53) caused the USA to press successfully for the integration of NATO forces under a centralized command a supreme headquarters Allied powers Europe (SHAPE) was established near Paris Through this alliances the western countries launched a massive programme of rearmament to check what they called Russian expansion in Europe and to contain communism. During the next six years, the United States gave massive military aid to the NATO countries of Europe. In 1952, Greece and Turkey were also made members of NATO.

Emergence of the USSR as a nuclear power

The United States had emerged as the mightiest military power at end of the Second World War. For four years, she was the only country in the world to have atomic weapons. The monopoly in atomic weapons had given her a sense of unquestionable military supremacy in the world.

The US monopoly in atomic weapons was broken when in 1949 the USSR conducted an atomic test. The USSR announced in September 1949 that she had tested atomic bomb. US was shocked at the news which was used to exacerbate further the fear of communism. During the next few years' severe panic developed in USA. The US government leaders, some members of the US congress and sections of the mass media administration. The Soviet Union's success in developing the atomic bomb was attributed solely to the leaking out of British and US atomic secrets by spies to the Soviet Union. The loyalty of many scientists and others who had been associated with the atomic bomb project was suspected and some of them were tried and sentenced to long terms of imprisonment and even death. Some of the leading scientists of the time held the view that even though there was truth in the charges of espionage and some atomic secrets were leaked out to the Soviet Union this would have made little material difference to Soviet scientists and technological capability in making the atomic bomb as Soviet scientists had started working towards it almost at the same time as the scientists in the US. It was also pointed out by many public figures that the US, the Soviet Union and Britain had been allies during the war of sharing of secrets with allies could not be held treasonable. The SPY scare was however whipped up and used to further worsen the climate of fear and hostility to the Soviet Union.

Emergence of China as a Communist Power

In 1949 Mao's Red army defeated the US backed Kuomintang regime in China. Shortly afterwards, the Soviet Union created an alliance with the newly formed People's Republic of China confronted it the Chinese Revolution and the end of the US atomic monopoly in 1949, the Truman administration quickly moved to escalate and expand the containment policy. In a secret 1950 document, NSC-68, Truman administration officials proposed to reinforce pro-western alliance's systems and quadruple spending on defense US. Officially moved thereafter to expand "Containment" into Asia, Africa and Latin America. At the same time revolutionary nationalist movement. Often led by communist parties were fighting against the restoration of European colonial empires in South-East Asia. The US formalized an alliance with Japan in the early 1950s thereby guaranteeing the US a number of long term military bases. Truman also brought other states including Australia, New Zealand, Thailand and the Philippines into a series of alliances.

Change in US policy form of containment to active opposition

The war in Korea (1950-53)

The fear of communism led the US to intervene in the affairs of Asian countries and the cold war was brought to Asia. Seeing every issue in terms of the cold war, the United States also came in conflict with anti-colonial nationalist struggles for freedom and with many independent nations which were trying to strengthen their national independence into asserting their independent role in world affairs.

The First World War in which the US got directly involved was the war in Korea. In June 1950, war broke out between the two sides, each blaming the other for the war. It is however generally agreed that the war was started by North Korea. This was the view of the United Nations Security Council which voted to assist South Korea. However, it may be remembered that the Security Council's support for South Korea had become possible due to the Soviet Union's decision at the time to boycott the United Nations for its refusal to admit China. Within 2 months, the North Korean armies had swept across almost the entire South Korean capital, having fallen during the first three days of the war. However, the US army, navy, and air force intervened in the war massively, and North Korean troops were pushed back. The US forces now carried the war inside North Korea. At this time, the Chinese troops moved in, and the US troops were forced back. From mid-1951, the war entered a stalemate. There were negotiations for an armistice in which India played an important role.

The armistice was signed in July 1953, which restored the position that existed before the war.

The Korean War was the first major war after 1945 and the first one in which the US had taken part in a massive way and had suffered heavy casualties. In spite of the heavy casualties, it may be remembered that the Korean war was a localized war. There was every danger that it might turn into a general war. General MacArthur, who commanded US troops in the Korean War, wanted to invade China. There was also a danger that the US might use atomic weapons in the war. In 1953, the Korean War ended in a stalemate. But the US gradually got itself entangled in another civil war. The US supported the South Vietnamese government against North Vietnam, which was backed by the Soviet Union and China.

Crisis and escalation (1953-62)

In 1953, changes in political leadership on both sides shifted the dynamic of the cold war. Dwight D. Eisenhower became US President in January 1953, during the last 18 months of the Truman administration. The US defense budget had quadrupled, and Eisenhower resolved to reduce military spending by brandishing the US nuclear superiority while continuing to fight the cold war effectively. In March, Joseph Stalin died, and the Soviets, now led by Nikita Khrushchev, moved away from Stalin's policies.

There was a slight relaxation of tension after Stalin's death in 1953, but the cold war in Europe remained an uneasy armed truce. US troops seemed stationed indefinitely in West Germany, and Soviet forces seemed indefinitely stationed throughout Eastern Europe. To counter West German rearmament, the Soviets established a formal alliance with the Eastern European communist states, termed the Warsaw Pact, in 1955. In 1956, the status quo was briefly threatened in Hungary, when the Soviets refused rather than allow the Hungarians to move out of the orbit. During this period, the race for armaments had reached a new stage. In November 1952, the US tested her first thermonuclear bomb. The Soviet Union followed soon after in August 1953. The destructive power of those bombs was many times more than that of the bomb dropped at Nagasaki. The doctrine of brinkmanship, when the two antagonistic powers possessed these weapons, was fought with danger. The development of these weapons was sought to be justified by the doctrines of mutually assured destruction (MAD) and nuclear deterrence. It was the beliefs in this doctrine that led Britain to develop her independent deterrent in 1957. France and China later followed.

Formation of SEATO & CENTO

The US also started forming military alliances in every part of the world and establishing her military bases encircling the Soviet Union and China. In 1954, the South East Treaty Organization (SEATO) was set up, comprising Australia, Britain, France, New Zealand, Pakistan, Thailand, Philippines, and the US. In 1955, the Central Treaty

organization (CENTO) was established. Thus military alliances were used to maintain many un-democratic regimes in Asia. The countries viewed alliances as sources of tensions in their regions and the world and as treats their independence

The Vietnam War

The Policy of containment led to the US Involvements in protected war in Vietnam. In Sep 1945 Ho Chi Minh the nationalistic communist leader had declared the independence of Vietnam and set u the democratic republic of Vietnam. The French tried to restore their rule there after the war. In this they were aided by Britain and later by the US, Thus form 1945 France was drawn into a war. Because the nationalist forces in Vietnam were led by the communist party, Dulles advocated direct involvement of the US in the Vietnam War and continued to press France to continue the war in which the US provided the funds. The Vietnamese forces led by Ho –Chi- Minh received help from the Soviet Union and china but they relied mainly on their own strength and the popular support they enjoyed within Vietnam was temporarily divided into North Vietnam and South Vietnam but the country was to be reunited after election which would be held in 1956.

However the US started building South Vietnam as an independent state under the dictatorial and corrupt rule of Ngo Dinh Diem. It was universally believed Ho Chi Minh's party we certain to win the election. Diem's government on the advice of and with the support of the US refused to comply with the decision to hold Election. The US started building the South Vietnamese army to resist the North Vietnamese army. In spite of US support Diem's government was on the verge of collapse in 1963 due to its growing unpopularity.

The US policy makers advocated what was called the “domino theory” According to this theory. If South Vietnam fell to the communists all other south-east Asian countries would also collapse and came under communist rule and this would lead to expansion of communism all over Asia. The US started sending her own troops to begin with as military advisers but by the end of 1967 the number of us troops fighting in Vietnam had gone up to 500,000.

The US war in Vietnam was the most unpopular US war in history. It was condemned by people all over the world including in the United States no other single event in the years after 1945 had united people all over the world as the opposition to the war in Vietnam. The US troops withdrew from Vietnam in 1973. By April 1975 the South Vietnamese army was routed and the last of the US advisers also left Vietnam soon emerged as a united country. They defeat of the greatest military power in the world by the people of a small country in Asia was an event of great significance in the history of the contemporary world.

Conflict in the Arab world

The Conflict found expression in Arab world too. The main cause of conflict in the Arab world during the post war period was the hostility of the United States and her allies to the spread of Arab nationalism. This was done in the name of preventing communism the western countries determination to retain their control over the oil resources of this region was great. The state of Israel the main ally of the US was another major source of tension in this area.

In November 1947, the United Nations the and agreed to partition Palestine into an Arab state and Jewish state. However on 14 may 1948 Britain which held Palestine as a mandate withdrew from there before partition could be affected. The Jewish state of Israel was proclaimed which was recognized by the United States the very next day.

The establishment of the state of Israel was followed by an Arab- Israel war (1956) in which the Arabs were deprived of their lands an homes and over million of them had to live as refugees in other Arab courtiers. On 29, October 1956, Israel invaded Egypt and on the next day British and French troops were landed there to occupy the Suez Canal. The British French – Israel invasion of Egypt aroused worldwide protests including in Britain and France. The United Nations with the support of the US, also condemned the invasion on 5, November the soviet union issued an ultimatum to the invaders to with draw from Egypt and threatened to use missiles to defend Egypt were ended and their troops were withdrawn . Egypt and Egypt agreed to a cease –fire.

With the help of the US, Israel began to be built up as a powerful state in the region. The Arab states refused to recognize the state of Israel and the Arab nationalists viewed her as an instrument to curb the rising strength of Arab nationalism.

In 1967, another war broke out between Israel on one side and Egypt, Jordan and Syria on the other. This is known as the six day war. The Arab states were defeated and Israel occupied Egyptian territory in the Sinai Peninsula. The Palestinian territory on the west bank of the river Jordan (from Jordan) and Gaza strip and a part of the territory of Syria called Heights Israel also established her control over the entire city of Jerusalem.

In 1973 There was another Arab- Israel war. During this war the oil- producing Arab states announced that they would stop shipment of oil to countries which were supporting Israel. This meant mainly the United States and her support to vacate the many Arab territories that she occupied during the wars in 1956, 1967 and 1973

Egypt under the leadership of Colonel Abdul Nasser represented the forces of nationalism in the 1950s and the 1960s Britain in 1954 was asked to withdraw her troops from Egypt. At this time, Egypt also began to build her independent military strength with the help of arms from the Soviet Union. The US had offered to help Egypt build the Aswan Dam. Egypt started receiving soviet arms and US aid for the Aswan dam was stopped.

On 26, July 1956 the Suez Canal was nationalized. The end of the 1956 war in Egypt was acclaimed as a victory of Arab nationalism. It also led to strengthening of the soviet influence in the region. Egypt turned to the Soviet Union for help in building the Aswan dam. Nasser also tried to strengthen Arab unity by uniting various Arab states. The US, alarmed at this development proclaimed what is called the Eisenhower doctrine named after the US president According to this doctrine the US decide to give economic and military aid to the countries in the region to protect them from what it called international communism.

In July 1958 however the prowestern government in Iraq was overthrown. US and British troops were sent to Lebanon and Jordan to prevent the pro-western government of these countries from falling.

Cuba Missile crisis

One of the most serious crises in the history of the past Second World War occurred on the issue of installation of nuclear in Cuba. The development of nuclear weapons had been accompanied by the development of new system of delivery that is of means of dropping these weapons. For this purpose missiles were developed. The US had set up these missiles aimed at soviet targets at the bases which she had in different parts of the world. The Soviet Union generally had no bases outside and her missiles sites were within her own territory. Each side also had submarines carrying these nuclear missiles. The range of these missiles was limited say a few hundred kilometers which had made the setting up of bases near the territory of the enemy countries necessary, New technology for spying on other countries had also been developed.

In January 1959 there was a revolution in Cuba under the leadership of Fidel Castro. The United States turned hostile to Cuba when the new government started adoption radical social and economic measures introducing agrarian reforms and nationalizing industries. Another reason was the friendly relation which the new government began to have with the Soviet Union and china. The United States broke off diplomatic relation with Cuba in January 1961 and stopped all economic relation with her. In April 1961 she landed 2000 Cuban exiles at the Bay of pigs in Cuba to overthrow the Cuban government however the invasion ended in fiasco and within two days it was crushed even though the US would have had the option of the incursions of Cuba its intention of overthrowing the Cuban government continued John F. Kennedy the US president at that time had openly declared after the fiasco of the bay of pigs invasion “ we do not intend to abandon Cuba to the communists” this was the background of the crisis which broke out in October 1962.

While the Soviet Union was surrounded by US bases including those with nuclear missiles the Soviet Union had no bases anywhere near US territory. In October 1962 the US found from the pictures taken by her spy planes that the Soviet Union was building missile sites in Cuba which is less than 150km from the southernmost part of the US all through the wars which the US had fought her own

territory had been inviolable and all the wars had been fought far away. The installation of missiles in Cuba would bring US territory within easy range of attack. This was perceived as a serious threat to the security of the US. Although the Soviet Union had done for the first time what the US had been doing all along i.e. establishing military bases in other countries, it created the danger of a war between the US and the Soviet Union something which had not happened in spite of various tensions and conflicts between them. Such a war would have endangered all humanity. On 22 October 1962 President Kennedy announced a naval and air blockade around Cuba which meant that US would stop any ship or aircraft moving towards Cuba. The US also prepared to launch an attack on the missile sites in Cuba.

This crisis which had brought the world close to disaster however ended on 26 October. In that the Soviet Union would remove her missiles from Cuba if the US pledged not to attack Cuba. This was agreed to and crisis was over. The US also agreed to withdraw the missiles which she had installed in Turkey close to Soviet territory.

From confrontation through détente (1962-1979)

In the course of the 1960 and 1970s both the US and the Soviet Union struggled to adjust to a new, more complicated pattern of international relations in which the world was no longer divided into two clearly opposed blocs by the two super powers. Since the beginning of the post-war period, Western Europe and Japan rapidly recovered from the destruction of World War II and sustained strong economic growth through the 1950s and 1960s increasing their strength compared to the United States. As a result of the 1973 oil crisis, combined with the growing influence of Third world alignments such as the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) and the Non-Aligned Movement, less-powerful countries had more room to assert their independence and often showed themselves resistant to pressure from either superpower. Moscow meanwhile was forced to turn its attention inward to deal with the Soviet Union's deep-seated domestic economic problems. During this period Soviet leaders such as Alexei Kosygin and Leonid Brezhnev embraced the notion of détente.

Nevertheless both superpowers resolved to reinforce their global leadership. Both the Soviet Union and the United States struggled to slave off challenges to their leadership in their own regions. President Lyndon B. Johnson landed 22,000 troops in the Dominican Republic citing the threat of the emergence of a Cuba-style revolution in Latin America. In Eastern Europe the Soviets in 1968 crushed the Prague Spring reform movements in Czechoslovakia that might have threatened to take the country out of the Warsaw Pact.

The US continued to spend heavily on supporting friendly Third world regimes in Asia. Conflicts in peripheral regions and client states – most prominently in Vietnam – continued. Johnson stationed 575,000 troops in Southeast Asia to defeat the National Front for the Liberation of South Vietnam (NLF) and their North Vietnamese allies but his costly policy weakened the US economy and by 1975 ultimately culminated in what most of the world saw as a humiliating defeat of the world's most powerful superpower at the hands of one of the world's poorest nations. Brezhnev meanwhile faced far more daunting challenges in reviving the Soviet economy, which was declining in part because of heavy military expenditures.

Although indirect conflict between cold war powers continued through the late 1960s and early 1970s, tension began to ease as the period of détente began. The Chinese had sought to improve relations with the US in order to gain advantage over the Soviets. In February 1972 Richard Nixon travelled to Beijing and met with Mao Zedong and Chou-En-Lai.

Nixon and Henry Kissinger then announced a stunning rapprochement with Mao's China.

Later in June, Nixon and Kissinger met with Soviet leaders in Moscow and announced the first of the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks aimed at limiting the development of costly antiballistic missiles and offensive nuclear missiles. Between 1972 and 1974 the two sides also agreed to strengthen their economic ties. Meanwhile those developments coincided with the "Ostpolitik" of West German Chancellor Willy Brandt. Other agreements were concluded to stabilize the situation in Europe culminating in the Helsinki Accords signed by the conference on security and co-operation in Europe in 1975.

However the détente of the 1970s was short lived. The US congress limited the economic pact between Nixon and Brezhnev so much that the soviets repudiated in 1975. Indirect conflict between the superpowers continued through this period of détente in the Third world particularly during political crises in the Middle East Chile and Angola. While president Jimmy Carter tried to place another limit on the arms race with a SALT II agreement in 1979 his efforts were undercut by the other events that year including the Iranian Revolution and the Nicaraguan Revolution which both ousted pro-US regimes and his retaliation against soviet Intervention in Afghanistan in December.

The “Second Cold War” (1979-1985)

In November 1982 American ten-year-old Samantha Smith wrote a letter to the soviet leader Yuri Andropov expressing her fear of nuclear war, and pleading with him to work toward peace. Andropov himself replied and gave her a personal invitation to visit the country. Smith’s visit was one of few prominent attempts to improve relation between the superpowers during Andropov’s brief leadership from 1982- 1984 at a dangerously low point in US – Soviet relation the term “ Second cold war” had been used by some historians to refer to the period of intensive reawakening of cold war tensions in the early 1980s. In 1980 Ronald Reagan digested Jimmy Carter vowing to increase military spending and confront the soviets everywhere. Both Reagan and Britain new Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher denounced the Soviet Union in Ideological terms that rivaled that of the worst days of the Cold war in the late 1940s.

Kal 007 and the deployment of missiles in western Europe

With the Background of the build-up of tensions between the Soviet Union and the United States, NATO decided under the impetus of the Reagan presidency to deploy Pershing II and cruise missiles in western Europe primarily West Germany This deployment would have placed missiles just 6 minutes striking distance from Moscow, the capital of the “Evil Empire” as Reagan had termed it. Yet support for the deployment was wavering as many doubted whether the push for deployment could be sustained. But on Sept 1, 1983, the soviet union shot down Doreen Airlines flight 007, a boeing 747 with 269 people aboard in international waters just past the west coast of Sakhalin Island-an act which Reagan characterized as a “massacre” The barbarity of this act as the US and indeed the world understood it galvanized support for the deployment which stood in place until the later accords between Reagan and Mikhail Gorbachev.

Reagan spent \$ 22 trillion for the military over eighty years. Military spending combined with the legacy of the economic structural problems of the 1970s transformed the US from the world leading creditor in 1981 to the world leading debtor. Tensions intensified in the early 1980s when Reagan installed US cruise missiles in Europe and announced his experimental strategic Defense Initiative dubbed “star wars” by the media to shoot down missiles in mid- flight Reagan also imposed economic sanctions to protest the suppression of the opposition solidarity movement in Poland.

US domestic public concerns about intervening in foreign conflicts persisted from the end of the Vietnam War. But Reagan did not encounter major public opposition to his foreign policies. The Reagan administration emphasized the use of quick low cost counterinsurgency tactics to intervene in foreign conflicts. In 1983 the Reagan administration intervened in the multisided Lebanese civil war invaded Grenada, bombed Libya and backed the central American contras right wing paramilitaries seeking to overthrow the soviet aligned in the US, his backing of the contra rebels was mired in controversy . In 1985 the President authorized the sale of arms to Iran later administration subordinates illegally diverted the proceeds to the contras.

Meanwhile the soviets incurred high costs for their own foreign intervention. Although Brezhnev was convinced in 1979 that the soviet war in Afghanistan would be brief Muslim guerrillas waged a surprisingly fierce resistance against the Soviets’. The Kremlin sent nearly 100,000 troops to support its puppet regime in Afghanistan leading many outside observers to call the war the soviets Vietnam however Moscow quagmire in Afghanistan was far more disastrous for the soviets than Vietnam had been for the Americans because the conflict coincided with a period of internal decay and domestic crisis in the soviet system. A high US state Department official predicted such an outcome as early as 1980 position that the invasion resulted in part from a “Domestic crisis within the soviet system.... It may be that the thermodynamics law of entropy has

caught up with the soviet system which now seems to expend more energy on simply maintaining its equilibrium than on improving itself. We could "be seeing a period of foreign movement at a time of internal decay".

End of the Cold War

By the early 1980s the soviet armed forces were the largest in the world by many measures. In terms of the numbers and types of weapons they possessed, the number of troops in their ranks and in the size of their military industrial base. However, the quantitative advantages held by the soviet military often concealed areas where the east dramatically lagged behind the west. This led many US observers to vastly overestimate soviet power. By the late years of the cold war Moscow had built up a military that consumed as much as twenty-five percent of the Soviet Union gross national product at the expense of consumer goods and investment in civilian sectors. But the size of the soviet armed force was not necessarily the result of a simple action reaction arms race with the United States. Instead soviet spending on the arms race and other cold war commitments can be understood as both a cause and effect of the deep-seated structural problems in the soviet system which accumulated at least a decade of economic stagnation during the Brezhnev years. Soviet investment into the defense sector was not necessarily driven by military necessity but in large part by the interests of massive party and state bureaucracies dependent on the sector for their own power and privileges.

By the time Mikhail Gorbachev had ascended to power in 1985 the soviets suffered from an economic growth rate close to zero percent combined with a sharp fall in hard currency earnings as a result of the downward slide in world oil prices in the 1980s (Petroleum exports made up around 60 percent of the soviet union total export earnings). To restructure the soviet economy before it collapsed Gorbachev announced an agenda of rapid reforms (perestroika and glasnost). Reforms Required Gorbachev to redirect the country's resources from costly cold war military commitment to more profitable areas in the civilian sector. As a result, Gorbachev offered major concessions to the United States in levels of conventional forces, nuclear weapons and policy in eastern Europe.

Many US soviet experts and administration officials doubted that Gorbachev was serious about winding down the arms race. With the new soviet leader eventually proved more concerned about reversing the Soviet Union's deteriorating economic condition than fighting the arms race with the west. The Kremlin made major military and political concessions in response. Reagan agreed to renew talks on economic issues and the scaling back of the arms race. The east-west tensions that had reached intense new heights earlier in the decade rapidly subsided through the mid to late 1980s. In 1988 the soviets officially declared that they would no longer intervene in the affairs of allied states in Eastern Europe, the so-called Sinatra Doctrine. In 1989 Soviet forces withdrew from Afghanistan. In December 1989 Gorbachev and George H. W. Bush declared the cold war officially over at a summit meeting in Malta. But by then the soviet alliance system was on the brink of collapse and the communist leaders of the Warsaw pact states were losing power. In the USSR itself Gorbachev tried to reform the party to destroy resistance to his reforms but in doing so ultimately weakened the bonds that held the state and union together. By February 1990, the communist party was forced to surrender its 73-years old monopoly on state power. By December of the next year the Union state also dissolved, breaking the USSR up into fifteen separate independent states with the collapse of communist rule in Eastern Europe and the disintegration of the Soviet Union the cold war came to an end.



CHAPTER - 1**RENAISSANCE AND
THE ENLIGHTENMENT****INTRODUCTION**

Generally, it is held that modern Europe is an offshoot of Renaissance and Enlightenment because it promoted the freedom of thought, scientific and critical outlook, pure art, literature free from the influence of the Church and development of regional languages. In other words, it comprises the intellectual changes which occurred during this period.

The concept of Renaissance means rebirth or recovery; it has its origins in Italy and is associated with the rebirth of antiquity or Greco-Roman civilization. The age of the Renaissance is believed to elapse over a period of about two centuries that was approximately from 1350 to 1550. The Renaissance was a recovery from the middle Ages, for the intellectuals, it was a period of recovery from the “Dark Ages”; a period, which was called so due to its lack of classical culture.

First Italian and then intellectuals of the rest of Europe became increasingly interested in the Greco-Roman culture of the ancient Mediterranean world. This interest was fostered especially by the migration of the Greek intellectuals during the middle Ages and the fact that the ancient Greek works could then be translated more precisely into Latin. Increasing popularity of archeology and discovery of ancient Roman and Greek constructions also participated in this intense interest for the classical culture. It is believed that precisely from the fifteenth century great changes took place affecting public and social spheres of Europe and then the rest of the world; the basis of the modern European civilization and capitalist system were then founded. Technological innovations increased the rates of economic development. Great geographical discoveries opened up the borders of the Western world, thus accelerating the formation of national, European and world markets. Major changes in art, music, literature and religion wrecked the system of medieval values.

Another period marked by significant changes, is the eighteenth century or an age of Enlightenment. Although present throughout Europe, the origins of the Enlightenment are closely associated with France and its philosophers such as Voltaire, Rousseau and others. The Enlightenment has been fostered by the remarkable discoveries of the Scientific Revolution of the seventeenth century. It was during this period that the ideas of the Scientific Revolution were spread and popularized by the philosophers (intellectuals of the 18th century).

There are similarities that can with certainty be traced between the Renaissance and the Enlightenment. Many of the eighteenth-century philosophers saw themselves as the followers of the philosophers of antiquity and the humanists of the Renaissance. Achievements of both, the Renaissance and the Enlightenment were the product of the elite, rather than a mass movement. Gradually though, they did have an irreversible impact on ordinary people. Another apparent similarity between the two periods, of course, was the fact that both of them were marked by great political and social changes. However, since evolution and progress cause changes, and achievements of one century are built on those of the previous one, there are probably more differences than similarities between the two periods.

We shall now examine the Renaissance and the Enlightenment in a more broader format.

Renaissance

The Renaissance was the outcome of several centuries; it did not emerge all of a sudden. There was a persistent effort for its arousal in France in the post medieval period. In this field the efforts of Peter Aubelier (France), Roger Bacon (England) and Dante (Italy) were commendable. According to the European history,

the Renaissance period lasted roughly from the 14th century to 16th century and particularly from 1350 to 1550.

CAUSES OF RENAISSANCE

The cause of Renaissance was as follows:

1. Crusades

The military expedition undertaken in Europe from the end of the 11th century to the end of the 13th century to recover the Holy Land, Jerusalem from the Muslims, were called crusades. Because of these crusades, the Christians (European) came in the contact with the enlightened people of the East which were already enriched civilization due to their contact with the Greek and Indian civilization. The crusades encouraged voyages and a study of Geography. Aristotle's scientific books, Arabic numerals, algebra, mariner's compass and paper reached Western Europe through crusades.

2. Commercial Prosperity

The crusades established business links with the eastern countries. As a result there was tremendous increase in business which fostered the spirit of Renaissance. The commercial prosperity shaped the renaissance in four stages-

- The European businessmen came to know about new ideas and progressive element when they travelled across many countries in connection with business
- The development of business built new cities like Venice, Milan, Florence, Angelbourg and Nuremburg. These cities as a centre for international trade became hotspot for businessmen and tourists, which facilitated the exchange of ideas and development of knowledge.
- The abundant wealth which was accumulated through this new economic pattern created a desire for learning in the newly rich businessmen. This class became the patrons of art and gave shelter to the scholar and scientists.
- The business class criticized the Church and tried to reduce its importance.

3. Paper and the Printing Press

The European learnt paper-making from Arabs in the middle Ages. In the mid 15th century Johann Guttenberg of Germany invented a type machine which may be called a prototype of printing press. The invention of printing press paved the way for intellectual growth. In 1477 Caxton established a printing press in Britain. By and by, the printing press reached Italy, Germany, Spain and France. Now books were printed in a large number at a relatively low cost. The monopoly of distinctive person over knowledge came to an end. With the dissemination of knowledge through books, superstition and orthodox practices weakened and self-confidence increased in people. Now people became aware of their rights and the greatness of man revealed.

4. Capture of Constantinople by the Turks

In 1453 the Turks captured Constantinople, the capital of East Roman (Byzantine) Empire.

- With the Turks' capture of Constantinople, all land routes leading from Europe to the countries of the East fell into their hands. Hence the peoples of the South-West Europe became impatient to find out a new business route, possibly a sea-route leading to the east.
- Thousands of Greek scholars, philosophers and artists migrated from Constantinople to Italy, France, Germany and England, these intellectuals took with them the science of ancient Rome and Greece as well as the new ways of thinking.

Origination of renaissance in Italy

- One major reason the Renaissance began in Italy is linked to geography. The city-states of Italy, positioned on the Mediterranean Sea, were centers for trade and commerce, the first port

of call for both goods and new ideas.

- Secondly, Italy was the core of the former Roman empire, and, at the collapse of the Byzantine empire in 1453, became the refuge for the intellectuals of Constantinople who brought with them many of the great works of the ancient Greeks and Romans, works that had been lost to the West during the Dark Ages. Prior to this, scholars in Italy had been examining the works of the ancients, but they were of poor quality and often incomplete.
- The third reason was political. Due to various political intrigues, the Holy Roman Empire had essentially lost power in northern Italy, the Papal States were governed by various leading families within each region, and the city of Naples dominated the South. This vacuum of leadership allowed merchant families to gain considerable power within each city-state and thus revised the laws governing banking, commerce, shipping, and trade. This freer atmosphere led to a busy exchange of both goods and ideas.
- The Renaissance was a rebirth of ancient Greek and Roman thinking and styles, and both the Roman and Greek civilizations were Mediterranean cultures, as is Italy. The best single reason for Italy as the birthplace of the Renaissance was the concentration of wealth, power, and intellect in the Church. In that time, the Church controlled so much of the political, economic, and intellectual life of Europe, that it gathered most of the best minds, wealthiest men, and most powerful leaders unto itself in Rome at one time or another. The noble merchants of various Italian cities had built up so much wealth over the centuries that they could better afford to patronize the arts and sciences than almost anyone else.
- However, the Renaissance is a very complex period with no well-defined beginning or end and no simple root causes. There are many theories. Some claim that the trade routes coming from the Middle East and China that terminated in Venice and Genoa had great influence by bringing foreign ideas; others cite the lack of centralized control as exercised by a king that allowed the nobles and the middle class more latitude to compete; others cite the influence of the Kingdom of Sicily that had so long kept educated Moslems in high positions; and finally, for the Humanistic values that permeated the Italian Renaissance, some cite the proximity of the corrupt Papal Court in Rome. Seeing supposed men of God, who were saying that only the next life should be enjoyed, living a very comfortable life tended to lead the Italians to listen less to Papal dogma.

Changes occurred due to Renaissance

The significant changes are -

- **The decline of feudalism:** The feudalism the dominant social system in medieval Europe, in which the nobility held lands from the Crown in exchange for military service, and vassals were in turn tenants of the nobles, while the peasants (villains or serfs) were obliged to live on their lord's land and give him homage, labour, and a share of the produce, notionally in exchange for military protection. This system was declined.
- **The study of ancient literature:** Renaissance was very important for literature and arts. It was marked by a revival in interest for ancient Greek and Roman civilizations. A new concept was started Humanism. It focused on Man. Earlier, under Church's authority; the belief was that man was here on the Earth due to a sin. SO he should not enjoy in the world.

But this changed during the Renaissance. The people proposed the idea of the limitless capabilities of the human mind and the right to enjoy. So you will find Renaissance art and literature centered around Man. All his needs and desires and his wish to fulfill them.

- **The rise of nation states:** A Sovereign states of which most of the citizens or subjects are united also by factors which define a nation, such as language or common descent were emerged.

- The beginning of modern science, the invention of moving letters, Gun-powder & compass were used. Art became less focused on religion. Artists were not part of society. Paintings became less secular. Technique became less important.
- **The discovery of new trade routes:** At the start of the renaissance, merchants would travel through the Mediterranean and into the Red Sea to reach Asia. They would also use the Silk Road. However, in the middle of the Renaissance and the end, the Ottoman Empire began rising in military strength, until the point where they blocked off these routes, starting the Age of Exploration in which the Americas were discovered while trying to find different trade routes. Later into the Age of Exploration, a route to Asia was found around the Cape of Good Hope, circling the African continent into India by the Portuguese.

The Spread of Renaissance

After Italy the Renaissance wave captured the whole Europe. The advent of printing press facilitated its rapid transmission. The ideas and principles of the movement were enhanced and diversified as they spread. It also inspired many movements across the continent.

It had a profound impact on the French revolution. Even the term 'Renaissance' is a French word, first defined in the work of French historian Jules Michelet in 1855 (History of France). He emphasized the democratic values enshrined in the movement. The values of Renaissance came to France with King Charles VIII after he invaded Italy in 1495. Subsequently Francis I brought in Italian art and artists who inspired several French writers, musicians and painters, making the spirit of Renaissance innate to France.

Before long, the spirit and ideas that were taking hold in Italy reached France, Germany, England, and the Netherlands, where the Renaissance continued into the 1600s.

One of the most important figures of the northern Renaissance was the Dutch humanist Desiderius Erasmus (c. 1466-1536), whose book In Praise of Folly (1509) is a blistering criticism of the clergy, scholars, and philosophers of his day.

Another notable figure of the northern Renaissance was Englishman Sir Thomas More (1478-1535), who was a statesman and adviser to the king. More's Utopia, published in 1516, criticizes the times by envisioning an ideal society in which land is communally held, men and women alike are educated, police are unnecessary, politicians are honest, and where there is religious tolerance.

The works of Flemish artist Jan van Eyck (1395-1441), including his groundbreaking portrait Man in a Red Turban (1433), demonstrate that the principles of the Renaissance were felt as strongly in northern Europe as they were in Italy.

ENLIGHTENMENT

Introduction

The enlightenment was a philosophical movement of the 17th and 18th century Europe. It began in England and promoted rational human thinking against blind faith, traditional beliefs and dogmas of the middle Ages, Reason tolerance and humanity was the hallmark and the welfare of human being was considered as the ultimate goal. That the state, the church and other institutions should strive only for the welfare of mankind and rather than some unknown super power, individual or master of his fate and fortune was emphasized.

The Principles of enlightenment

The Principles of enlightenment were as follows:

- Enlightenment thinking generally belief that the world is governed by laws of nature which are eternal?
- It is imperative for human belief to understand the natural laws and act in according to them instead of violating them

- These eternal laws may be understood by means of intellect and reasoning which can unshackle the human from the chains of irrationality, fear and ignorance.
- All human are born equal and are endowed with equal intelligence. They thus deserve equal treatment before the state and society.
- Thus, the idea is to promote scientific thinking among common masses though discussion in public sphere so to eradicate disparity of every possible kind mainly, economic, social, political, etc and to bring out the essential goodness of human nature.
- The enlightenment thinking saw their societies as emerging from the darkness of superstition, ignorance and intolerance, most of which was associated with medieval catholic and feudal monarchy.
- A key feature of enlightenment was the remodeling of religion where god man often means as the force of good rather than a mere biblical lord.

Factors which influenced the Enlightenment

Enlightenment was influenced by various factors which preceded it:

- **Renaissance** which roughly existed between 14th to 16th centuries Europe initiated a new wave of intellectualism and challenged the established church feudal order of the dark ages.
- **Reformation** which speaks of an invisible church tried to establish an independent identity of the state beyond the control of Roman Catholicism.
- The discoveries of new world along with the growth of scientific temperament aided in the emergence and growth of enlightenment
- **Voltaire - Combats Intolerance** Probably the most brilliant and influential of all the philosophers was François Marie Arouet. Using the pen name Voltaire, he published more than 70 books of political essays, philosophy, and drama. Voltaire often used satire against his opponents. Although he made powerful enemies, Voltaire never stopped fighting for tolerance, reason, freedom of religious belief, and freedom of speech. He used his quill pen as if it were a deadly weapon in a thinker's war against humanity's worst enemies—intolerance, prejudice, and superstition. He summed up his staunch defense of liberty in one of his most famous quotes: "I do not agree with a word you say but will defend to the death your right to say it".
- **Montesquieu and the Separation of Powers:** Another influential French writer- devoted himself to the study of political liberty. Montesquieu believed that Britain was the best governed and most politically balanced country of his own day. The British king and his ministers held executive power. They carried out the laws of the state. The members of Parliament held legislative power. They made the laws. The judges of the English courts held judicial power. They interpreted the laws to see how each applied to a specific case. Montesquieu called this division of power among different branches. Montesquieu over simplified the British system. It did not actually separate powers this way. His idea, however, became a part of his most famous book, *On the Spirit of Laws* (1748). In his book, Montesquieu proposed that separation of powers would keep any individual or group from gaining total control of the government. "Power," he wrote, "should be a check to power." This idea later would be called checks and balances. Montesquieu book was admired by political leaders in the British colonies of North America. His ideas about separation of powers and checks and balances became the basis for the United States Constitution.
- **Rousseau:** A third great philosopher, Jean Jacques Rousseau, was passionately committed to individual freedom. Most philosophers believed that reason, science, and art would improve life for all people. Rousseau, however, argued that civilization corrupted people's natural goodness. "Man is born free, and every-where he is in chains," he wrote. Rousseau believed

that the only good government was one that was freely formed by the people and guided by the “general will” of society—a direct democracy. Under such a government, people agree to give up some of their freedom in favor of the common good. In 1762, he explained his political philosophy in a book called *The Social Contract*. Rousseau’s view of the social contract differed greatly from that of Hobbes. For Hobbes, the social contract was an agreement between a society and its government. For Rousseau, it was an agreement among free individuals to create a society and a government. Like Locke, Rousseau argued that legitimate government came from the consent of the governed. However, Rousseau believed in a much broader democracy than Locke had promoted. He argued that all people were equal and that titles of nobility should be abolished. Rousseau’s ideas inspired many of the leaders of the French Revolution who overthrew the monarchy in 1789.

- **Hobbes’s Social Contract:** Thomas Hobbes expressed his views in a work called *Leviathan* (1651). The horrors of the English Civil War convinced him that all humans were naturally selfish and wicked. Without governments to keep order, Hobbes said, there would be “war . . . of every man against every man, and life would be “solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short.” Hobbes argued that to escape such a bleak life, people had to hand over their rights to a strong ruler. In exchange, they gained law and order. Hobbes called this agreement by which people created a government the social contract. Because people acted in their own self-interest, Hobbes said, the ruler needed total power to keep citizens under control. The best government was one that had the awe some power of a leviathan (sea monster). In Hobbes’s view, such a government was an absolute monarchy, which could impose order and demand obedience.
- **Locke’s Natural Rights:** The philosopher John Locke held a different, more positive, view of human nature. He believed that people could learn from experience and improve themselves. As reasonable beings, they had the natural ability to govern their own affairs and to look after the welfare of society. Locke criticized absolute monarchy and favored the idea of self-government. According to Locke, all people are born free and equal, with three natural rights—life, liberty, and property. The purpose of government, said Locke, is to protect these rights. If a government fails to do so, citizens have a right to overthrow it. Locke’s theory had a deep influence on modern political thinking. His belief that a government’s power comes from the consent of the people is the foundation of modern democracy. The ideas of government by popular consent and the right to rebel against unjust rulers helped inspire struggles for liberty in Europe and the Americas

Impact of Enlightenment

The Impact of Enlightenment is as follows:

- It led to the demand for reform with in traditional Christian principle like human commonality and god’s concern for all. It further led to the end of slavery in 1774 in England and in 1807 from entire British colonies.
- A number of invariable principles of economics put forth by Adam Smith struck a direct blow to the old mercantile economy which was based upon slave trade and industrial labour meant for plantation agriculture.
- In the area of criminology. The concept to detent crime though brutal punishment was countered by education and criminal rehabilitation.
- Increasing awareness of individual within social paradigm and the concept of lasses-faire was acknowledgement.
- The epoch of monarchic repentance where the absolute, autocratic and suppressive monarchy was replaced by liberal philanthropic and intellectual monarchy .The spirit of humanism along with public welfare to an extent prevailed over monarchic interest. Russian empress

CATHERINE (1762-96) and JOSEPH (1765-1790), the emperor of Austria were among the earlier enlightened rulers and were great admirers of Voltaire, Rousseau and Montesquieu.

- Across Atlantic, philosophers like Benjamin Franklin, James Logan, Thomas Penn, Samuel Adam and others propagated the concept of enlightenment and made the Americans conscious of their rights and duties against the oppressive British rule. This led to the famous American war of independence (1776).
- The French and the Spanish forces who fought alongside the Americans in the war led to the French Revolution in their return.
- John Locke's idea of life, liberty and property became the justification of American Independence while Montesquieu propounded the idea of separation of power between the legislative, Executive and Judiciary.
- Racial discrimination practiced by the British, American war of Independence, French Revolution and Unification of Italy contributed to the evolution of Enlightenment in India.
- **Raja Ram Mohan Roy** (1772-1833) considered as the first social reformer of Modern Indian Renaissance inspired the ideals of social equality and human dignity. He imbibed the best of the oriental and western philosophy and was instrumental to the opening of Hindu College.
- Thinkers like Vivian Henry Derozio, Ishwar Chandra Vidya Sagar, Swami Vivekananda, Rabindra Nath Tagore, Sharat Chandra and others not only fought against orthodox in human practices viz Untouchability, casteism, Sati system and others but simultaneously provided an alternative synthesis of Indian and European traditions which was suitable for the Indian conditions.
- Ideas of Natural rights—life, liberty, property were given by Locke. It was fundamental to U.S. Declaration of Independence.
- Ideas of Separation of powers were given by Montesquieu. France, United States, Latin American nations use separation of powers in new constitutions.
- Ideas of Freedom of thought and expression were given by Voltaire. It is guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights and French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen; European monarchs reduce or eliminate censorship.
- Ideas of Abolishment of torture were given by Beccaria. It is guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights; torture outlawed or reduced in nations of Europe and the America.
- Ideas of Religious freedom were given by Voltaire. It is guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights and French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen; European monarchs reduce persecution.
- Ideas of Women's equality were given by Wollstonecraft. This led to Women's rights groups form in Europe and North America.



CHAPTER - 2

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

INTRODUCTION

During the later half of the 18th century the Thirteen British colonies of Northern America revolted against the British colonial rule and gained independence from the British Empire to become the United States of America. In this revolution the colonies united against the British Empire and entered a period of armed conflict known as the Revolutionary War on **“American War of Independence”**, between **1775 and 1783**.

The Ideological background of American Revolution

The ideological background of American Revolution was prepared by various kinds of ideas. John Locke's idea on liberalism greatly influenced the political minds behind the revolution; for instance; his theory of the “Social contract” implied the natural rights of the people to overthrow their leaders, should these leaders betray the historic rights of Englishmen. Historians find little trace of Jean-Jacques Rousseau's influence in America.

A motivating force behind the revolution was the American love of a political ideology called “Republicanism” which was dominant in many of the colonies by 1775. The “Country party” in Britain, whose critique of British government emphasized that corruption was to be feared, influenced American politicians. The colonists associated the “court” with luxury and inherited aristocracy, which many British Americans increasingly condemned. Corruption was the greatest possible evil, and civic virtue required men to put civic duty ahead of their personal desires. Men had a civic duty to fight for their country. For women, “republican motherhood” was to instill republican values in her children and to avoid luxury and ostentation. The “Founding Fathers” of American Revolution were strong advocates of republicanism, Especially Samuel Adams, Patrick Henry, Thomas Paine Benjamin Franklin, George Washington, Thomas Jefferson and John Adams.

THE LARGER BACKGROUND OF AMERICAN REVOLUTION

1. Navigation Acts

Great Britain regulated the economies of the colonies through the Navigation Acts according to the doctrines of mercantilism, which stated that anything that benefited the Empire was good policy. Widespread evasion of these laws had long been tolerated now through the use of open ended search warrants strict enforcement of these Acts became the practice. In 1761, Massachusetts lawyer James Otis argued that the writs violated the constitutional rights of the colonists. He lost the case, but John Adams later wrote, “American Independence was then and there born”.

In 1762, Patrick Henry argued the Parson's cause in Virginia, where the legislature had passed a law and it was voted by the king. Henry argued, “That a king, by disallowing Acts of this salutary nature, form being the Father of His people, degenerated into a Tyrant and Forfeits all right to his subjects' obedience”

2. Western Frontier

The proclamation of 1763 restricted colonization across the Appalachian Mountains as this was to be Indian Territory Regardless of this the groups of settlers continued to move west and lay claim to Indian Land. The proclamation was soon modified and was no longer a hindrance to settlements, but its promulgation and the fact that it had been written without consulting Americans angered the colonists. The Quebec Act of 1774

extended Quebec's boundaries to the Ohio River, shutting out the claims of the thirteen colonies. By then, however, the Americans had little regard for new laws from London and they were drilling militia and organizing for war.

3. Taxation without representation

By 1763, Great Britain possessed vast holdings in North America. In addition to the thirteen colonies, twenty-two smaller colonies were ruled directly by royal governors. Victory in the seven years War had given Great Britain New France (Canada), Spanish Florida and the Native American there were six colonies that remained loyal to Britain. The colonies included: Province of Quebec province of Nova Scotia, colony of Bermuda Province of West Florida and the province of East Florida. In 1765 however, the colonists still considered themselves loyal subjects of the British crown, with the same historic rights and obligations as subjects in Britain.

The British did not expect the colonies to contribute to the interest or the retirement of debt incurred during the French and Indian wars, but they did expect a portion of the expenses for colonial defense to be paid by the Americans. Estimating the expenses of defending the continental colonies and the West India's to be approximately 2, 00,000 annually the British goal after the end of this war was that the colonies would be taxed for 78,000 of this needed amount. The issues with the colonists were both that the taxes were high and that the colonies had no representation in the parliament which passed the taxes. Lord North in 1775 argued for the British position that Englishmen paid on average twenty-five shillings annually in taxes whereas Americans paid only six pence. Colonists, however as early as 1764 with respect to the sugar Act, indicated that the "the margin of profit in rum was so small that molasses could bear no duty whatever".

The phrase "No taxation without representation" became popular in many American circles. London argued that the Americans were represented "virtually". But most Americans rejected the theory that men in London, who knew nothing about their needs and conditions, could represent them.

4. New taxes of 1764

In 1764, Parliament enacted the sugar Act and the currency Act, further vexing the colonists even further that same year by enacting the Quartering Act, which stated that British soldiers were to be cared for by residents in certain areas.

5. Stamp Act of 1765

In 1765, the stamp Act was the first direct tax ever levied by parliament on the colonies. All newspapers, almanacs, pamphlets and official documents-even decks of playing cards- were required to have the stamps. All 13 colonies protested vehemently as popular leaders Such as Patrick Henry in Virginia and James Otis in Massachusetts rallied the people in opposition. A secret group the "Sons of liberty" was formed in many towns and threatened violence if anyone sold the stamps and no one did. In Boston, the sons of liberty burned the records of the vice- admiralty court and looted the home of the chief Justice. Several legislatures called for united action, and nine colonies sent delegates to the stamp Act congress in New York City in October 1765. Moderates led by John Dickinson drew up a "Declaration of Rights and Grievances" stating that taxes passed without representation violated their Rights. Lending weight to the argument was an economic boycott of British merchandise, as imports the colonies fell from 2,250,000 in 1764 to 1,944,000 in 1765. In London the Rockingham Government came to power and parliament debated whether to repeal the stamp tax or send an army to enforce it. Benjamin Franklin eloquently made the American case, explaining the colonies had spent heavily in manpower, money and blood in defense of the empire in a series of wars against the French and Indians, and that Further taxes to pay for those wars were unjust and might bring about a rebellion. Parliament agreed and repealed the tax but in a "Declaratory Act" of March 1766 insisted that parliament retained full power to make laws for the colonies "in all cases whatsoever".

6. Townshend Act 1767 and Boston Massacre 1770

In 1767, the Parliament passed the Townshend Acts, which placed a tax on a number of essential goods

including paper, glass and tea. Angered at the tax increases, colonists organized a boycott of British goods in Boston on March 5, 1770 a large mob gathered around a group of British soldiers. One Soldier was clubbed and fell. All but one of the soldiers fired into the crowd. Eleven people were hit: Three civilians were killed at the scene of the shooting, and two died after the incident. The event quickly came to be called the Boston Massacre. Although the Soldiers were tried and acquitted (defended by John Adams), the exaggerated and widespread description soon became propaganda to turn colonial sentiment against the British. This in turn began a downward spiral in the relationship between Britain and the Province of Massachusetts.

7. Tea Act 1773

In June 1772, in what became known as the Gaspee affair a British warship that had been vigorously enforcing unpopular trade regulations was burned by American patriots. Soon afterwards, Governor Thomas Hutchinson of Massachusetts reported that he and the royal Judges would be paid directly from London, thus by passing the colonial legislature on December 16, 1773 a group of men led by Samuel Adams and dressed to evoke American Indians, boarded the ships of British tea merchants and dumped an estimated 10,000 worth of tea on board into the harbor. This event became known as the Boston Tea party.

8. Intolerable Acts 1774

The British government responded by passing several Acts which came to be known as the Intolerable Acts, which further darkened colonial opinion towards the British. They considered four laws enacted by the British parliament. The first was the Massachusetts Government Act, which altered the Massachusetts Charter and restricted town meetings. The second Act, the Administration of Justice Act, ordered that all British Soldiers to be tried were to be arraigned in Britain not in the Colonies. The third Act was the Boston Port Act, which closed the port of Boston until the British had been compensated for the tea lost in the Boston Tea party (the British never received such a parliament). The fourth Act was the Quartering Act of 1774, which allowed governors to house British troops in unoccupied building. The first continental congress endorsed the Suffolk Resolves, which declared the intolerable Acts to be unconstitutional, called for the people to form militias, and called for Massachusetts to form a patriot government.

9. American political opposition

American political opposition was initially through the colonial assemblies such as the stamp Act congress. In 1765 the sons of liberty were formed which used violence and threats of violence to ensure that the British tax laws were unenforceable. In late 1772 after the Gaspe Affair Samuel Adams set about creating new committees of correspondence which linked patriots in all thirteen colonies and eventually provided the framework for a rebel government. In early 1773, Virginia, the largest colony set up its committee of correspondence on which Patrick Henry and Thomas Jefferson Served.

In 1774, the Continental Congress was formed to serve as a provisional national government. In response to the Massachusetts Government Act, Massachusetts Bay and then other colonies formed provisional governments called Provincial Congress Committee of safety were created for the enforcement of the resolutions of the committees of Correspondence and the continental Congress.

The People of Worcester set up an armed picket line in front of the local authorities and refused to allow British magistrates to enter. Similar events soon occurred all across the colony British troops were sent from England but by the time they arrived the entire colony of Massachusetts with the exception of the heavily garrisoned city of Boston had thrown off British control of local affairs.

The Battle of Lexington and Concord took place on 19 April 1775 when the British sent a regiment to confiscate arms and arrest revolutionaries in Concord. It was the first fighting of the American Revolutionary War, and immediately the news aroused the 13 colonies to call out their militias and send troops to besiege Boston. The Battle of Bunker Hill followed on 17 June 1775 By late spring 1776, with George Washington as commander the Americans forced the British to evacuate Boston. The patriots were in control everywhere in the 13 colonies and were ready to declare independence while there still were many Loyalists, they were no

longer in control anywhere by July 1776 and all of the British Royal officials had fled. The Second Continental Congress Convened in 1775, after the war had started. The Congress Created the continental Army and extended the Olive Branch Petition to the Crown as an attempt at reconciliation King George iii refused to receive it, issuing instead the Proclamation of Rebellion requiring action against the traitors.

VARIOUS FRACTIONS IN AMERICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

1. The Patriots or the Revolutionaries

At the time, revolutionaries were called ‘Patriots’, ‘Whigs’, ‘Congress-men’, or ‘Americans’ The word “Patriot” is used in this context simply to mean a person in the colonies who sided with the American Revolution. They included a full range of social and economic classes, but there was a unanimity regarding the need to defend the rights of Americans. After the War, Patriots such as George Washington, James Madison, John Adams, Alexander Hamilton and John Jay were deeply devoted to republicanism and they were eager to build a rich and powerful nation. The Patriots such as Patrick Henry, Benjamin Franklin, and Thomas Jefferson represented the democratic impulses and the agrarian plantation element that wanted a localized society with greater political equality.

2. Loyalists and neutrals

While there is no way of knowing the actual numbers historians estimate 25% to 33% of the colonists remained loyal to the British Crown these were known at the time as ‘ Loyalists ‘Tories’, or ‘King’s men’ A third remained neutral and another third were known as Rebels or Patriots depending on whose side one was on. Loyalists were typically older, less willing to break with old loyalties, often connected to the Anglican Church, and included many established merchants with business connections across the Empire. Recent immigrants who had not been fully Americanized were also inclined to support the king.

There are notable example of loyalists who were not highborn, however, and it seems unlikely that their number are included in estimates of the number of loyalists. Notable among these were Native Americans, who mostly rejected American pleas that they remain neutral. Most groups aligned themselves with the loyalists. There were also incentives provided by both sides that helped to secure the affiliations of regional peoples and leaders, and the tribes that depended most heavily upon colonial trade tended to side with the revolutionaries, through political factors were important as well.

Another poorly- documented groups that Joined the loyalist cause were African-American slaves, who were actively recruited into the British forces in return for manumission protection for their families and the promise of land grants. Following the war, many of these “Black loyalists” settled in Nova Scotia Upper and Lower Canada, and other parts of the British Empire, where the descendants of some remain today. A minority of uncertain size tried to stay neutral in the war. Most kept a low profile. However the Quakers especially in Pennsylvania were the most important group that was outspoken for neutrality. As patriots declared independence the Quakers, who continued to do business with the British were attacked as supporters of British rule, “Contrivers and authors of Seditious publications “Critical of the revolutionary cause.

After the war, the great majority of loyalists remained in America and resumed normal lives. Some Such as Samuel Seabury became prominent American leaders. 62,000 Loyalists (of the total estimated number of 450-500,000) relocated to Canada (42,000 according to the Canadian book on Loyalists, Trued Blue) Britain (7,000) or to Florida or the West Indies (13,000) making the one of the largest mass migrations in history this made up approximately 2% of the total population of the colonies. When the Loyalists left the South in 1783, they took thousands of their slaves with them to the British West Indies, Where their descendants would became free men 26 years earlier than their United States counterparts.

3. Declaration of Independence, 1776

On January 10, 1776, Thomas Paine Published a political pamphlet entitled “Common Sense” arguing that the only solution to the problems with Britain was republicanism and independence from Great Britain In the

ensuring month before the United States as a political unit declared its independence several states individually declared their independence. Virginia for instance declared its independence from Great Britain on May 15 on July 2, 1776. Congress declared the independence of the United States: two days later, on July 4 it adopted the Declaration of Independence, Which date is now celebrated as the US independence day. Although the bulk of delegates signed the Declaration on that late, signing continued over the next several months because many members weren't immediately available. The war began in April 1775 while the declaration was issued in July 1776, until this point the colonies had sought favorable peace terms: now all the states called for independence.

The Articles of confederation and Perpetual union commonly Known as the Articles of Confederation formed the first governing document of the united states of America, Combining the colonies into a loose confederation of Sovereign states. The second continental congress adopted the Articles in November 1777, though they were not formally ratified until March 1, 1781 on that date the continental congress was dissolved and the new government of the United States in congress Assembled was formed.

France in the American Revolution

France was instrumental in the American Revolution. The victory of the American forces can be attributed to the military aid provided by the French forces.

France enter the American Revolution

France participated actively in the American Revolutionary War (1775-1783) and assisted America in its fight for independence from the British rule. It entered the Revolution in 1778. France perceived the whole episode as an incarnation of the Enlightenment Spirit. Benjamin Franklin popularized the Revolution in France, urging them to participate.

France help America in the Revolutionary War

France had faced a bitter defeat in the French and Indian War, having to evacuate the American soil after that. Therefore, it saw a natural ally in the American colonies, who the French also wished to turn to their advantage once the conflict was over. At the same time, the colonies lacked ammunitions and allies. The French extended considerable financial support to the American forces in the form of donations and loans and also supplied vital military arms and supplies, which became a decisive factor in the victory of America.

Benjamin Franklin play an important role in the American Revolution

Benjamin Franklin was among the founding fathers, and played an indispensable role in the American Revolution. Motivated by the ideals of equality, liberty and republicanism, he entered the war and mobilized the masses to join in the same. In December 1776, he went to France, where he was welcomed with enthusiasm. He stayed in Paris for a long time, which was a cause of discontent for the British but was unusually a fruitful time for America.

Siege of Yorktown

The Siege of Yorktown or the surrender of Yorktown in 1781 was an important battle in the American Revolution. It refers to the victory of the American forces made possible by a combined attack over the British army by the French forces led by Comte de Rochambeau and the American forces led by General George Washington. The assault on the British army forced Cornwallis to surrender and end the conflict.

Economy of France affected

The Treaty of Paris, signed in September 1783, ended the war between Britain and the United States of America. It was signed jointly by Great Britain, France, and Spain. The French forces had spent a lot of money in aid to America, and the national debt swelled to 3.315 billion. It also could not become the main trading partner with America, as it had hoped. This led to public unrest and a disbelief in monarchy, which some believe sowed the seeds for the French Revolution.

The Worldwide influence of American Revolution

The Revolution began in states without inherited rank or position, despite the unsuccessful efforts of the society of the Cincinnati to create such a division. After the Revolution genuinely democratic politics such as those of Matthew Lyon, became possible despite the opposition and dismay of the Federalist Party. The rights of the people were incorporated into state constitutions. Thus came the widespread assertion of liberty, individual rights, equality and hostility towards corruption which would prove the valves of republicanism to Americans. The greatest challenge to the old order in Europe was the challenge to inherited political power and the democratic idea that government rests on the consent of the governed. The examples of the first successful revolution against a European empire provided a model for many other colonial peoples who realized that they too could break away and become self-governing nations.

Morocco was the first country to recognize the independence of the United States of America from the kingdom of Great Britain in 1777. The two countries signed the Moroccan-American Treaty of friendship ten years later. Friesland one of the seven united provinces of Dutch republic, was the next to recognize American independence on February 26, 1782, followed by the Staten-Generaal of the Dutch republic on April 19, 1782. John Adams became the first US Ambassador in The Hague. The American Revolution was the first wave of the Atlantic Revolutions that took hold in the French Revolution, the Haitian Revolution, and the Latin American wars of liberation. Aftershocks reached Ireland in the 1789 rising, in the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth and in the Netherlands.

The Revolution had a strong, immediate impact in Great Britain, Ireland, the Netherlands, and France. Many British and Irish Whigs spoke in favor of the American cause. The Revolution along with the Dutch Revolt (end of the 16th century) and the English civil War (in the 17th century), was one of the first lessons in overthrowing an old regime for many Europeans who later were active during the era of the French Revolution, such as Marquis de Lafayette. The American Declaration of independence had some impact on the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the citizen of 1789.

The North American states new-found independence from the British Empire allowed slavery to continue in the United States until 1865, 32 years after it was banned in all British colonies. It also treated the Native Americans badly: they had been protected under British rule, but in the newly formed United States, their treaties were torn up, their rights were withdrawn and finally, their lands were taken.



CHAPTER - 3**AMERICAN CIVIL WAR****INTRODUCTION**

The American civil war (1861-1865), also known by several other names, was a civil war between the United States of America (the "Union") and the southern slave states of the newly formed confederation states of America under Jefferson Davis. The Union included all the free states and the five slave holding border states. The union was led by Abraham Lincoln and the Republican Party. The Republican Party opposed the expansion of slavery into territories owned by the United States, and their victory in the presidential election of 1860 resulted in seven southern states declaring their secession from the union even before Lincoln took office. The Union rejected secession and regarded it as rebellion. This conflict initiated the American civil war which threatened the unity and integrity of the United States of America.

The Civil war was the deadliest in American history and it caused 6,20,000 soldier deaths and an undetermined number of civilian casualties. The victory in the war ended slavery in the United States and restored the Union by settling the issues of nullification and secession and strengthened the role of the federal government. The social, political, economic and racial issues of the war continue to shape contemporary American thought.

The Issue of Slavery

A strong correlation was shown between the degree of support for secession and the number of plantations in the region; states of the Deep South which had the greatest concentration of plantations were the first to secede. The upper south slave states of Virginia, North Carolina, Arkansas and Tennessee had fewer plantations and rejected secession until the Fort Sumter crisis forced them to choose sides. Border States had fewer plantations still and never seceded. The percentage of southern whites living in families that owned slaves was 36.7 percent in the lower south, 25.3 percent in the upper south and 15.9 percent in the Border States that fought mostly for the Union. Ninety five percent of blacks lived in the south, comprising the one third of the population there as opposed to one percent of the population of the North. Consequently, fears of eventual emancipation were much greater in the south than in the North.

The Supreme Court decision of 1857 in *Dred Scott V. Sandford* added to the controversy. Chief Justice Roger B. Taney's decision said that slaves were "so far inferior that they had no rights which the white man was bound to respect", and that slavery could spread into the territories. Lincoln warned that "next Dred Scott decision" could threaten Northern states with slavery.

Northern politician Abraham Lincoln said, "this question of slavery was more important than any other; indeed so much more important has it become that no other national question can even get a hearing just at present." The slavery issue was related to sectional competition for control of the territories and the southern demand for a slave code for the territories was the issue used by southern politicians to split the Democratic Party in two, which all but guaranteed the election of Lincoln and secession. When secession was an issue, South Carolina planter and state senator John Pickens said that "our enemies are about to take possession of the Government that they intend to rule us according to the caprices of their fanatical theories and according to the declared purposes of abolishing slavery." Similar opinions were expressed throughout the south in editorials, political speeches and declarations of reasons for secession. Even though Lincoln had no plans to outlaw slavery where it existed, southerners throughout the south expressed fears for the future of slavery.

Southern concerns included not only economic loss but also fears of racial equality. The Texas Declaration of Causes for Secession said that the non-slave holding states were "proclaiming the debasing

doctrine of equality of all men, irrespective of race or color”, and that the African race “were rightfully held and regarded as an inferior and dependent race Alabama secessionist E. S. Dargan said that emancipation would make southerners feel “ demoralized and degraded Beginning in the 1830s, the U.S post master General refused to allow mail which carried abolition pamphlets to the south. Northern teachers suspected of any tinge of abolitionism were expelled from the south and abolitionist literature was banned southerners rejected the denials of Republicans that they were abolitionists. John Brown’s raid on the federal Harpers Ferry Armory greatly increased Southern fears of slave insurrections. The North felt threatened as well for as Eric Foner concludes,” Northerners came to view slavery as the very antithesis of the good society, as well as a threat to their own fundamental values and interests”

Southern Culture

Although only a small share of free southerners owned slaves, southerners of all classes often defended the institution of slavery-threatened by the rise of free labour abolitionist movements in the northern states –as the cornerstone of their social order. Based on a system of plantation slavery the social structure of the south was far more stratified and patriarchal than that of the North. In 1850 there were around 350,000 slave holders in a total free southern population of about six million. Among slave holders, the concentration of slave ownership was unevenly distributed. Perhaps around seven percent of slave holders owned roughly three-quarters of the slave population. The largest slave holders generally owners of large plantations represented the top stratum of southern society. They benefitted from economies of scale and needed large numbers of slaves on big plantation to produce profitable labour- intensive crops like cotton. This plantation –owning elite known as “slave magnates” was comparable to the millionaires of the following century.

In the 1850s, as large plantation owners out –competed smaller farmers, more slaves were owned by fewer planters. Yet while the proportions of the white population consisting of slave holders was on the decline on the eve of the civil war- perhaps falling below around a quarter of free southerners in 1860-poor whites small farmers generally accepted the political leadership of the planter elite.

Several factors helped explain why slavery was not under serious threat of internal collapse from any moves for democratic change initiated from the south. First given the opening of new territories in the west for white settlements, many non-slave owners also perceived a possibility that they too might own slaves at some point in their life.

Second small free farmers in the South often embraced hysterical racism making them unlikely agents for internal democratic reforms into the south. The principle of white supremacy, accepted by almost all white southerners of all classes made slavery seem legitimate natural and essential for a civilized society. White racism in the south was sustained by official systems of repression such as the “slave codes” For example the “slave patrols” were among the institutions bringing together southern whites of all classes in support of the prevailing economic and racial order. Serving as slave “patrollers” and overseers” offered white southerners positions of power and honour. These positions gave even poor white southerners the authority to stop search whip, maim and even kill any slave travelling outside also won prestige in their communities. Policing and punishing blacks who transgressed the regimentation of slave society was a valued community service in the south where the fear of free blacks threatening law and order figured heavily in the public discourse of the period.

Third many small farmers with a few slaves and yeomen were linked to elite planters through the market economy. In many areas , small farmers depended on local planter elites for access to cotton gins, for markets for their feed and live stock, and for loans furthermore whites of varying social castes including poor white and “plain folk” who worked outside or at least in the periphery of the market economy might be linked to elite planters through extensive kinship networks for example a poor white person might be the cousin of the richest aristocrat of his country and share the same militant support of slavery as his richer relatives.

Thus by the 1850s, southern slave holders and non-slaveholder alike felt increasingly encircled psychologically and politically in the national political arena because of the rise of free socialism and abolitionism

in the Northern states. Increasingly dependent on the North for manufacture goods for commercial services and for loans and increasingly cut off from the Nourishing agricultural regions of the North West they faced the prospects of a growing free labour and abolitionist movement in the North.

Militant defense of slavery

With the outcry over development in Kansas strong in the north, defenders of slavery-increasingly committed to a way of life that abolitionists and their sympathizers considered absolute or immoral –shifted to a militant pro-slavery ideology that would lay the groundwork for secession upon the emergence of Abraham Lincoln. Southerners waged a vitriolic response to political change in the North. Slaveholding interests sought to uphold their rights in the territories and to maintain sufficient political strength to repulse “hostile” and “ruinous” legislation. Behind this shift was the growth of the cotton industry which left slavery more important than ever to the southern economy.

Abolitionism

Antislavery movement in the North gained momentum in 1830s and 1840s a period of rapid transformation of Northern society that inspired a social and political reformism. Many of the reformers of the period including abolitionists attempted in one way or another to transform the lifestyle and work habits of labour helping workers respond to the new demands of an industrializing capitalistic society.

Antislavery movement like many other reform movements of the period was influenced by the legacy of the great second Great Awakening a period of religious revival in the new country stressing the reform of individuals. This was still relatively fresh in the American memory. Thus while the reform spirit of the period was expressed by a variety of movements with often-conflicting political goals most reform movements shared a common feature in their emphasis on the Great Awakening principle of transforming the human personality through discipline order and restraint.

“Abolitionist” had several meanings at that time. The followers of William Lloyd Garrison, including Wendell Phillips and Frederick Douglass, demanded the immediate abolition of slavery” hence the name. A more pragmatic group of abolitionists, like Theodore Weld and Arthur Tappan, wanted immediate action but that action might well be a programme of gradual emancipation with a long intermediate stage. “Antislavery men” like John Quincy Adams did what they could to limit slavery and end it where possible but were not part of any additional group. For example in 1841 Adams represented the Amistad African slaves in the supreme court of the United States and argued that they should be set free. In the last years before the war “antislavery” could mean the Northern majority like Abraham Lincoln who opposed expansion of slavery of its influence as by the Kansas Nebraska Act or the fugitive slave Act. Many southerners called all these abolitionists without distinguishing them from the Garrisonians. James McPherson explains the abolitionists’ deep beliefs. “All people were equal in God’s sight the souls of black folks were as valuable as those of whites; for one of God’s children to enslave another was a violation of the Higher Law, even if it was sanctioned by the constitution”.

Stressing the Yankee protestant ideals of self-improvement industry and thrift most abolitionists most notably William Lloyd Garrison –Condemned slavery as a lack of control over one’s own destiny and the fruits of one’s labour.

Abolitionists also attacked slavery as a threat to the freedom of white American. Defining freedom as more than a simple lack of restraint antebellum reformers held that the truly freed man was one who imposed restraints upon himself. Thus for the anti-slavery reformers of the 1830s and 1840 the promise of free labour and upward social mobility was central to the ideal of reforming individuals.

Controversy over the so-called Ostend manifesto which proposed U.S annexation of Cuba as a slave state and the Fugitive slave Act kept sectional tensions alive before the issue of slavery in the west could occupy the country’s politics in the mid –to- late 1850s.

The Origin of the American civil war

The main explanation for the origins of the American civil war was slavery especially the issue of the expansion of slavery into the territories states rights and the tariff issue became entangled in the slavery issue

and were intensified by it other important factors were party politics, expansionism sectionalism economics and modernization in the Antebellum period.

The United States was a nation divided into two distinct regions separated by the Mason-Dixon Line. New England the Northeast and the Midwest had a rapidly growing economy based on family farms, industry mining, commerce and transportation with a large and rapidly growing urban population and no Slavery outside the Border States. Its growth was fed by a high birth rate and large numbers of European immigrants especially Irish, British, German, Polish and Scandinavian.

The south was dominated by a settled plantation system based on slavery with rapid growth taking place in the southwest such a Texas, based on high birth rates and low immigration from Europe. There were few cities or towns, and little manufacturing except in border areas. Slave's owners controlled politics and economics. Two thirds of the southern whites owned no slave and usually were engaged in subsistence agriculture but supped slavery came from all segments of southern society.

Overall the Northern population was growing much more quickly than he southern population, which made it increasingly difficult for the south to continue o control the national government .Southerners were worried about the relative political decline of their region because the North was growing much faster in terms of population and industrial output.

In the interest of maintaining unity, politicians had mostly moderated oppositions to slavery, resulting in numerous compromises such as the Missouri compromise of 1820. After the Mexican, American War the issue of slavery in the new territories led to the compromise of 1850. While the compromise averted and immediate political crisis, it did not permanently resolve the issue of the slave power.

Amid the emergence of increasingly virulent and hostile sectional ideologies in national politics the collapse of the old second party system in the 1850s hampered efforts of the politicians to reach yet one more compromise.

The compromise that was reached (the Kansas-Nebraska Act) outraged too many northerners. In the 1850s, with the rise of the Republican Party, the first major party with no appeal in the south the industrializing north and agrarian Midwest became committed to the economic ethos of free –labour industrial capitalism.

In the 1860s the election of Abraham Lincoln, who won the national election without receiving a single electoral vote from any of the southern states, triggered the secession of the cotton states of the Deep South from the union and their formation of the confederated states of America.

The Missouri Compromise

The Admission of the new state of Missouri as a slave state would give the slave states control over the senate whenever a new state was added to the Union, there was always controversy over whether the state would be slave or free. Since every state has the same number of senators regardless of population the way to prevent conflict between slave and Free states was to allow each section to have the same number of states which would result in each side having the same number of senators. Since the admission f Missouri would upset this balance many national leaders shared Thomas Jefferson's fear of a war over slavery a fear that Jefferson described as "a fire bell in the night" The crisis was solved by the compromise of 1820 which admitted Maine to the Union as a free state at same time that Missouri was admitted as a slave state. The compromise also banned slavery in the Louisiana Purchase territory north and west of the state of Missouri, a compromise that preserved the peace until this ban on slavery was repealed by the Kansas Nebraska Act of 1854.

Antebellum south and the union

There had been a continuing contest between the states and the national government over the power of the latter and over the loyalty of the citizenry-almost since the founding of the republic. The Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions of 1798, for example had Hartford convention. New England voiced its opposition to President James Madison and the war of 1812 and discussed secession from the union.

The Courses of the War

The coexistence of a slave-owning south with an increasingly anti-slavery North made conflict inevitable. Lincoln did not propose federal laws against slavery where it already existed but he had in his 1858 house Divided speech, expressed a desire to “arrest the further spread of it, and place it where the public mind shall rest in the belief that it is in the course of ultimate extinction” Much of the political battle in the 1850s focused on the expansion of slavery into the newly created territories. All of the organized territories were likely to become free-soil states, which increased the southern movement toward secession. Both North and South assumed that if slavery could not expand it would wither and die. Southern feared of losing control of the federal government to antislavery forces and Northern fears that the slave power already controlled the government brought the crisis to a head in the late 1850s. Sectional disagreements over the morality of slavery the scope of democracy and the economic merits of free labour vs. Slave plantations caused the wing and “know Nothing” parties to collapse and new ones to arise.

Both North and South were influenced by the ideas of Thomas Jefferson. Southerners emphasized in connection with slavery the states’ rights ideas mentioned in Jefferson’s Kentucky Resolutions. Northerners ranging from the abolitionist William Lloyd Garrison to the moderate Republican leader Abraham Lincoln emphasized Jefferson’s declaration that all men are created equal. Lincoln mentioned this proposition in Gettysburg Address.

The 1854 Ostend Manifesto was a Southern attempt to take over Cuba as a slave state. Even rival plans for Northern vs. Southern routes for a transcontinental rail road became entangled in the Bleeding Kansas controversy over slavery. The second party system broke down after passage of the Kansas Nebraska Act, in 1854 which replaced the Missouri compromises ban on slavery with popular sovereignty. In 1856 congressional arguments over slavery become violent when Representative Preston Brooks of South Carolina attacked Radical Republican senator Charles Sumner with a cane after Sumner’s crime against Kansas speech. The Dred Scott Decision and Lecompton constitution of 1857 were southern attempts to admit Kansas to the union as a slave state. The Lincoln Douglas debates of 1858. John Brown’s raid in 1859 and the split in the Democratic Party in 1860 polarized the nation between North and South. The election of Lincoln in 1860 was the final trigger for secession. During the secession crisis, many sought compromise. Two of these attempts were the “Crittenden Amendment” and the “Crittenden Compromise” All attempts at compromise failed others factors include sectionalism (caused by the growth of slavery in the Deep South while slavery was gradually phased out in Northern states) and economic differences between North and south although most modern historians disagree with the extremes economic determinism of historian Charles Beard. There was the polarizing effect of slavery that split the largest religious denominations (the Methodist, Baptist and Presbyterian churches) and controversy caused by the worst cruelties of slavery (whippings, mutilation and families split apart.). The fact that seven immigrants out of eight settled in the North plus the fact that twice as many whites left the south for the north as vice versa, contributed to the south’s defensive aggressive political behavior.

Southern secession was triggered by the election of Republican Abraham Lincoln because regional leaders feared that he would stop the expansion of slavery and put it on course toward extinction. Many southerners thought either Lincoln or another Northerner would abolish slavery and that it was time to secede. The slave states which had already become a minority in the House of Representatives were now facing a future as a perpetual minority in the senate and Electoral College against an increasingly powerful North.

Beginning of the secession of South Carolina

South Carolina adopted the “Declaration of the immediate causes which induce and justify the secession of South Carolina from the Federal union on 24 December 1860. It argued for states’ rights for slave owners in the south but contained a complaint about states’ rights in the North in the form of opposition to the Fugitive slave Act, Claiming that Northern states were not fulfilling their federal obligations under the constitution.

At issue were:

- The refusal of Northern states to enforce the fugitive slave code violating southern personal property rights
- Agitation against slavery which “denied the right of property”
- Assisting “thousands of slaves to leave their homes” through the Underground Railroad
- The election of Lincoln “because he has declared that Government cannot endure permanently held that Government cannot endure permanently half slave half free’ and that the public must rest in the belief that slavery is in the course of ultimate extinction”
- “.....Elevating to citizenship persons who by the supreme law of the land, are in capable of becoming citizens” Most Northerners opposed the Dred Scott decision although only a few New England states allowed blacks an equal right to vote.

Secession winter

Before Lincoln took office, seven states had declared their secession from the union. They established a southern government the confederate states of America of 9 February 1861. They took control of federal forts and other properties within their boundaries with little resistance from outgoing President James Buchanan, whose term ended on 4 March 1861, Buchanan asserted, “The south has no right to secede but I have no power to prevent them” one quarter of the U.S army –the entire garrison in Texas –was surrendered to state forces by its commanding general, David E. Twiggs, who then joined the confederacy.

As Southerners resigned their seats in the senate and the House, secession later enabled Republicans to pass bills for projects that had been blocked by southern senators before the war, including the Morrill Tariff land grant colleges (the Morrill Act) a Homestead Act, a trans-continental railroad (the Pacific Railways acts) The National banking act and the authorization of United States notes by the Legal Tender act of 1862. The Revenue Act of 1861 introduced the income tax to help finance the war.

The Confederacy

Even Deep South cotton states seceded by February 1861. Starting with South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana and Texas. These seven states formed the confederate states of America (4 February 1861) with Jefferson Davis as president and a governmental structure closely modeled on the U.S constitution within two months of the first shots at Fort Sumter, four more slave states seceded and joined the confederacy Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina and Tennessee. The north-western portion of Virginia subsequently seceded from Virginia joining the Union as the new state of West Virginia on 20 June 1863.

The union states

Twenty-three states remained loyal to the Union: California Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont and Wisconsin. During the war, Nevada and West Virginia joined as new states of the union. Tennessee and Louisiana were returned to union control early in the war.

The territories of Colorado, Dakota, Nebraska, Nevada New Mexico, Utah and Washington fought to the union side. Several slave-holding Native American tribes supported the confederacy giving the Indian Territory (now Oklahoma) a small bloody civil war.

The Border States

The Border States in the Union were West Virginia (which was separated from Virginia and became a new state). And four of the five northernmost slave states (Maryland Delaware, Missouri and Kentucky) Maryland had numerous Pro- Confederate officials who tolerated anti-union rioting in Baltimore and the burning of bridges. Lincoln responded with martial law and called for troops. Militia units that had been drilling in the

North rushed toward Washington and Baltimore. Before the confederate government realized what was happening, Lincoln had seized firm control of Maryland (and the separate District of Columbia) by arresting all the Maryland government members and holding them without trial.

In Missouri, an elected convention on secession voted decisively to remain within the union. When pro-confederate Governor Claiborne F Jackson called out the state militia, it was attacked by federal forces under General Nathaniel Lyon who chased the governor and the rest of the state Guard to the south-western corner of the state. In the resulting vacuum, the convention on secession reconvened and took power as the unionist provisional government of Missouri.

Kentucky did not secede; for a time it declared itself neutral however the confederates broke the neutrality by seizing column bus, Kentucky in September 1861. That turned opinion against the confederacy and the state reaffirmed its loyal status while trying to maintain Slavery. During a brief invasion by confederate forces, Confederate Sympathizers organized a secession convention inaugurated a governor and gained recognition from the confederacy. The rebel government soon went into exile and never controlled the state.

After Virginia's 1861 declaration of secession from the U.S, Union Supporters in fifty counties of north-western Virginia voted on October 24, 1861 to approve the creation of the new state of West Virginia. The majority of the voters in what was to become West Virginia had voted against Virginia secession, although twenty six of the fifty counties had pro-secession majorities about half of West Virginia's soldiers were confederate this new state was admitted to the union on 20 June 1863.

Similar Unionist Secessions attempts appeared in East Tennessee, but were suppressed by the confederacy. Jefferson David arrested over 3000 men suspected of being loyal to the union and held them without trial.

Beginning of the War

Lincoln's victory in the presidential election of 1860 triggered South Carolina's declaration of secession from the union, By February 1861. Six more southern states made similar declarations. On February 7th the seven states adopted a provisional constitution for the confederate states of America and established their temporary capital at Montgomery, Alabama A pre-war February peace conference of 1861 met in Washington in a failed attempt at resolving the crisis. The remaining eight slave states rejected pleas to Join the Confederacy confederate forces seized most of the federal forts within their boundaries (they did not take fort Sumter); president Buchanan Protested but made no military response aside from a failed attempt to re-supply Fort Sumter via the ship star of the west (the ship was fired upon by citadel cadets) and no serious military weapons an training militia units.

On 4 March 1861, Abraham Lincoln was sworn in as president. In his inaugural address, he argued that the constitution was a more perfect union than the earlier Articles of confederation and perpetual union, that it was a binding contract and called any secession "legally void" He started he had no intent to invade southern states, nor did he intend to end slavery where it existed but that he would use force to maintain possession of Federal property .His speech closed with a plea for restoration of the bonds of union.

Fort Sumter in Charleston South Carolina fort more Fort Pickens and fort Taylor were the remaining Union held Forts in the confederacy, and Lincoln was determined to hold fort Sumter. Under orders from confederate President Jefferson Davis, troops controlled by the confederate government under P.G.T Beauregard Bombarded the fort with artillery on April 12, forcing the fort's capitulation Northerners rallied behind Lincoln's call for all of the states to send troops to recapture the forts and to preserve the Union with the scale of the rebellion apparently small so far Lincoln called for 75,000 volunteers for 90 days. For months before that, several Northern Governors had discreetly readied their state militia; they began to move forces the next day.

Four states in the Upper south (Tennessee, Arkansas North Carolina and Virginia) which had repeatedly rejected confederate overtures now refused to send Forces against their neighbors declared their secession and joined the confederacy. To reward Virginia, the confederate capital was moved to Richmond. The city was the symbol of the confederacy; if it fell the new nation would lose legitimacy. Richmond was in a highly vulnerable location at the end of a tortuous confederate supply line. Although Richmond was in heavily

fortified Supplies for the city would be reduced by Sherman's capture of Atlanta and cut off almost entirely when Grant besieged Petersburg and its railroads that supplied the southern capital.

End of the War 1864-65

The army of the Union had its Head quarters in the Potomac and Maj. Gen William Tecumseh Sherman was the in commander of the army. Grant understood the concept of total only the utter defeat of confederate forces and their economic base would bring an end to the war. This was total war not in terms of killing civilians but rather in terms of destroying homes farms and railroad tracks. Grant devised a coordinated strategy that would strike at the entire confederacy from multiple directions.

Union forces in the East attempted to maneuver past Lee and fought several battles during that phase ("Grant's overland campaign") of the Eastern campaign. Grant's battles of attrition at the wilderness Spotsylvania and Cold Harbor resulted in heavy Union losses, but forced Lee's confederates to fall back again and again. An attempt to out flank Lee from the South failed under Butler, who was trapped inside the Bermuda Hundred river bend. Grant was tenacious and despite astonishing losses (over 65,000 casualties in seven weeks) kept pressing Lee's army of Northern Virginia back to Richmond. He pinned down the confederate army in the siege of Petersburg where the two armies engaged in trench warfare for over nine months. Grant finally found a commander, General Phillip Sheridan, aggressive enough to prevail in the Valley Campaigns of 1864. Sheridan defeated Maj. Gen. Jubal A. Early in a series of battles, including a final decisive defeat at the Battle of Cedar Creek. Sheridan then proceeded to destroy the agricultural base of the Shenandoah Valley, a strategy similar to the tactics Sherman later employed in Georgia.

Meanwhile, Sherman marched from Chattanooga to Atlanta, defeating confederate Generals Joseph E. Johnston and John Bell Hood along the way. The fall of Atlanta on 2 September 1864 was a significant factor in the re-election of Lincoln as president. Hood left the Atlanta area to menace Sherman's supply lines and invade Tennessee in the Franklin-Nashville Campaign. Union Maj. Gen. John M. Schofield defeated Hood at the Battle of Franklin and George H. Thomas dealt Hood a massive defeat at the battle of Nashville, effectively destroying Hood's army.

Lee surrendered his Army of Northern Virginia on April 4, 1865 at Appomattox Court House. In an untraditional gesture and as a sign of Grant's respect and anticipation of folding the confederacy back into the Union with dignity and peace, Lee was permitted to keep his office sabre and his horse, Traveller. Johnston surrendered his troops to Sherman on 26 April 1865, in Durham, North Carolina. On 23 June 1865 at Fort Towson in the Choctaw Nations area of the Oklahoma Territory, Stand Watie signed a ceasefire agreement with Union representatives becoming the last confederate general in the field to stand down. The last confederate naval force to surrender was the CSS Shenandoah on 4 November 1865 in Liverpool, England.

Results

Northern leaders agreed that victory would require more than the end of fighting. It had to encompass the two war goals; secession had to be totally repudiated and all forms of slavery had to be eliminated. They disagreed sharply on the criteria for these goals. They also disagreed on the degree of federal control that should be imposed on the South, and the process by which Southern states should be reintegrated into the Union.

All the slaves in the confederacy were freed by the Emancipation Proclamation which stipulated that slaves in Confederate-held areas but not in Border States or in Washington, D.C. were free. Slaves in the Border States and Union-controlled parts of the South were freed by state action or by the Thirteenth Amendment although slavery effectively ended in the U.S. in the spring of 1865. The full restoration of the Union was the work of a highly contentious post-war era known as Reconstruction.

Reconstruction, which began early in the war and ended in 1877, involved a complex and rapidly changing series of federal and state policies. The long-term result came in the three 'Civil War' amendments to the Constitution: the Thirteenth Amendment which abolished slavery, the Fourteenth Amendment which extended federal legal protections equally to citizens regardless of race, and the Fifteenth Amendment which abolished racial restrictions on voting.



CHAPTER - 4**FRENCH REVOLUTION**

“The French Revolution was equally a struggle of weapons as well as of ideas. Freedom, equality and Fraternity are the eternal contributions of this Revolution and Napoleon can be called its product.”

The French Revolution is not merely an event of history; it is a living legend. It was a unique battle which was fought many times, for example, in 1830, 1848 and 1870. Perhaps no other topic has been discussed in history as the French Revolution. Neither so much sympathy nor so much resentment has ever been expressed for any other event of the world. Among the revolutions of modern age, the French Revolution has left immense influence on history and the world.

The French Revolution was brewing while the War of American Independence was being fought. Conditions in France were vastly different from those in the New World, but many of the same revolutionary ideas were at work. The French Revolution, however, was more world-shaking than the American. It became a widespread upheaval over which no one could remain neutral.

The French Revolution created such a condition that the old political system crumbled. The period from 1789 to 1815 has been summed up in four words—revolution, war, tyranny and empire. The material despotism generated Napoleon’s caesarean ambitions which culminated in the establishment of a vast empire. Generally, the beginning of the revolution is considered in 1789. Various events which occurred between 1787 and 1799 as a result of many causes accounted for the beginning and extension of the revolution. The causes of the revolution existed in the same system (ancient regime).

Political Set-up

Ancient Regime (Old Order): In order to understand the factors that were responsible for the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789, it is important to examine the conditions and institutions that existed in France prior to the Revolution. These conditions and institutions were collectively known as the Ancient Regime. Ancient Regime means Old Rule or Old Order in French language. In English the term refers primarily to the political and social system that was established in France under the Valois and Bourbon dynasties. More generally it means any regime which includes the defining features such as: a feudal system under the control of a powerful absolute monarchy supported by the doctrine of the Divine Right of Kings and the explicit consent of the established Church. This was how Europe had been organized since at least the eighth century. The term Ancient Regime is from The Age of Enlightenment (first appeared in print in English in 1794). Similar to other sweeping criticisms of the past, such as the term Dark Ages, the concept of Ancient Regime was used as an expression of disapproval for the way things were done, and carried an implied approval of a New Order. No one alive during the Ancient regime considered himself as living under an Old Order. The term was created by Enlightenment era authors to promote a new cause and discredit the existing order. As defined by the creators of the term, the Ancient Regime developed out of the French monarchy of the Middle Ages, and was swept away centuries later by the French Revolution of 1789. Europe’s other Ancient Regimes had similar origins, but diverse ends; some gradually became constitutional monarchies, others were turn down by wars and revolutions. Power in the Ancient Regime relied on three pillars: the monarchy, the clergy and the aristocracy. Society was divided into three classes known as estates: the clergy, the nobility and the commoners.

Royal Absolutism

The politico-social system which existed in France throughout the rule of the Valois and Bourbon dynasties was half way between feudalism and modernity. France was ruled by a powerful absolute monarch who

relied on the doctrine of the Divine Right of Kings. The absolute monarchy had the explicit support of the established Church. This period in the history of France is often said to have begun with the French renaissance during the reign of Francis I (1515-1547), and to have reached its peak under Louis XIV (1643-1715). As the Italian Renaissance began to fade, France became the cultural capital of Europe. Eventually, however, financial difficulties and excesses of the rulers led to the decline and eventual collapse of the monarchy by the end of the eighteenth century. The system of Ancient Regime culminated in the monarch, the lofty and glittering head of the state. The king claimed to rule by the will of God and not by the consent of the people (Theory of the Divine Right of Kings). Thus, the kings claimed to be responsible to no one but God. The French Kings ruled in an absolute manner. They exercised unlimited powers. They were the chief legislators, executive and dispensers of justice. They imposed taxes and spent they wished. They denied certain basic rights to their subjects. Heavy censorship denied freedom of speech and press. Arbitrary arrest, imprisonment, exile or even execution was the hallmarks of the royal absolutism in France.

Nature of the Bourbon Rulers

The Bourbon dynasty ruled France for about two centuries from 1589 to 1792. France attained the height of glory under Louis XIV. He was known as the 'Grand Monarch' and 'Sun King'. He believed in the divine sanction of absolutism. He used to say "I am the State". Further he claimed: "The sovereign authority is vested in my person, the legislative powers exist in myself alone...My people are one only with me; national rights and national interests are necessarily combined with my own and only rest in my hands. In order to manifest his power and glory, Louis XIV led the nation in dangerous and expensive wars against his neighbors and undertook construction of magnificent buildings to beautify the capital city of Paris. Thus, his expensive wars and lavish style of living weakened France financially as well as politically. More than any other construction of the age, the Palace of Versailles, built by Louis XIV embodied the spirit of absolute monarchy. The magnificent halls, ornate rooms and beautiful gardens surrounding the royal residence added to the grandeur of the Versailles Palace. The aristocracy of France assembled day and night to do homage to the great ruler of France. The court of Versailles which dazzled Europe was comprised of 18,000 people. Out of these 16,000 were attached to the personal service of the king and his family and 2,000 were the courtiers, the favored guests and nobles. Yet, Versailles which symbolized the glory of the Ancient Regime was also the mark of its decline. Its cost to the French nation was too much. Besides, it created a barrier between monarchy and its subjects. Louis XIV, the Grand Monarch left a legacy of financial bankruptcy for his successors. Louis XV (1715-1774) succeeded his great grandfather at the age of five. The first part of the long reign of 59 years falls into the period of Regency (1715-1723) during which period his great uncle, the Duke of Orleans ruled in his name. The confusion and disorder of the Regency was followed by almost two decades of orderly rule and material prosperity under the leadership of the aged Cardinal Fleury (1723-1743). From 1743 until his death in 1774, Louis XV tried to exercise direct control over the government which ultimately led to the instability of the monarchy. Louis XV displayed an apathy and indifference to the affairs of the state. He was concerned primarily with the pursuit of pleasure and all his life he sought to escape from boredom. Thus, he tried to seek happiness in mad and vicious rounds of pleasure, in hunting, in gambling, in lust, in moving his court from one palace to another, in gratifying the whims and fancies of his numerous mistresses and favorites. For more than thirty years Louis XV continued through his shameful policies the worst features of the Ancient Regime. He also followed a disastrous foreign policy that culminated in the humiliation of the Seven years War (1756-63). His government became increasingly inefficient which was controlled by his mistresses. His enormous court incurred heavy expenditure on the state treasury. All these developments opened the gates of the deluge that swept over France. Louis XV escaped the disaster. However, he could not prevent the progress of new political and social philosophy that repudiated the theory and practice of the irresponsible and arbitrary royal absolutism. The Austrian ambassador at Paris, Comte de Mercy writing to Empress Marie Theresa outlined the conditions in France at the end of Louis XV's reign in these words: "At court, there is nothing but confusion, scandals and injustice. No attempt has been made to carry out good principles of government; everything has been left to chance; the shameful state of the nation's affairs has caused unspeakable disgust and discouragement, while intrigues of those who remain on

the scene only increase the disorder. Sacred duties have been left undone and infamous behavior tolerated. The reign of Louis XV ended in 1774 with his death. To his successor he left a heritage of military defeat, financial bankruptcy, parliamentary opposition and intellectual resistance to the existing political and social regime. According to Dr. G.P. Gooch, "The legacy of Louis XV to his countrymen was an ill-governed, discontented, frustrated France. Viewed from a distance, the Ancient Regime appeared as solid as the Bastille, but its walls were crumbling for lack of repairs and the foundations showed signs of giving way. The absolute monarchy, the privileged nobles, the intolerant church, the close corporation parliaments, had all become unpopular, and the army once the glory of France, was tarnished by the rout at Rossbach. Though there was little thought of republicanism, the mystique of monarchy had almost evaporated. In 1774, following the death of Louis XV, his grandson, Louis XVI (1774-93) became the king of France at the age of twenty. The new king was an honest and energetic young man who tried to attend to the state affairs. But he tried to avoid difficulties and lacked the capacity to enforce his own judgment. His irresolution made him a blind follower of his advisors, particularly his Queen Marie Antoinette. She was the daughter of Marie Theresa, Empress of Austro-Hungarian Empire. Marie Antoinette was beautiful, gracious and vivacious. She had a strong will, a power of quick decision and a spirit of initiative. However, she lacked in wisdom and breadth of judgment. She did not understand the temperament of the French people and the spirit of the times. Being born in a royal family she could not understand the point of view of the underprivileged. She was extravagant, proud, willful, impatient and fond of pleasure. She was the centre of a group of greedy persons, who were opposed to all reforms. She excelled in intrigues and was responsible for the many sufferings that befell both the ruler and the ruled during the closing years of the eighteenth century.

Inefficient and Corrupt Administrative System

Under Louis XV and Louis XVI, the French administrative system became thoroughly inefficient and corrupt. The king was the head of the state and the head of the administrative structure. He had the authority to appoint ministers and other administrative officials. Ministers were appointed on the basis of their noble birth or favoritism and not because of ability or merit. This led inefficiency and corruption in the administration. Various departments of the administration had ill-defined and overlapping jurisdictions. At different times France had been divided into districts under bailiffs, into provinces under governors, into intendancies under intendants. Besides, there were judicial, educational and ecclesiastic districts. The conflict of jurisdiction added to the difficulties and problems of the people. Prior to the Revolution of 1789, France was divided into 34 Intendancies. These Intendancies were placed under Intendants. They were selected at first from the ranks of the bourgeois. They were made an integral part of the machinery of the local government. These Intendants possessed great authority. They had the right to administer justice in all Royal Courts. They verified accounts of their subordinate financial administrators. They also attended to the assessment and levy of direct taxes. They controlled movement of the army, organized regular recruitment for the army and directed the Municipal police. The Intendants received their authority directly from the Councils. Legally, the Councils and the Ministers had only an advisory capacity. They were responsible only to the King. There was neither a representative assembly nor a written constitution to limit the authority of the administrators. Conflict of jurisdiction and rivalries among the administrators, the absence of an executive head in their own midst to formulate long-term policies and projects, overlapping non-differentiated departments and tradition of graft and irresponsible, high-handed procedures taxed the patience of even the most conscious and determined servant of the state. According to the absolutist theory, all justice in France came from the Monarch, whose officials administered it in his name in the many Royal Courts of Justice, which were established throughout the country. However, the legal system in France was full of confusion. There was no uniform law for the whole country. Different laws were in force in different part of the country. It was estimated that there were as many as 400 different systems of law in the country. The laws were written in Latin, and thus, they were beyond the comprehension of the common people. The laws were cruel and unjust. Severe punishments were prescribed for ordinary offences. There was no regular criminal procedure. Arbitrary arrest and imprisonment were common. Any influential person could get a letter of cachet issued against the person whom he wanted to punish and the person concerned could be detained in prison for an

indefinite period without any trial. There were royal courts, military courts, church courts and courts of finance. Their overlapping jurisdiction added to the confusion and injustice. Thus, the common people in France suffered due to lack of uniform laws and arbitrary administration of justice. There was no guarantee of personal liberty. The French Kings ruled France without summoning the legislature known as the Estates General since 1614. Louis XIV even abolished the parliament of Paris. The French parliaments were high courts of great antiquity. They had the power to review the judgments given in the inferior courts. Towards the end of the eighteenth century, there were thirteen such parliaments in France. Each parliament consisted of rich magistrates whose office had become hereditary in course of time. Parliaments claimed and exercised certain political powers. They had the right of registering royal edicts and ordinances. They could defer the registration and thereby bring pressure on the King. In 1771, Louis XV abolished these parliaments. But they were revived by Louis XVI in 1774.

Social Condition in the 18th Century France

The social conditions in France on the eve of the French Revolution of 1789 were antiquated, irrational and oppressive. The French society was based upon the principle of inequality. The French society comprising of around 25 million people was divided into three classes also known as the estates. The clergy constituted the first estate, the nobility, the second estate and the commoners, the third estate.

- To understand how and why the French Revolution occurred, we have to understand French society of that time. We have to realize also that conditions in France were no worse than the conditions that existed in other parts of Europe.
- Autocratic, extravagant rulers, privileged nobles and clergy, landless peasants, jobless workers, unequal taxation—the list of hardships endured by the common people is a very long one.
- France was a strong and powerful state in the 18th century. She had seized vast territories in North America, islands in the West Indies. However, despite its outward strength, the French monarchy was facing a crisis which was to lead to its destruction.

First and Second Estate

French society was divided into classes, or estates. There were two privileged classes

Privileged class	Also known as	Population
Clergy	First estate	1.3 lakh clerics
Nobility	Second estate	80 thousand families

- People in these two classes were **exempted from almost all taxes!**
- They controlled most of the administrative posts and all the high-ranking posts in the army.
- In a population of 25,000,000 people, these two classes together owned about 40 per cent of the total land of France. Their incomes came primarily from their, large land-holdings.
- A minority of these also depended on pensions and gifts from the king. They considered it beneath their dignity to trade or to be engaged in manufacture or to do any work.
- The life of the nobility was everywhere characterized by extravagance and luxury. There were, of course, poorer sections in these two top estates. They were discontented and blamed the richer members of their class for their misery.

Third Estate

The rest of the people of France were called the Third Estate. They were the common people and numbered about 95 per cent of the total population. People of the Third Estate were the unprivileged people. However, there were many differences in their wealth and style of living.

The Peasant

- The largest section of 'the Third Estate consisted of the peasants, almost 80 per cent of the total population of France. The lives of this vast class were wretched. Most of the peasants were free, unlike the serfs in the Middle Ages, and unlike the serfs in eastern Europe in the 18th century. Many owned their own lands. But a great majority of the French peasants were landless or had very small holdings.
- They could earn hardly enough for subsistence. The plight of the tenants and share-croppers was worse. After rents, the peasant's share was reduced to one-third or one-fourth of what he produced. The people who worked on land for wages lived on even less.
- Certain changes in agriculture in the 18th century France further worsened the condition of the peasant. He could no longer take wood from the forests or graze his flocks on uncultivated land. The burden of taxation was intolerable. Besides taxes, there was also '*forced labour*' which had been a feudal privilege of the lord and which was more and more resorted to for public works. There were taxes for local roads and bridges, the church, and other needs of the community. A bad harvest under these conditions inevitably led to starvation and unrest.

The Middle Class

- Not all the people belonging to the Third Estate worked on the land. There were the artisans, workers and poor people living in towns and cities. Then there was the middle class or the bourgeoisie.
- This class consisted of the educated people— writers, doctors, judges, lawyers, teachers, civil servants— and the richer people who were merchants, bankers, and manufacturers.
- Economically, this class was the most important one. It was the forerunner of the builders of the industries which were to transform economic and social life in the 19th century.
- The merchant-business groups, though new in history, had grown very important and rich, helped by the trade with French colonies in America.
- Since these people had money, the state, the clergy and the nobility were indebted to them. However, the middle class had no political rights. It had no social status, and its members had to suffer many humiliations.

The Artisans and City Workers

- The condition of the city poor—workers and artisans—were inhuman in the 18th-century France. They were looked upon as inferior creatures without any rights.
- No worker could leave his job for another without the employer's consent and a certificate of good conduct.
- Workers not having a certificate could be arrested. They had to toil for long hours from early morning till late at night.
- They, too, paid heavy taxes. The oppressed workers formed many secret societies and often resorted to strikes and rebellion.
- This group was to become the mainstay of the French Revolution, and the city of Paris with a population of more than 500,000 was to play an important part in it. In this number was an army of rebels, waiting for an opportunity to strike at the old order.

The Monarchy

- At the head of the French state stood the king, an absolute monarch. Louis XVI was the king of France when the revolution broke out.

- He was a man of mediocre intelligence, obstinate and indifferent to the work of the government. Brain work, it is said, depressed him.
- His beautiful but 'empty-headed' wife, **Marie Antoinette**, squandered money on festivities and interfered in state appointments in order to promote her favorites. Louis, too, showered favors and pensions upon his friends.
- The state was always faced by financial troubles as one would expect. Keeping huge armies and waging wars made matters worse. Finally, it brought the state to bankruptcy.

The Intellectual Movement

Discontent or even wretchedness is not enough to make a successful revolution. Someone must help the discontented to focus on an 'enemy' and provide ideals to fight for. In other words, revolutionary thinking and ideas must precede revolutionary action. France in the 18th century had many revolutionary thinkers. Without the ideas spread by these philosophers, the French Revolution would simply have been an outbreak of violence.

Rationalism: the Age of Reason

- Because of the ideas expressed by the French intellectuals, the 18th century has been called the Age of Reason. Christianity had taught that man was born to suffer.
- The French revolutionary philosophers asserted that man was born to be happy. They believed that man can attain happiness if reason is allowed to destroy prejudice and reform man's institutions.
- They either denied the existence of God or ignored Him. In place of God they asserted the doctrine of 'Nature' and the need to understand its laws.
- They urged faith in reason. The power of reason alone, they said, was sufficient to build a perfect society.

Attack on the Clergy

- The clergy were the first to feel the brunt of the French philosophers. A long series of scientific advances dating from the Renaissance helped in their campaign against the clergy.
- **Voltaire**, one of the most famous French writers of the time, though not an atheist, believed all religions absurd and contrary to reason.
- After Voltaire, other philosophers, atheists and materialists, gained popularity. They believed that man's destiny lay in this world rather than in heaven.
- Writings attacking religion fed the fires of revolution because the Church gave support to autocratic monarchy and the old order.

Physiocrats and laissez Fair

- The French economists of the time were called 'physiocrats'. They believed in "Laissez faire".
- According to this theory, a person must be left free to manage and dispose of his property in the way he thinks best. Like the English and American revolutionaries before them, the physiocrats said that taxes should be imposed only with the consent of those on whom they were levied. These ideas were a direct denial of the privileges and feudal rights that protected the upper classes.

Democracy: Jean Jacques Rousseau

- The philosopher-writer, **Montesquieu**, thought about the kind of government that is best suited to man and outlined the principles of constitutional monarchy.

- However, it was **Jean Jacques Rousseau** who asserted the doctrine of popular sovereignty and democracy. He said, '*Man is born free, yet everywhere he is in chains.*' He talked of the 'state of nature' when man was free, and said that *freedom was lost following the emergence of property*.
- He recognized property in modern societies as a 'necessary evil'.
- What was needed, said Rousseau, was a new '**social contract**' to guarantee the freedom, equality and happiness which man had enjoyed in the state of nature.
- Rousseau's theories also contained a principle that had been written into the American Declaration of Independence: no political system can maintain itself without the **consent of the governed**.

Outbreak of the Revolution

- In 1789, Louis XVI's need for money compelled him to agree to a meeting of the States General—the old feudal assembly. Louis wanted to obtain its consent for new loans and taxes. All three Estates were represented in it but each one held a separate meeting.
- On 17 June 1789, members of the Third Estate, claiming to represent 96 per cent of the nation's population, declared themselves the National Assembly.
- On 20 June, they found their meeting-hall occupied by royal guards but, determined to meet, they moved to the nearby royal tennis court to work out a constitution.
- Louis then made preparations to break up the Assembly. Troops were called: rumors spread that leading members of the Assembly would soon be arrested. This enraged the people, who began to gather in their thousands.
- They were soon joined by the guards. They surrounded the **Bastille**, a state prison,
- On 14 July. After a four-hour siege, they broke open the doors, freeing all the prisoners. The **fall of the Bastille** symbolized the fall of autocracy. July 14 is celebrated every year as a national holiday in France.

After fall of Bastille

- After 14 July 1789, Louis XVI was king only in name. The National Assembly began to enact laws.
- Following the fall of the Bastille, the revolt spread to other towns and cities and finally into the countryside. The National Assembly adopted the famous Declaration of the **Rights of Man and Citizen**. It specified the equality of all men before the law, eligibility of all citizens for all public offices, freedom from arrest or punishment without proven cause, freedom of speech and freedom of the press.
- Most important of all, to the middle class, it required equitable distribution of the burdens of taxation and rights of private property.
- The revolutionary importance of this declaration for Europe cannot be overestimated. Every government in Europe was based on privilege. If these ideas were applied, the entire old order of Europe would be destroyed.

War and End of Monopoly

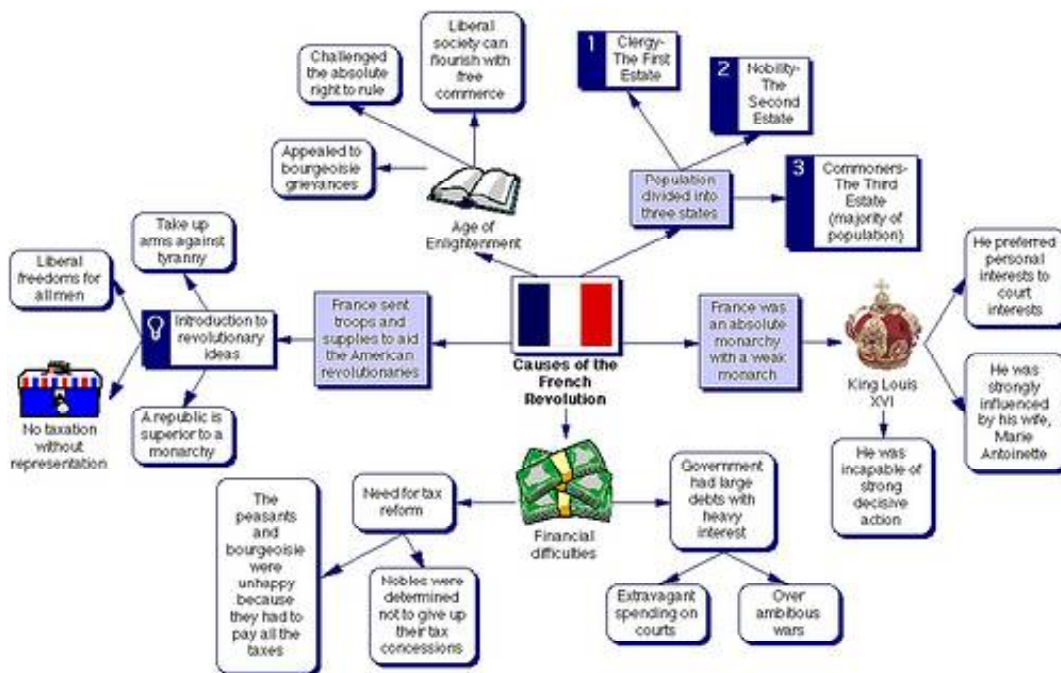
- The people of France were soon involved in a war to defend the Revolution and the nation. Many nobles and clerics fled the country and encouraged foreign governments to intervene in

France against the Revolution. The king and queen tried to escape from France in disguise but they were recognized and brought back as captives and traitors.

- The old National Assembly was replaced by a Legislative Assembly. This Assembly took over the property of those people who had fled. It sent word to the Austrian emperor, who was mobilizing support against France to renounce every treaty directed against the French nation. When the emperor refused, the Legislative Assembly declared war.
- Soon France was fighting Austria, Prussia, and Savoy in Italy. The three were supported by an army of the French exiles.
- France had destroyed feudalism and monarchy and founded new institutions based on liberty and equality, whereas in these countries the old way of life remained. The commander-in-chief of the Austro-Prussian forces stated that the aim was to suppress anarchy in France and to restore the king's authority. The French revolutionaries replied by offering 'fraternity and assistance' to all people wishing to destroy the old order in their countries.
- The king and queen were tried and executed in 1793. This was followed by a declaration of war against Britain, Holland, Spain and Hungary.
- Then, a radical group, the **Jacobins**, believing in direct democracy, came to power. Fearing that the Revolution was in danger, this group took to strong measures to crush forces inimical to the Revolution. In 14 months, some 17,000 people, including those who were innocent, were tried and executed. Some people have called it the "**Reign of Terror**". Later, a new constitution was drawn up. But the army became increasingly powerful and this led to the rise of Napoleon, who was soon to declare himself Emperor of the French Republic.

Napoleonic Wars

- From 1792 to 1815, France was engaged in war almost continuously. It was a war between France and other states. Some historians have termed it as an international civil war because it was fought between revolutionary France and countries upholding the old order. In this war, France was alone.
- However, until Napoleon became emperor, almost every enlightened person in the world sympathized with the French Revolution.
- Between 1793 and 1796 French armies conquered almost all of Western Europe. When Napoleon pressed on to Malta, Egypt and Syria (1797-99), the French were ousted from Italy.
- After Napoleon seized power, France recovered the territories she had lost and defeated Austria in 1805, Prussia in 1806, and Russia in 1807. On the sea the French could not score against the stronger British navy.
- Finally, an alliance of almost all Europe defeated France at Leipzig in 1813. These allied forces later occupied Paris, and Napoleon was defeated. His attempt at recovery was foiled at the **battle of Waterloo** in June 1815. The peace settlement, which involved all Europe, took place at the Congress of Vienna.
- After the defeat of Napoleon, the old ruling dynasty of France was restored to power.
- However, within a few years, in 1830, there was another outbreak of revolution.
- In 1848, the monarchy was again overthrown though it soon reappeared.
- Finally, in 1871, the Republic was again proclaimed.



Mindmap of French Revolution

Consequences of the Revolution

1. A major result of the Revolution was the **destruction of feudalism** in France. All the laws of the old feudal regime were annulled. Church lands and lands held in common by the community were bought by the middle classes. The lands of nobles were confiscated. Privileged classes were abolished.
2. After Napoleon seized power. The **Napoleonic Code** was introduced. Many elements of this Code remained in force for a long time; some of them exist even to this day.
3. Another lasting result of the Revolution in France was the building up of a new economic system in place of the feudal system which had been overthrown. This system was **capitalism**. Even the restored monarchy could not bring back the feudal system or destroy the new economic institutions that had come into being.
4. The French Revolution **gave the term 'nation'** its modern meaning. A nation is not the territory that the people belonging to it inhabit but the people themselves. France was not merely the territories known as France but the 'French people'.
5. From this followed the **idea of sovereignty**, that a nation recognizes no law or authority above its own. And if a nation is sovereign, that means the people constituting the nation are the source of all power and authority. There cannot be any rulers above the people, only a republic in which the government derives its authority from the people and is answerable to the people. It is interesting to remember that when Napoleon became emperor he called himself the '*Emperor of the French Republic*'. Such was the strength of the idea of people's sovereignty.
6. It was this idea of the people being the sovereign that gave France her **military strength**. The entire nation was united behind the army which consisted of revolutionary citizens. In a war in which almost all of Europe was ranged against France, she would have had no chance with just a mercenary army.

7. Under the **Jacobin constitution**, all people were given the **right to vote** and the right of insurrection. The constitution stated that the government must provide the people with work or livelihood. The happiness of all was proclaimed as the aim of government. Though it was never really put into effect, it was the first genuinely democratic constitution in history.
8. The government **abolished slavery** in the French colonies.
9. Napoleon's rise to power was a step backward. However, though he destroyed the Republic and established an empire, the idea of the republic could not be destroyed.
10. The Revolution had come about with the support and blood of common people— the city poor and the peasants. In 1792, for the first time in history, workers, peasants and other non-propertied classes were given **equal political rights**.
11. Although the right to vote and elect representatives did not solve the problems of the common people. The peasants got their lands. But to the workers and artisans— the people who were the backbone of the revolutionary movement—the Revolution did not bring real equality. To them, real equality could come only with economic equality.
12. France soon became one of the first countries where the ideas of social equality, of socialism, gave rise to a new kind of political movement.

Impact of French Revolution on the World

- The French Revolution had been a world-shaking event. For years to come its direct influence was felt in many parts of the world. It inspired revolutionary movements in almost every country of Europe and in South and Central America.
- For a long time the French Revolution became the classic example of a revolution which people of many nations tried to emulate.
- The impact of the French Revolution can be summed up, in the words of T. Kolokotronis, one of the revolutionary fighters in the Greek war of independence: *"According to my judgment, the French Revolution and the doings of Napoleon opened the eyes of the world. The nations knew nothing before, and the people thought that kings were gods upon the earth and that they were bound to say that whatever they did was well done. Through this present change it is more difficult to rule the people."*
- Even though the old ruling dynasty of France had been restored to power in 1815, and the autocratic governments of Europe found themselves safe for the time being, the rulers found it increasingly difficult to rule the people.
- Some of the changes that took place in many parts of Europe and the Americas in the early 19th century were the immediate, direct consequences of the Revolution and the Napoleonic wars.
- The wars in which France was engaged with other European powers had resulted in the French occupation of vast areas of Europe for some time.
- The French soldiers, wherever they went, carried with them ideas of liberty and equality shaking the old feudal order. They destroyed serfdom in areas which came under their occupation and modernized the systems of administration.
- Under Napoleon, the French had become conquerors instead of liberators. The countries which organized popular resistance against the French occupation carried out reforms in their social and political system. The leading powers of Europe did not succeed in restoring the old order either in France or in the countries that the Revolution had reached.
- The political and social systems of the 18th century had received a heavy blow. They were soon to die in most of Europe under the impact of the revolutionary movements that sprang up everywhere in Europe.

Revolution in Central and South America

- The impact of the Revolution was felt on the far away American continent. Revolutionary France had abolished **slavery** in her colonies. The former French colony of **Haiti** became a republic. This was the first republic established by the black people, formerly slaves, in the Americas.
- Inspired by this example, revolutionary movements arose in the Americas to overthrow foreign rule, to abolish slavery and to establish independent republics.
- The chief European imperialist powers in Central and South America were Spain and Portugal. Spain had been occupied by France, and Portugal was involved in a conflict with France.
- During the early 19th century, these two imperialist countries were cut off from their colonies, with the result that most of the Portuguese and Spanish colonies in Central and South America became independent.
- The movements for independence in these countries had earlier been inspired by the successful War of American Independence. The French Revolution ensured their success.
- By the third decade of the 19th century, almost entire **Central and South America had been liberated** from the Spanish and the Portuguese rule and a number of independent republics were established. In these republics slavery was abolished.
- It, however, persisted in the United States for a few more decades where it was finally abolished following the Civil War about which you have read before in this chapter. *Simon Bolivar, Bernardo O'Higgins and San Martin* was the great leaders in South America at this time.



CHAPTER - 5**THE INDUSTRIAL EVOLUTION****THE BEGINNING OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION****Introduction**

The Industrial Revolution refers to the changes in Social and economic organization resulting from the replacement of hand tools by machine and power tools and the development of large-scale industrial production. This term was applied to the development in England from about 1760 and to later changes in other countries.

Starting in the later part of the 18th Century there began a transition in parts of Great Britain's previously manual, labour and draft-animal – based economy towards machine based manufacturing. It started with the mechanization of the textile industries, the development of iron-making techniques and the increased use of refined coal. During the period from The 1760s to the 1820s, Britain experienced an accelerated process of economic change that transformed the agrarian economy into the world's first industrial economy. Since the changes were all embracing and permanent this phenomenon is known as the “industrial revolution”.

The Industrial Revolution began in the United Kingdom initially, Then subsequently spread throughout Europe, North America, and eventually the world. The onset of The Industrial Revolution marked a major turning point in human history; almost every aspect of daily life was eventually influenced in some way. It has been argued by historians Such as Christopher Hill, Eric Hobsbawm and E.P Thompson that the foundations of this process of change can be traced back to the puritan Revolution in the Seventeenth Century.

Industrial Revolution begin in Britain

The issue of the beginning of Industrial Revolution in Britain has remained a topic for debate among the scholars. Some historians believe that The Revolution was an outgrowth of Social and Institutional changes brought by the end of feudalism in Britain after The English Civil war in the 17th Century. As national border controls became more effective, the spread of disease was lessened, Thereby preventing the epidemics common in previous times. The percentage of children who lived post infancy rose significantly, leading to a large workforce.

Typical character of British Society

Great Britain had a larger educated workforce to run the machines and operate manuals. The Enlightenment not only resulted in a larger educated population but also more modern views on work. The population in Great Britain was ready to move out of the country and to the city to work. Britain also had the large middle class and flexible mercantile class necessary for rapid industrial development. English Society, unlike many others, was not opposed to “new money” and as such was eager to accept the new wealthy class and their new ideas.

Social and Political Stability

Britain not only enjoyed complete freedom of trade but also an insular position which saved her from the disastrous consequences of war which ravaged the countries of Europe. This social stability prevailing in England encouraged the people to sectors where they could hope to receive high dividend in future. This in turn led to the adoption of new techniques and promotion of new industries.

Emergence of Machines

Until The 1980s, it was universally believed by academic historians that technological innovation was the heart of the industrial Revolution and the key enabling technology was the invention and improvement of the

steam engine. However, recent research into the marketing Era has challenged the traditional supply –oriented interpretation of the industrial revolution in reality the machines were a secondary cause only because turning out cheap goods in large quantities is useless unless there is a market which must come first than the inventions follow.

A long run of good harvests, starting in the first half of the eighteenth century, resulted in an increase in disposable income and a consequent rising demand for manufactured goods, particularly textiles, The invention of the flying shuttle by John key enabled wider cloth to be woven faster, but also created a demand for yarn that could not be fulfilled- Thus, The major technological advances associated with The industrial revolution were concerned with spinning James Hargreaves Created The spinning Jenny, a device That could perform The work of a number of spinning wheels. However while this invention could be operated by hand, the water frame, invented by Richard Arkwright, could by powered by a water wheel. Indeed, Arkwright is credited with the widespread introduction of the factory system in Britain and is the first example of the successful mill owner and industrialist in British history. The water frame was, however, soon supplanted by the spinning mule (a cross between a water frame on a jenny) invented by Samuel Crompton.

Role of Liberal and Progressive British Polity

Britain's government, a long-time Constitutional monarchy, was just right for the situation. The government was flexible enough to Support. The new system and to a Certain degree accepted Adam smith's Capitalistic "invisible hand" Government grant of limited monopolies to inventors under a developing patent system (The statute of Monopolies 1623) is Considered an influential factor, The effects of patents both good and bad, on The development of industrialization are clearly illustrated in The history of the steam engine, The key enabling technology. Instead of publicly revealing the workings of an invention, the patient system rewarded inventors such as James watt by allowing them to monopolies the production of the first steam engines, Thereby rewarding inventors and increasing the pace of technological development.

Capital formation in Britain

The Vast amount of Capital which England has accumulated out of profits of her growing trade enabled her to make large outlays on machinery and building which in turn contributed to new technological developments. In addition England also possessed a large amount of Loan-able Capital obtained by the bank of England form the rich traders of other Countries. This Capital also helped England to steal a march over other European Countries.

Availability of Markets

The Presence of a large domestic market should also be considered an important driver of the industrial Revolution particularly explaining why it occurred in Britain. In other nations, Such as France, markets were split up by local regions, which often imposed tolls and tariffs on goods traded amongst them. The British Colonial expansion during 17th century had also resulted in the development of international trade and financial markets.

Availability of an extensive colonial empire

The Unprecedented degree of economic growth associated with industrial revolution could not have been sustained by domestic demand. The application of technology and The factory system created such levels of mass production and cost efficiently that enabled Britain to undercut foreign competitors the political dominance created by the growth of an overseas empire and the strategic control of the world seas by The Royal Navy, enabled British manufactures to export Their goods to Europe, provided captive markets for The abundance of new goods provided by The industrial revolution. The raw materials Britain itself did not have were provided by its many colonies.

Practical bent of mind of The English researchers

The English Scientists and engineers had a very practical of bent mind and because of this they made inventions keeping in view. The needs of the time in Contrast to the Continental Scientists who concentrated on research in electricity, chemicals which were not of much immediate applied relevance.

Comparatively Small Population in Britain

The Small size of England's Population could not cope with England's growing trade. England's growing trade also necessitated the new devices should be found out to keep production in line with the growing demand. This is best exemplified by the changes in the textile industry as well as the coal industry. The shortage of the labour force compelled the owners to encourage and apply new mechanical devices.

Proximity of Coal and iron mines in Britain

There was also a local coincidence of natural resources in the north of England, The English Midlands, South Wales and The Scottish lowlands. Local supplies of coal, iron lead copper tin limestone and water power resulted excellent conditions. For the development and expansion of industry. Also, the damp mild weather conditions of the North West of England provide ideal condition for the spinning of cotton, providing a natural starting point of the birth of the textile industry. The Location of the coal and iron mines close to each encouraged the English to evolve new techniques for The Manufacture of iron and utilization of The Coals.

The Agricultural Revolution

In Britain the agricultural revolution had already taken place which had greatly transformed the English Society. It not only made available necessary raw materials to run the new industries but also provided a large number of agricultural laborers' for employment in The new factories The Enclosure movement and The British agricultural revolution made food production more efficient and less labours- intensive forcing the surplus population who could no longer find employment in agriculture into cottage industry for example weaving, and in The longer term into the cities and the newly developed factories.

Presence of enterprising People

Finally the technological changes in England's were made possible because of the presence of a sizable section of people who possessed enterprising spirit and requisite technical qualities. Further this class of people also possessed organizing abilities and was accustomed to the handling of large enterprises and labour force. These people were willing to invest money for the discovery of new techniques and give a fair trial to these techniques.

Risk – taking Private Sectors

The Presence of Sizable private sector in The Country with great capacity of the individual businessmen to take risks also greatly contributed to the individual revolution. These businessmen were willing to take a chance on new things. In this way they were also supported by the government.

Atlantic triangular slave trade

The best-known triangular trading system is the transatlantic slave trade, that operated from the late 16th to early 19th centuries, carrying slaves, cash crops, and manufactured goods between West Africa, Caribbean or American colonies and the European colonial powers, with the northern colonies of British North America, especially New England, sometimes taking over the role of Europe. The use of African slaves was fundamental to growing colonial cash crops, which were exported to Europe. European goods, in turn, were used to purchase African slaves, which were then brought on the sea lane west from Africa to the Americas, the so-called middle passage.

A classic example would be the trade of sugar (often in its liquid form, molasses) from the Caribbean to Europe or New England, where it was distilled into rum. The profits from the sale of sugar were used to purchase manufactured goods, which were then shipped to West Africa, where they were bartered for slaves. The slaves were then brought back to the Caribbean to be sold to sugar planters. The profits from the sale of the slaves were then used to buy more sugar, which was shipped to Europe, etc. The trip itself took five to twelve weeks.

The first leg of the triangle was from a European port to Africa, in which ships carried supplies for sale and trade, such as copper, cloth, trinkets, slave beads, guns and ammunition. When the ship arrived, its cargo would be sold or bartered for slaves. On the second leg, ships made the journey of the Middle Passage from Africa to the New World. Many slaves died of disease in the crowded holds of the slave ships. Once the ship reached the New World, enslaved survivors were sold in the Caribbean or the American colonies. The ships were then prepared to get them thoroughly cleaned, drained, and loaded with export goods for a return voyage, the third leg, to their home port, from the West Indies the main export cargoes were sugar, rum, and molasses; from Virginia, tobacco and hemp. The ship then returned to Europe to complete the triangle.

Diagram illustrating the stowage of African slaves on a British slave ship

However, because of several disadvantages that slave ships faced compared to other trade ships, they often returned to their home port carrying whatever goods were readily available in the Americas and filled up a large part or all of their capacity with ballast. Other disadvantages include the different form of the ships (to carry as many humans as possible, but not ideal to carry a maximum amount of produce) and the variations in the duration of a slave voyage, making it practically impossible to pre-schedule appointments in the Americas, which meant that slave ships often arrived in the Americas out-of-season. Instead, the cash crops were transported mainly by a separate fleet which only sailed from Europe to the Americas and back. The Triangular trade is a trade model, not an exact description of the ship's route.

The Drain of Wealth

The Drain of Wealth theory was systemically initiated by Dadabhai Naoroji in 1867 and further analyzed and developed by R.P. Dutt, M.G Ranade etc.

The “drain of wealth” depicts the constant flow of wealth from India to England for which India did not get an adequate economic, commercial or material return. The colonial government was utilizing Indian resources- revenues, agriculture, and industry not for developing India but for its utilization in Britain. If these resources been utilised within India then they could have been invested and the income of the people would have increased. Ranade opined that one-third of India's national income was being drained away-in one form or the other.

According to Dadabhai Naoroji, the following forms of drain can be identified:

- Home charges refer to the interest on public debt raised in England at comparatively higher rates; expenditure incurred in England by the Secretary of State on behalf of India; Annuities on account of railway and irrigation works; Indian office expenses including pensions to retired officials who had worked in India or England, pensions to army and navels etc.
- Remittances to England by Europeans to their families.
- Remittances for purchase of British Goods for consumption of British Employees as well as purchases by them of British Goods in India.
- Interest charges on public debt held in Britain.

India's drain of wealth helped finance England's Industrial Revolution in the following ways

As late as the 1750s, India had an export surplus; its favorable trade balance was matched by bullion import, as the world had nothing else to offer India in return for its fine textiles. British colonialism reversed this process, first by monopolizing trade and then — in the early 19th century — by demolishing Indian industry. During the period when British trade established supremacy, goods were exported by India but the bullion never reached the country. British merchants purchased goods in rupee receipts in India, and exchanged them abroad for bullion. Much before Dadabhai Naoroji and the so-called ‘modern nationalist’ school came up with a figure for India's drain of wealth, Mughal chroniclers had put it at more than 100,000 million pound sterling per annum.

In fact, bullion owed to India helped finance England's Industrial Revolution. Then, in order to flood Indian markets with European goods, India was de-industrialized. From being a supplier of luxury goods, it was turned into an exporter of raw material. Between 1820 and 1840, de-industrialization closed down more than 12,000 markets, controlled and operated by peasants and small entrepreneurs in northern India.

Availability of developed means of transport and Communication

England possessed a far better network of means of transportation than any other country of Europe which greatly helped the industrial revolution. In this task the government played an important role which spent considerable amount on the improvement of roads and construction of canals.

British insularity from the Conflicts of Continental Europe

The technological and industrial advancement was encouraged by the insularity of England from Continental Conflicts. This meant that the industrial development was rarely interrupted by wars. The geographical location of England remained immune from wars and upheavals of Napoleonic era and conditions remained quite stable in the country these stable conditions enabled England to develop their industrial capacity without fear of bottle damage or loss of life.

Flexibility of English Social and Political System

Above all the Flexibility of The English Social and political system also greatly contributed to industrial revolution in England. The members of the Upper classes in Britain unlike Their Counterparts in The continent pursued their wealth in the new industrial framework with great enthusiasm they worked in close co-operation with the middle classes and artisans which greatly facilitated the industrial revolution.

Protestant work ethic

The protestant ethic influenced large numbers of people to engage in work in the secular world, developing their own enterprises and engaging in trade and the accumulation of wealth for investment. In other words the protestant ethic was a force being and unplanned and uncoordinated mass action that influenced the development of capitalism and encouraged the beginning of industrial revolution.

THE INDUSTRIALIZATION PROCES IN OTHER COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD

Introduction

The Industrial Revolution in Continental Europe Came a little later than in Great Britain. In many industries, this involved the application of technology was purchased from Britain or British engineers and entrepreneurs moved abroad in search of new opportunities. By 1809 part of the Ruhr valley in Westphalia was called 'Miniature England' because of its Similarities to the industrial areas of England. The German, Russian and Belgian government all provided state funding to the new industries. In some cases (Such as iron), the different availability of resources locally meant that only some aspects of the British technology were adopted.

Development of Industrial Revolution in USA

The Industrial Revolution (1820-1870) was of great importance to the economic development of The United states the first industrial Revolution occurred in Great Britain and Europe during The late eighteenth century. The Industrial Revolution then Centered on the United States and Germany. The real impetus for America entering the industrial Revelation was the Passage of The Embargo Act of 1807 and the war of 1812. Americans were upset over an incident with The Chesapeake whereby The British opened fire when they were not allowed to search the ship they also seized four men and hung one for desertion. This resulted in much public outrage and the passage of the embargo Act which stopped the export of American goods and effectively ended. The import of goods from toothier nations. Eventually, America went to war with Great Britain in 1812. The war made it apparent that America needed a better transportation system and more

economic independence. Therefore, manufacturing began to expand.

Industrialization in America involved three important developments:

First, transportation was expanded.

Second, electricity was effectively harnessed.

Third, improvements were made to industrial processes such as improving the refining process and accelerating production. The government helped protect American manufactures by passing a protective tariff.

Other factors:

Cotton and Cloth

In 1794, Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin which made the separation of cotton seeds fiber much faster. The South increased its cotton supply sending raw cotton in north to be used in the manufacture of cloth. Francis c. Lowell increased the efficiency in the manufacture of cloth by bringing spinning and weaving processes together into one factory. This led to the development of the textile industry throughout New England. In 1846, Elias Howe created The Sewing Machine which revolutionized the manufacture of clothing. All of a sudden clothing began to be made in factories as opposed to at home.

Interchangeable Parts

Eli Whitney came up with the idea to use interchangeable parts in 1798 to make muskets. If standard parts were made by machine, then they could be assembled at the end much more quickly than before. This became an important part of American industry and the second industrial Revolution.

From Agriculture to Cities

As industries and factories arose, people moved from farms to cities. This led to other issues including overcrowding and disease. However advanced were made in agriculture too including better machines and cultivators For example Cyrus McCormick Created The reaper which allowed quicker and cheaper harvesting of grain. John Deere Created The first steel plough in 1837 helping speed up farming across the Midwest.

Communication and the Industrial Revolution

With the increases size of The United States, better communication networks became ultra important. In 1844, Samuel F.B. Morse created the telegraph and by 1860 this network ranged throughout the eastern Coast to The Mississippi.

Transportation

Railroads were of Supreme importance to the increase in trade throughout The United States. In fact, by the start of the civil war, railroads linked the most important mid west cities with The Atlantic coast. Railroads further opened the west and connected raw materials to factories and markets. A transcontinental railroad was completed in 1869 at Promontory, Utah with the great advances of the industrial Revolution inventors Continued to work thou gout he rest of the 19th and early 20th century on ways to make life easier while increasing productively. The foundations set throughout The mid-1800's set the stage for inventions such as the light bulb (Thomas Edison), telephone (Alexander Bell), and The automobile (Karl Benz) Further ford creation of the assembly line which made manufacturing more efficient just helped form America into a modern industrialized nation. The impact of these and other inventions of the time cannot be underestimated.

Development of Industrial revolution in Germany

Germany traditionally had an economically differentiated landscape. The west and southwest was more urbanized; here both the traditional industry and agriculture were more specialized and developed than in the territories further east where agriculture was based on large, mostly feudal estates. Feudal estates had existed in the west, too, but many had became bankrupt in the late years of the 18th century The urban

economy of western Germany for centuries had been closely linked to that of the Netherlands, England and France changes in technology in these countries were perceived earlier and with more interest in cities such as humbug Frankfurt and cologne as in Berlin and Vienna. Alfred Krupp adapted modern English technology in his steel mills in Essen although he did not have access to the latest knowhow, and for years to come German steel was inferior in quality.

The establishment of a network of railway lines in the 1830s till 1850s resulted in much increased demand of coal and steel thus regions with coal fields such as the Ruhrgebiet, The sear and Upper Silesia, all located in Prussia, quickly transformed from agricultural into industrial regions, attracting workers from agricultural regions. Saxony and Germany's southwest Baden and Wurttemberg Hum berg, Berlin, Nuremberg – expanded as industrial centers. Many cities dismantled their ancient city walls, replacing them by wide roads around the ancient city centre. Suburbs were built, providing living room for the rapidly expanding population.

Development of Industrial revolution in Russia

The Industrial revolution began much later in Russia in comparison with other parts of Europe. Russia's late arrival on the industrial scene also shaped its industrial Revolution because it could take advantage of prior technological improvements in industrial process to leapfrog over the rudimentary stages and go directly to the latest and most modern forms. Ironically, back ward Russia was creating one of Europe's most modern industrial infrastructures. Furthermore Russia's new factories were massive in size. Perhaps more than one-half of Russia's new factories employed more than 500 workers, and many employed more than 1,000 because Russia did not experience the evolutionary process of building large firms form the merger or acquisition of numerous smaller ones, it was able to proceed directly to an economy of scale. Finally rather than being spread throughout the country, Russia's industry was concentrated in a few location significant industrial clusters could be found in The Donbas and at St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kiev, Baku, and Warsaw.

Early in The twentieth century, Russia's industrial expansion paused, and a sharp recession occurred against a backdrop of revolution. However, starting in 1906, stability returned and Russia's industrial Revolution resumed its impressive advance between 1906 and 1914 Russian industrial economy grew at an annual rate of 6 percent. In 1913 The last full year of peace Russia produced 4.4 million tons of steel almost 5 million tons of pig iron, and 38 million tons of coal it was second only to the united states in total miles of railroad. Nevertheless, foreign capital continued to play a major role in Russia industry. There was extensive French investment in coal steel, and iron and British firms dominated petroleum production. Germany, soon to be Russia's adversary in the murderous World War 1st, controlled chemical production.

Despite This impressive growth the quality of Russian finished products remained inferior consequently; Russia found it difficult to crack the European market. However, its products found ready byres in the less-developed Middle East and Asia. Another problem- One that defied such an easy solution was the prevalent poverty of the Russian masses without adequate purchasing power, domestic demand stagnated Because of the character of Russia's industrial Revolution many members of the entrepreneurial and managerial class were foreigners. Among native Russians, The rising bourgeoisie emerged from a wide social spectrum ranging from former serfs to the nobility although quit a few originated from the old Believer Community that had dominated had production during the Preindustrial era.

The number and nature of the nascent Russian proletariat of working class, remains an issue. Many believes that the number of Russian "workers" at The start of the twentieth century totaled about 2 million increasing to 3 or 3.5 million by 1914 (The 1897 condos calculated Russia's Population at 125 million) . Almost all of these workers come from the peasantry and many were only part-time members of the proletariat; that is a sizeable number of workers regularly shifted back and forth between factory and village Nevertheless as the industrial Revolution became firmly rooted more and more" peasant- workers" abandoned the village altogether in order to live permanently in The industrial cities. Although the industrial Revolution in Russia may have been qualitatively different form the industrial revolution in Western Europe and the United States one factor remains constant- the exploitation of the worker. Russian laborers earned low wages worked long

hours endured wretched working conditions lacked job security, and lived in crowded unsanitary dangerous slums sometimes the proletariat resorted to the strike at Moscow Morozov Textile factory. However until 1906 both unions and strikes were illegal. Nevertheless when pushed far enough, desperate people will resort to desperate actions and wild cat strikes occurred frequently during this period of rapid industrial growth. The Russian government periodically tried to ameliorate the workers conditions under Bunge employers were required to pay wages in money rather than in kind furthermore employers had to pay the contractually agreed –upon wage rate, and restrictions were placed on both child and female labour. However a system of factory inspectors created at this time proved inadequate. During Witte's ministry and 1897 law reduced the working day to 11.5 hours, declared Sunday a holiday and further limited child labour. In 1903 workmen's compensation was introduced and three years later local unions were legalized.

Despite these measures unsatisfactory conditions and the growing influence of radical agitators sparked further worker rebellion. In 1912 the authorities used force to quell unrest in the Altai goldfields; the resulting "massacre" claimed more before the outbreak of World War I, more than a million workers were out on strike at one time or another. Obviously, the industrial Revolution in Russia was not a placid experience.

Development of Industrial revolution in Japan

Japan initially barricaded herself away from the changes until Mathew Perry rode the industrial wave to her shores demanding entrance with some trepidation Japan used the combined forces of military pride and shintoism to throw her unified population into the onslaught of the industrial Revolution. The Causes and progression of the industrial Revolution in Europe and Japan contrasted in striking ways. Whereas the Europeans developed the technologies over the course of nearly two centuries the Japanese skimmed off the cream that had been churned by others through reverse engineering Japan leapt into the 20th century with military powers that surprised European powers. This was first evident in Japan's victory over Russia in 1905.

In the dusk of the 19th century, Japan awoke to a world where dragons and samurai were not as powerful as they had once been. Japan's emperor, Meiji understood how far his island was behind Europe; He therefore put all his power to gain recognition of Japan's considerable achievement and strove for equality with western nations.

As this island moved into modernity it imported manufactured goods from both Europe and the United States which resulted in the small Japanese producers becoming undersold at the market and many even proclaiming bankruptcy. This fact led to even more aggression from the side of the Japanese emperor who therefore refused to buy any foreign goods; he resolved to grow Japan into invincible nations which did not require anybody's help. Even though Japan's modernization began a century later, in less than 30 years it had completed what had taken Europe three centuries as it "built on the work of another" This immense speed was due to the Japanese seeking "to establish an advanced industrial society without adopting any of the 'negative western traits'".

The Industrial Revolution was a time during which both Europe and Japan tried to claim the little of leading state. After having closely studied Europe, the Pacific island chose which methods to adopt; Germany's style military and political institutions, US education, France's banking program and England's naval expertise and railway systems. As Japan grasped the object of this international game it soon turned into an industrially optimized society whose mass production became the "focus of its collate" following the slogan "Fukoku Kyohei" or "Enrich the country and strengthen the military" to their delight, the Japanese soon "discovered that they already grew and could manufacture a variety of goods that people overseas wanted, from tea and raw silk to gold leaf and buttons and cotton textiles Japan watched Europe closely to borrow the best technology available and at the same time avoiding their mistakes Europe continued to submerge itself in new inventions like the steam locomotive designed by George Stephenson and the steam powered ship by Robert Fulton. According to Taichi Sakaiya, The "innovation of the steam engine is uniquely characterized as a revolution transformation of not only industry but economy and society as well".

Discuss the Industrialization of the People's Republic of China

Industrialization of China did occur on a significant scale only from the 1950s, in the Maoist Great Leap Forward. This was the plan used from 1958 to 1961 to transform the People's Republic of China from a primarily agrarian economy by peasant farmers into a modern communist society through the process of agriculturalization and industrialization. Mao Zedong based this program on the Theory of Productive Forces. It ended in catastrophe due to widespread drought towards the end of the period that led to widespread famine.

As political stability was gradually restored following the Cultural Revolution of the late 1960s, a renewed drive for coordinated, balanced development was set in motion under the leadership of Premier Zhou Enlai. To revive efficiency in industry, Communist Party of China committees were returned to positions of leadership over the revolutionary committees, and a campaign was carried out to return skilled and highly educated personnel to the jobs from which they had been displaced during the Cultural Revolution. Universities began to reopen, and foreign contacts were expanded. Once again the economy suffered from imbalances in the capacities of different industrial sectors and an urgent need for increased supplies of modern inputs for agriculture. In response to these problems, there was a significant increase in investment, including the signing of contracts with foreign firms for the construction of major facilities for chemical fertilizer production, steel finishing, and oil extraction and refining. The most notable of these contracts was for thirteen of the world's largest and most modern chemical fertilizer plants. During this period, industrial output grew at an average rate of 8 percent a year.

At the milestone Third Plenum of the National Party Congress's 11th Central Committee which opened on December 22, 1978, the party leaders decided to undertake a program of gradual but fundamental reform of the economic system. They concluded that the Maoist version of the centrally planned economy had failed to produce efficient economic growth and had caused China to fall far behind not only the industrialized nations of the West but also the new industrial powers of Asia: Japan, the Republic of Korea, Singapore, Taiwan, and Hong Kong. In the late 1970s, while Japan and Hong Kong rivaled European countries in modern technology, China's citizens had to make do with barely sufficient food supplies, rationed clothing, inadequate housing, and a service sector that was inadequate and inefficient. All of these shortcomings embarrassed China internationally.

The purpose of the reform program was not to abandon communism but to make it work better by substantially increasing the role of market mechanisms in the system and by reducing—not eliminating—government planning and direct control. The process of reform was incremental. New measures were first introduced experimentally in a few localities and then were popularized and disseminated nationally if they proved successful. By 1987 the program had achieved remarkable results in increasing supplies of food and other consumer goods and had created a new climate of dynamism and opportunity in the economy. At the same time, however, the reforms also had created new problems and tensions, leading to intense questioning and political struggles over the program's future.

The first few years of the reform program were designated the “period of readjustment,” during which key imbalances in the economy were to be corrected and a foundation was to be laid for a well-planned modernization drive. The schedule of Hua Guofeng's ten-year plan was discarded, although many of its elements were retained. The major goals of the readjustment process were to expand exports rapidly; overcome key deficiencies in transportation, communications, coal, iron, steel, building materials, and electric power; and redress the imbalance between light and heavy industry by increasing the growth rate of light industry and reducing investment in heavy industry.

In 1984, the fourteen largest coastal cities were designated as economic development zones, including Dalian, Tianjin, Shanghai, and Guangzhou, all of which were major commercial and industrial centers. These zones were to create productive exchanges between foreign firms with advanced technology and major Chinese economic networks.

Consequences of Industrial revolution

The consequences of industrial revolution are as follows:

1. Effects of the Industrial Revolution on Political life:

Although Britain had become a constitutional monarchy a century earlier, the vast majority of the population remained disenfranchised from the electoral system. As industrial strength grew along with a more forcible middle class electoral reform was a necessity to balance the new society power structure.

Before 1832, the middle class factory owners wanted political power to match their new – found economic punch this resulted in the reform bill of 1832 which enfranchised 20% of the male population to vote.

The Reform Bill also redistributed electoral districts to better reflect the large population of city centers before, most of the electoral power could be found in the countryside where aristocrats owned vast properties.

The middle class became more or less satisfied but workers were still not represented by the electoral system.

2. Social Consequences of Industrial revolution:

During the industrial Revolution. The structure of society changed dramatically. Before The Revolution most people lived in Small villages working either in agriculture or as skilled craftsmen. They lived and often worked as a family, doing everything by hand. In fact, three quarters of Britain's population lived in the Countryside, and farming was the predominant occupation. With the advent of industrial nation however everything changed. The new enclosure laws which required that all grazing grounds be fenced in at The owner's expense had left many poor farmers bankrupt and unemployed. New machines capable of huge outputs made small handed weaver redundant. As a result there were many people who were forced to work at the new factories This required them to move to towns cities so that They could be close to their new jobs it also meant that they made less money for working longer hours add to this the higher living expenses due to urbanization and one can easily see that many families resources would be extremely stretched.

The Women and children were sent out to work, making up 75% of early workers. Families were forced to do this since. They desperately needed money while factory owners were happy to employ woman and children for a number of reasons. First of all, they could be paid very little and children could be controlled more easily than adults, generally through violent beatings. Children also had smaller hands which were often needed to reach in among the parts of a machine furthermore employers found that children were more malleable and adapted to the new methods much better than adults did children were also sent to work in mines being small enough to get more coal and are from the deep and very often unsafe pits. They could also be forced to work as long as eighteen hours each day. For these reason, children as young as eight years old textiles – where they became part of a growing and profitable business. The unprecedented growth and profit was another social change that occurred during the industrial Revolution. The laissez- faire approach taken by the government and advocated by philosopher economist Adam smith allowed capitalism to flourish There were little or no government regulation imposed upon factory policies and this allowed the wealthy middle class owners to pursue whichever path was most profitable regardless of the safety and well being of their workers. This relentless pursuit of money caused another important social change: The ultimate break down of the family unit.

Since workers especially women and children were laboring for up to eighteen hours each day,. There was very little family contact and the only time that one was at home was spent sleeping. People also had it shared housing with other families, which further contributed to the breakdown of the family unit. As a result children received very little education had stunted growth and were sickly they also grew up quite maladjusted having never been thought how to behaved properly. The living conditions were indeed horrible; working families often live in slums with little sanitation and infant mortality skyrocketed during the early industrial Revolution. 50% of infants died before the age of two.

However, The Social changes that took place were not all negative most classes eventually benefited in some way from the huge profits that were being made and by 1820 most workers were making somewhat

better wages. The “widespread poverty and constant threat of mass starvation had lessened, and overall health and material” The government however did have to eventually intervene in order to put an end to child labour and other unacceptable practices. In terms of social structure, the industrial Revolution witnesses the triumph of a middle class of industrialists and businessmen over a landed class of nobility and gentry. Ordinary working people found increased opportunities for employment in the new mills and factories but these were often under strict working condition with long hours of labour dominated by a pace set by machines. However harsh working condition was prevalent long before the industrial Revolution took place. Pre-industrial Society was very static and often cruel – child labour, dirty living conditions and long working hours were just as prevalent before the industrial revolution. The emergence of the factory system of production brought together the workers in one plant a supplied with tools machines and materials with which they worked in return for wages. According to Robert Hughes in the Facile shore the population of England and Wales which had remained steady at 6 million from 1700 to 1740 rose dramatically after 1740. The population of England had more than doubled from 8.3 million in 1801 to 16.8 million in 1851 and by 1901 had nearly doubled again to 30.5 million. As living conditions and health care improved during the 19th century, Britain population doubled every 50 years. Europe’s population doubled during the 18th century form roughly 100 million to almost 200 million and doubled again during the 19th century to around 400 million.

The application of steam power to the industrial processes of prating supported a massive expansion of newspaper and popular book publishing which reinforced rising literacy and demands for mass political participation. During the Industrial Revolution, The life expectancy of children increased born in London who died before the age of five decreased from 74.5% in 1730-1749 to 31.8% in 1810-1829

3. Formation of Factories and Urbanization

The growth of modern industry form the late 18th century onward led to massive organization and the rise of new great cities, first in Europe and then in other regions, as new opportunities brought huge numbers of migrants from rural communities into urban areas. In 1800 only 3% of the world population lived in Cities a figure that has risen to nearly 50% at the beginning of the 21st century. In 1717 Manchester was merely a market town of 10,000 people but by 1911 it had a population of 2.3 million. Industrialization led to the Creation of the factory. Arguably the first was John Lumber’s water –powered silk mill at derby operational by 1721. However, The rise of the factory came somewhat later when cotton spinning was mechanized The factory system was largely responsible for the rise of the modern city as large numbers of workers migrated into the cities in search of employment in the factories nowhere was this better illustrated than the mills and associated industries of Manchester, nicknamed “cotton polis”, and arguable The world first industrial city. For much of the 19th century production was done in small mills, which were typically water powered and built to serve local needs. Later each factory would have its own steam engine and a chimney to give an efficient draft through its boiler. The transition to industrialization was not without difficult for example a group of English workers known a Luddites was formed to protest against industrialization and sometimes sabotaged factories. In other industries the transition to factory production was not so divisive. Some industrialists themselves tried to improve factory and living condition for their workers. One of the earliest such reformers was Robert Owen known for his pioneering efforts in improving conditions for workers at the new Lanark mills, and often regarded as one of the key thinkers of the early Socialist movement. By 1746 an integrated brass mill was working at warmly near Bristol. Raw material went in at one end was smelted into brass and was turned into pans, pins, wire and other goods, housing was provided for workers’ onsite. Josiah Wedgwood and Mathew Boulton where other prominent early industrialist, who employed the factory system.

4. Issues of Child Labour

The Industrial Revolution led to a population increase, but the chance of serving childhood did not improve throughout the industrial revolution although infant mortality rates were reduced markedly. There was still limited opportunity for education, and children were expected to work. Employers could pay a child less than an adult even though their productivity was comparable: there was no need for strength to operate and industrial machine, and since the industrial system was completely new there were no experienced adult

laborers. This made child labour the labour of choice for manufacturing in the early phase so of the industrial revolution between the 18th and 19th centuries. In England and Scotland in 1788, Two-thirds of the workers in 143 water powered cotton mills were described as children. Child labour had existed before the industrial revolution but with the increase in population and education it became more visible many children were forced to work in relatively bad condition for much lower pay than their elders.

Reports were written detailing some of the abuses particularly in the coal mines and textile factories and these helped to popularize the children's plight the public outers especially among the upper and middle classes helped stir change in the young workers welfare. Politicians and the government tried to limit child labour by law but factory owners resisted; some felt that they were aiding the poor by giving their children money to buy food to avoid starvation and others simply welcomed the cheap labour. In 1833 and 1844 the first general laws against child labour, the factory Acts, were passed in England. Children younger than nine were not allowed to work children were not permitted to work at night, and the work day of youth under the age of 18 was limited to twelve hours. Factory inspectors supervised the execution of the law. About ten years later the employment of children and women in mining was forbidden these laws decreased the number of child laborers'; however child labour remained in Europe and the United States up to the 20th century. By 1900, there were 1.7 million child labourers reported in American industry under the age of fifteen.

5. Conditions of Housing

Living conditions during the Industrial Revolution varied from the splendor of the homes of the owners to the squalor of the lives of the workers. Poor people lived in very small houses in cramped streets. These homes would share toilet facilities have open sewers and would be at risk of damp. Disease was spread through contaminated water supply. Conditions did improve during the 19th century as public health arts were introduced covering things such as sewage hygiene and making some boundaries upon the construction of homes. Not everybody lived in homes like these. The Industrial Revolution created a large middle class of professionals such as lawyers and doctors. The conditions for the poor improved over the course of the 19th century because for government and local plans which led to cities becoming cleaner places but life had not been easy for the poor before industrialization. However as a result of the Revolution huge numbers of the working class died due to diseases spreading through the cramped living conditions. Chest diseases from the mines cholera from polluted water and typhoid were also extremely common as was small pox. Accidents in factories with child and female workers were also relatively common.

6. Development of Marxism

Marxism began essentially as a reaction to the Industrial Revolution. According to Karl Marx Industrialization polarized society into the bourgeoisie (those who own the means of production) and the much larger proletariat (the working class who actually perform the labor necessary to extract something valuable from the means of production). He saw the Industrialization process as the logical dialectical progression of feudal economic modes necessary for the full development of capitalism which he saw as in itself a necessary precursor to the development of socialism and eventually communism.

7. Development of Romanticism

During the Industrial Revolution an intellectual and artistic hostility towards the new industrialization developed. This was known as the Romantic Movement. Its major exponents in English included the artist and poet William Blake and poets William Wordsworth Samuel Taylor Coleridge John Keats, Lord Byron and Percy Bysshe Shelley. The movements stressed the importance of nature in art and language in contrast to monstrous machines and factories; the "dark satanic mills" of Blake poem "And did those feet in ancient time" Mary Shelley's novel Frankenstein reflected concerns that scientific progress might be two-edged.



CHAPTER - 6**UNIFICATION OF GERMANY****INTRODUCTION**

The Unification of Germany took place on January 18, 1871 when Prussian chief Minister Otto von Bismarck managed to unify a number of independent German states into one nation and thus created the German Empire.

During the Later half of 18th century Germany was the most divided country in Europe with over two hundred principalities independent of each other. From geographical point of view German states are divided into three parts, -Northern, Central and Southern. In the North Prussia was the most powerful state from the point of view of size and military strength. Social and political systems of these states were backward. Although German states were divided from political point of view they were somewhat connected with each other. These German principalities had grouped themselves around Austria and Frankfurt diet. The diet was not a parliament but was a congress of ambassadors. Representatives coming from different states assembled together on the platform of the Diet.

The Military campaigns of Napoleon Bonaparte paved the way for German unity in the Beginning of the 19th century. He amalgamated a number of German states and reduced their number to just thirty-nine. His rule in Germany proved a blessing in disguise. Napoleon also abolished the Holy Roman Empire in 1806 there by simplifying the political map of Germany. The military campaigns of Napoleon and the political restructuring carried out by him resulted in the growth of national consciousness among the Germans. This spirit of nationalism steered a Germany into a definite direction.

The congress of Vienna tried to undo the works of Napoleon in Europe. The members of the congress put their full efforts to turn the clock of history backwards in Europe eliminating the changes initiated by Napoleon Bonaparte. But in spite of its full efforts the congress could not restore pre-1789 Boundaries in Germany. It established a German confederation under the President ship of Austria. The confederation bound all The German states to mutual support. The congress of Vienna also established a central body known as Diet. However Austria's reactionary Prime Ministers Metternich Manipulated the Diet to suit his own interests. The diet suffered of the German princes not of the people and secondly the diet had no machinery to enforce its decisions. The institution of diet served to emphasize the territorial disunion of Germany. Thus the Germany was devoid of any effective central federal organization competent to take crucial decisions. In this way the provisions of Vienna pact impeded the unification of Germany.

After the Vienna congress nothing much happened in Germany for more than four decades. The exhaustion of German states in their struggle against Napoleon on prevented them from taking some positive steps in the direction of political reforms. There was also a lack of agreement among the German reforms who instead of adopting a common programmer propounded a variety of programmes. The reactionaries wanted to establisher German empire under the dominance of the Hapsburg Dynasty of Austria the reformists wanted to organize Germany under the aegis of Prussia and some others were dreaming of the merger of all states in a federal republic. The ruthless domination of Austria Metternich also kept the German nationalists under check. Germany was seething with political disparities.

Inspite of all these difficulties the spirit of Liberalism remained alive in all the German states. Most of the middle classes desired to participate in Government. The lower classes desired social reforms and German patriots aspired to a united Germany. Universities in particular were centers of liberalism. Students formed secret societies and made demonstrations which caused un-easiness both in Berlin and Vienna. In 1819 a spy in the Russian service was assassinated by a liberal student. Metternich convoked a special

meeting of German states at Carlsbad to take action against Liberalism. The German Federal Diet promulgated the famous Carl bed decrees in September 1819. Accordingly commissioners were appointed to supervise the universities. Newspapers were gagged and a central committee was appointed to investigate the working of secret societies. Metternich was successful in his repressive measures.

Discuss the Factors obstructive to German Unification

There were many obstacles in the way of German unification Religious, Political, Social and economic disparities among German states were big hard less in way of unification. Austria's interference in German states had also made the process of unification very difficult. The lack of awakening among the masses and the interference of foreign powers in German affairs were also big obstacles. France was interested in the Roman Catholics of Southern Germany. England had interest in Hanover because the Elector of Hanover was made rule of England in 1714. Austria adopted a policy to thwart national unity in Germany so that the Hapsburg dynasty continues to dominate German affairs.

Issue of Zollverein

Till the second decade of 19th century each of German state levied customs and excise duties as they pleased. Because of this the internal trade and commerce of Germany remained greatly retarded. In 1819 Prussia settled a customs pact with a small state Schworjberg- Schwoshen and inaugurated a customs union called Zollverein. By the end of 1834 all the German states except Austria became part of the Zollverein. This resulted in economic unification in Germany to some extent subdued much local feeling and replaced it by a wider and stronger element of German nationality. It proved to be an important step towards the political unification of German states.

The economic policy of Zollverein sprouted from the concept of on economic nationalism. The Prussian monarch Fredric William iii stressed upon the expansion of railways because mutual exchange of things was expected to bring about unity in Germany.

Austria failed to understand the importance of zollverein in the beginning. The success of zollverein and Austria's estrangement from that customs union resulted in the abolition of political obstacles caused by the pressure of economic forces among the German states. The establishment of Zollverein paved the way for the political unification of Germany under the Leadership of Prussia.

Discuss about the February Revolution of 1848

French Revolution of February, 1848 and Metternich's downfall in Vienna resulted in uprisings in various states of Germany. The followers of nationalism and democracy started their struggle against despotic and reactionary rules in various states such as Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony and Baden. Revolutionaries met with success in the beginning. Lawful monarchy was established in most of the German states. Constitutional rule and individual Liberty were approved. In April 1848 in response to popular demands the diet of the German confederation at Frankfurt decided to hold election for a German National Assembly to devise a new federal government of the would be monarchical and Parliamentary.

The parliament drafted the constitution of the federation in 1849 and decided to raise the rules of Prussia to the glory of the German Emperor. But Frederick William IV declined the offer. He feared that other German states might feel jealous of him. So he refused the imperial crown. It shattered the hopes of Liberalists and nationalists. Thus the work of the Frankfurt Assembly failed. The liberals madly protested and tried to dethrone princes and set up republics in various parts of Germany But these were speedily and sternly suppressed by the Prussian troops. The collapse of the revolutionary movement of 1849 was a great disappointment to the liberals of Germany.

Discuss the Works of William-I

In 1858, Emperor Fredric William IV went in same and after his death in 1861 William I became the ruler of Prussia. He was endowed with firm determination was industrious honest and practical. He was proud of Prussia and could not tolerate anything against her honour. He was confident that unification of Germany

could be materialized by way of a strong monarchy in Prussia. William I made up his mind to reorganize the Prussia army. He appointed Vann Roun as war Minister and van Moltke as commander in Chief. He ordered to raise 39 new infantry and I cavalry regiments. At that time liberalists enjoyed majority in the lower houses and opposed Vann Roun because they considered his military reforms reactionary. Consequently William dissolved the parliament and ordered fresh election. Unfortunately liberalists again secured majority in the parliament. William was in an awkward position. Now Vann Roun advised him to appoint Bismarck as his chancellor.

Otto von Bismarck and German Unification

Bismarck was born in a prestigious feudal family of Prussia. He was a very meritorious and a wise person but he disliked democracy and were a stern antagonist of liberalism. He was a monarchist by principle. He had on invulnerable confidence that only absolute monarchy could solve all the problems of Germany and tried to bind Public with the bond of nationality which hinged upon monarchy.

He entered politics in 1847. He was elected a member of the Joint Prussian Diet and got an opportunity of becoming a member of the National Assembly and the Constitutional Assembly. In 1851 The Emperor appointed Bismarck as a representative of Prussia for the Frankfurt assembly where he represented Prussia for eight year Here he got awakened to the reality that the cooperation of Prussia and Austria was not possible as Austria did not place Prussia on an equal footing. He learnt from his experience that Prussia could not become the sound foundation of Germany without defeating Austria

In 1859 Bismarck was sent to Saint Petersburg as an ambassador. By dint of his intelligence he established personal friendship with Tsar Alexander ii of Russia. He made good use of Russia's friendship during the war against France. As an ambassador, in France he availed himself of the opportunity of strengthening relations with Napoleon iii and his ministers and making close study of their policies.

Bismarck wanted only specific kind of German unification. He wanted to carry out the unification of Germany under the leadership of Prussia by expelling Austria from the German Federation. He ensured that Prussia did not lose its entity on the altar of Germany Unification. He was not prepared to sacrifice Prussia but desired to merge Germany into Prussia.

After becoming the chancellor of Prussia Bismarck carried forward his scheme of military reforms ruthlessly. He was convinced that the powers of Europe would never tolerate Germany unification because a powerful unified Germany might prove dangerous for the balance of power in Europe. Therefore he planned to increase the military strength of Prussia. When the liberal Parliament did not pass the necessary legislations for implementing the reforms council) and arranged the required money to execute the reforms. From 1862 to 1866 he got the budget approved by the upper house only. HE gave top priority to the cause of the states even at the cost of neglecting the prevailing law. Refuting his ideals of liberalism Bismarck said that Germany was looking towards the power of Prussia rather than her liberalism. The military reforms introduced by Bismarck transformed Prussian army into one of the most powerful armies of Europe. Bismarck used his diplomacy to isolate Austria and to ensure the neutrality of other major powers of Europe.

Discuss the Diplomacy of Bismarck

Bismarck used his close relations with Russia and France to isolate Austria in The event of on Austro-Prussian war-International atmosphere at that time was favorable to Prussia. Friendship between Austria and Russia had come to an end during Crimean War because Austrian had supported the opponents of Russia during that war. At the time of Crimean war, Prussia had remained neutral and won the pleasure of the Russian Emperor. Bismarck helped the tsar of Russia in putting down the Polish insurrection of 1863. As Austria favored The Poles, Russia became exasperated with Austria. Because of this Bismarck was confident that Russia would not go against him.

England followed the Policy of Glorious isolation and was not expected to interfere in European affairs. Bismarck anticipated no Trouble from Great Britain because liberals of Great Britain were generally in favour of any cause of national freedom and union.

Bismarck successfully hoodwinked Napoleon iii of France into remaining neutral by giving hints of possible compensation in The event of a Prussian victory over Austria. In 1865 both met in Biarritz and Napoleon assured Bismarck to stand neutral in case of war against Austria.

After it Bismarck tried to strike friendship with the state of piedmont- Sardinia. In April, 1866 a secret contract was settled between Sardinia and Prussia for cooperating against Austria. Italy would join Prussia against Austria and in return would obtain Venetia which was under Austrian Occupation. In this way Bismarck estranged Austria from The friendship of other nations on the strength of his diplomacy. Now he needed a pretext for war and the question of Schleswig Holstein provided him an easy opportunity for pushing Austria on The verge of war

Discuss the First Phase of German Unification –Unification of Schleswig and Holstein

The first phase of German Unification started over the issue of the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein which were under the dominance of Denmark. Those two Duchies were located between Germany and Denmark. Holstein was a member of The German Federation and had German population. Schleswig enjoyed German Majority: However a large number of Danes also lived there.

The issue of the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein was quite old this issue had earlier erupted in 1852 and it was submitted to congress of European powers. The congress which met in granted autonomy to the duchies and directed that they should be attached to the crown of Denmark. But the Danes wanted nothing short of complete absorption of Schleswig into Denmark Eleven years later in 1863 when the European powers were occupied with the revolt in Poland. The Danish king incorporated Holstein into his kingdom the German at once protested at this.

In November 1863 the Son of the Duke of Augustenberg presented his claim over the duchies German Diet supported him and the Federal army took possession of Holstein. Through the question of Duchies the depth of political acumen of very useful for the naval development of Prussia as Their geographical situation was very important from the strategic point of view.

Bismarck asked The Danish government to reverse the inclusion of Schleswig. The Danes refused. Bismarck had determined to include them in Prussia by hook or by crook. However he was not potent enough to capture them by force. So in January 1864, he settled a pact with Austria and resolved to solve the problem of The Duchies irrespective of the intervention of German Diet of other German states. Bismarck derived benefit in The long run from the state of uncertainty. The first victory of Bismarck was seen in the friendship between Prussia and Austria.

In February, 1864 the combined force of Austria and Prussia attacked Denmark. Though the Danes fought desperately but they were defeated. In accordance with the Vienna congress (1864) Denmark had to concede the Duchies of Schleswig Holstein and lavenburg to the combined possession of Austria and Prussia. Serious strife between Prussia and Austria ensued on The Problem of Those Duchies. Austria wanted to hand over The Duchies to Frederick The Duke of Augestenberg but Bismarck had decided to incorporate them in Prussia. On 14th August 1865 Prussia and Austria concluded the convention of Gastein According to, it Prussia would retain Schleswig and Austria.

The Convention of Gerstein marked Bismarck's great diplomatic Triumph. He eliminated the imminent trouble but sowed the seeds of conflict and prepared the atmosphere of war against Austria by setting that treaty. With the expulsion of Denmark form both the duchies and the settlement of a pact for equal share by Austria and Prussia, the first phase of the unification of Germany comes to an end. By this he convinced entire Europe and his Emperor that he was an excellent Politician of firm determination.

Discuss the Second Phase of German Unification- Creation of North German Federation

Bismarck never intended to follow the convention of Gerstein. He wanted to use the issue of Schleswig and

Holstein to indicate that Prussia was the real leaders of German race and to prepare the context for war against Austria.

The Two partners, Prussia and Austria had from the beginning regarded each other with suspicion and hostility. In the administration of two duchies Prussia and Austria had pursued widely different Policies. The break with Austria come over the supposed favour shown by Austria to the claims of Fredrick of Augustenberg Austrian support to the claims of Augustenberg was regarded by Prussia as an unfriendly act. The public of Holstein was also unhappy with the ruler of Austria and Austria was encouraging the movement in Kiel in favour of The Duke of Augustenberg.

Declaring that Austria had violated The Convention of Gerstein Bismarck at once dispatched Prussian troops to occupy Holstein. In June 1866 he simultaneously submitted to the German federal Diet a scheme for reforming the German Confederation on by excluding Austria from The Confederation. Austria reacted to this by insisting that the Diet must reject the reform It Called upon all German Confederation. Most of the German states in the Diet voted in favour of Prussia. These German states felt that it Germany was reformed into a close union according to The Prussian scheme, their Power and Prestige would increase.

Without waiting for the reaction of Austria Bismarck sent The Prussian army into holster on 6th June. It was a short war. Known in history as the save weeks war. Prussia was joined by Italy, whereas The lesser German states joined Austria Prussian army was ready to face Andy danger under The leadership of Molten Emperor William and his family were not prepared for war, but Bismarck convinced Emperor William to accept his advice for war. In the beginning Prussia army under The Command of Prince Frederick marched towards Silesia in the region of Austria. Although Austria tried to check the force of Prussia but all her efforts ended in failure. On 3rd July 1866 a decisive battle was fought at Sadowa or Koniggratz. In this war, Austrian army was completely routed and Bismarck persuaded the Emperor to cease war against Austria

In his dealings with defeated Austria Bismarck proved to be far sighted diplomatist. He did not make heavy demands on Austria because he knew that Austrian neutrality would be required during Prussian – Franco war. No Austrian territory was demanded. As per the Treaty of Prague (August 1866) Austria was asked to pay a small indemnity transfer her rights in Schleswig- Holstein to Prussia and agree to The dissolution of The German Confederation and the formation of The North German Confederation without Austria. Thus Austria was excluded from all participation in German Politics.

The Austro- Prussian war started a new chapter in the history of Europe Prussia reached the climax of influence it annexed 20,000 square miles of land. Consolidating entire North Germany, Prussia became its chairperson. Prussia was reckoned as a powerful and important state and Bismarck became an influential politician of Europe. Prussian Liberalists also became stern Supporter of Bismarck. That war ruined the prestige of Austria. The relation between Austria and Italy splintered and Italy stood almost completely unified.

Bismarck was occupied with the significant task of organizing the states of Germany. Therefore, Bismarck created the North German Federation of 21 states under the aegis of Prussia. The unification of North Germany was, thus completed. However incorporation of the states of south Germany was essential for the complete unification of Germany constitution for the new as hereditary President and Bismarck was made the first chancellor of the new Federation. In this internal administration of the states was not tampered with.

Discuss the Third Phase of German Unification

Though the states of North Germany could be united but the south German states had not joined the north German confederation. These south German states were apprehensive of Prussia and were inclined to retain their independence rather than accept the Prussian rule.

Bismarck wanted to create the German state Federation after Conglomerating all states of Germany. But it was not possible to assimilate the states of southern Germany into the Federation against their will. The short-sighted policy of French politician provided him an opportunity to instigate the felling of patriotism among the states of Southern Germany.

Napoleon iii of France anticipated a long-drawn war between Austria and Prussia and had planned to intervene on behalf of The Prussian war ended speedily and Prussia emerged victorious This upset The calculation territory on France eastern Frontier as compensation of remaining neutral during The Austro-Prussian war. In other words he was demanding territories belonging of the south German states. Bismarck was determined not to surrender even an inch of German territory Bismarck strongly believed that a joint war against a common enemy would weld together all The German states.

Bismarck Knew that France will not easily digest the success of Prussia and for the unification of south German states he will have to fight a war against France. Therefore Bismarck started making military preparation He organized an aggressive force of 10 lakh soldiers. On the other hand the people for France were also clamoring for war against Prussia. The both the nations sought The solution of their problems in war only Having Failed to get territory in southern Germany France offered a new alternative proposal to Prussia. According to The French Proposal, Prussia would be allowed a free hand in incorporation The south German states into The North German confederation provided Prussia assisted France in acquiring Belgium Bismarck asked the French ambassador to give the proposal in writing when the proposal was received in black and white and since Belgium and Great Britain were closely allied in political and economic matters Britain opposed this and this plan Of France also failed. This was also an important diplomatic victory for Bismarck.

After The failure of his design to seize Belgium in 1867 Napoleon iii offered to pay ninety million France for the purchase of Luxembourg in order to enhance his influence and Prestige. Luxembourg belonged to the Holland. Although The Dutch were willing to sell Luxembourg to France Bismarck wanted to convert it into a neutral state. Bismarck warned France that he would not allow the Transfer of Luxemburg to France. The ruler of Holland also refused to hand over Luxemburg. A conference of European states was convened with the cooperation of Neutral nations in order to in London in May 1867, Considered Luxemburg to be a neutral state. Therefore Napoleon iii was compelled to renounce The Scheme of Purchasing Luxemburg and the efforts of Napoleon iii to acquire Luxemburg ended in fiasco.

During the tense relations between France and Prussia, the question of succession to the throne of Spain come up, which embittered the relation of both the countries and war became inevitable. In 1868 the Spanish Empress Isabella ii was dethroned The Spanish liberal were seeking a new sovereign Several European Princes polity refused to accept the crown of Spain. At last Spanish liberals offered the crown to prince Leopold, a cousin of the King of Prussia. On 19th June 1870 Prince Leopold a relative of the Prussian ruler conceded to ascend the throne of Spain Leopold succession to the throne would have increased the influence of Prussia. It became hot news in the high ruling political circles of France and The French ambassador Benedetti met The Emperor of Prussia who advised Leopold to revoke his consent for accession to the throne of Spain and Leopold did so on 12th July. Leopold declarations should have made an end of the political tragedy but Napoleon wanted to humiliate Prussia. The French ambassador in Berlin was asked to obtain a promise from The king of Prussia that he would never permit a Hohenzollern Prince to ascend the throne of Spain Accordingly the French ambassador met the Prussian king William I at Ems a famous watering place and presented the demand. The details of discussion were sent to Bismarck through telegram Bismarck Published the message in brief. The import of The shortened text totally differed from that of the full text Full text appeared to be an invitation for discussion is reply to the challenge of war: whereas The shortened text gave The impression of the Germans that the Prussian king had been insulted by The French ambassador and at the same time lead The French to believe that their ambassador had been insulted by The Prussian king The shortened recast of The telegraphic message brought very provocative reaction in both the countries and on 15th July 1870 war was declared.

The decision of War was welcomed in both the countries great enthusiasm although it was not prepared for it. On the contrary Prussia had made systematic preparation for the war. Because of incessant efforts of the minister Vaun Roune and Commander-in-chief Vanu Moltke, They army of Prussia had become well trained and Proficient Bismarck had taken constructive steps and succeeded in making change in ati-Prussia's successful leadership and military achievements against The selfish and greedy attitudes of France and Austria the states of southern Germany adopted the goal of North Germany.

Bismarck had estranged Italy from France by handing over Venetia to her. In this way Bismarck had made effective preparations to win the war by banking upon his creative diplomacy. The German troops invaded France from Three sides in the beginning of August, French army was defeated at Bismarck and Prussian army reached Alsas. On 18th August the French Army was defeated again Prussian army marched forward. On 1st September 1870 a very important and decisive war was fought in Sedan in which Prussia inflicted such a stupendous defeat on The French army that Napoleon iii had to surrender with his 8300 soldiers.

A Self –appointed group of republicans proclaimed at the city hall The disposition of the Europe or and The establishment of a republic The Third Republic on 4th September 1870 The new republic decided to continue war German troops marched forward and reached Paris. On 18th January 1871 German Emperor William I was coronated by Bismarck in The famous place of Versailles. After the fall of Paris con 28th January 1871) The Franco- Prussian war came to an end Their after French leaders surrendered unconditionally and signed the treaty of Frankfurt on 10th Many 1871. As per the treaty France agreed to surrender Meize, strassberg, Alsace and Lorraine to Germany and to pay an indemnity of five billion Frances to Germany German troops were allowed to stay on the soil of France until the indemnity was paid.

The war of Sedan completed the task of the unification of Germany. In April 1871 a new German Constitution was enacted and all states of Southern Germany were merged in the German Federal Empire. Unified Germany became an influential and powerful Country of Europe. Bismarck too became the most influential politician not only of Germany but of Europe and influenced Europe for the next 20 years.

Discuss the Foreign Policy of Bismarck (1870-1890)

The European history after the unification of Germany and the Foundation of The German Empire in 1871 is known as the age of Bismarck. For the next two decades the diplomacy of Bismarck dominated the European politics He remained as the arbiter of European Politics during these 20 years.

The Foreign Policy of Bismarck was guided by The prevailing political Condition of Europe Bismarck directed his diplomacy after 1871 to maintain peace and to preserve The status quo of 1871 Bismarck knew that France would not forget the humiliation of 1871 . He also knew that France would try to take a revenge of this humiliation Bismarck also understood very well that France alone would not be able to challenge Germany. Therefore the isolation of France formed the corner stone of the foreign policy of Bismarck. Bismarck main object was to quarantine France diplomatically by preventing her from establishing close relations with Russia and Austria the two neighbors of Germany.

He realized that the creation of the German Empire in central Europe had disturbed the balance of power Any further attempt to extend German territory would be opposed by The European powers . It was wiser to consolidate the gains than to augment them. Them Hence Bismarck declared that Germany was a satiated country, she needs no further territory Bismarck was afraid that France might form some anti German Coalition with other European powers.

Discuss about the League of Three Emperors

Bismarck was a past-master in the art of diplomacy. He had concluded a complicated system of alliances. He tried to win over Russia, Austria, England and Italy to his side and keep France in isolation. It was not an essay task to draw Russia, Austria and Germany in an alliance. There was a good deal of mutual antipathy existing among them.

Bismarck was an artist in Politics. He ironed out the existing antagonism among these states by invoking the common monarchical ideology. He pointed out that the new born forces of Nihilism in Russia, Socialism in Germany and Communism in France posed great challenge to the European monarchies was Just as a holy Alliance of European monarchies was formed in 1815 to combat the forces of The French Revolution similar conservative alliance should be formed against The Red international.

Bismarck magnified the Red Terror before the rulers of Russia and Austria. In 1872 the Drine Kaiser Bund or the league of the Three Emperors i.e. of Austria Russia and Germany was formed. It was not a formal alliance but merely an entente. The league of the three Emperors had the great Significance because it could keep France isolated from Russia and Austria and Austria forgave her defeat of sadowa and drew closer to Prussia. Bismarck also nurtures the old Prusso- Russian Friendship which helped him very much before 1871.

Discuss about Franco- Prussian Relations

Even after isolating France, Bismarck did not neglect France completely. He tried to satiate her in an indirect way. Bismarck believed that so long a strong Republican Party ruled in France there was no possibility of its alliance with monarchical government of Russia and Austria due to ideological difference therefore he tried to keep Republican there in power.

Bismarck also tried to conciliate France by helping her to acquire new colonies so that she could forget the loss of Alsace and Lorraine. In 1875 The Franco- German relations suffered a violent jerk Mac Mohan, a royalist was elected as president. He had a plan to restore monarchy in France Bismarck feared that if a monarchy were restored in France it would pave The way for French alliance with The monarchies of Russia and Austria. The isolation of France would then be broken. The French government under Mac Mohan introduced an Army bill in 1875 with a view to reorganize the French army.

Bismarck apprehended that France was preparing for a war with Germany. Bismarck charged France of aggressive motive He threatened that unless France dropped that plan of army reform he would be forced to think of a war. Bismarck's deputy Redowitz declared, France economically restored and militarily prepared could find allies begin war or revenge he suggested that Germany should attack France before the French preparations were completed. This would be a preventive war.

Most of the great powers including Russia were against another Franco-German war. The Czar visited Berlin with his chief minister. Gortchakoff. Gortchakoff had a great dislike for Bismarck's policy which made Germany the Centre of all power .His vanity could not make him friendly to the German chancellor. He warned Bismarck in plain language that Russia would not like France to be attacked again. Bismarck had to eat his humble pie. The war scare which he had kicked up against France subsided. This war scare made a very bad impression on Bismarck's reputation. The net result of the war scare was that Russo-German relations became cold league of Three Emperors began to limp.

Berlin Conference of 1878 and Bismarck

At the same time a serious international crisis developed over the Eastern question. A congress under the president ship of Bismarck was summoned at Berlin in 1878 to solve the crisis Bismarck played the role of an honest broker in the congress. His real policy was to see that Germany's international position was not affected. He feared that if a war broke out between Austria and Russia over Balkan problem and if Austrian independence was threatened it would disturb Germany security. His sympathy lay with Austria to Seize Bosnia and Herzegovina in order to present the congress with a fail accomplice Bismarck was not eager for a satisfactory solution of the Eastern Question. He wanted to exploit in a Machiavellian manner for Germany advantage. He wrote to the crown prince that we should keep the Eastern was open.

The war-scare of 1875 and Bismarck's policy in congress of Berlin did a good deal of damage to Russian -German friendship. Bismarck felt humiliated at the Manner in which Gortchak off Compelled him to revise his policy towards France. He felt that Russia was no longer a dependable ally. The Czar on The other hand concluded that Germany had helped other European powers in The Berlin congress to rob him of his fruits of victory the czar was particularly offended by the Bismarck's sympathy for Austria against Russia. He regarded this as act of ingratitude. Bitterly incensed at Bismarck's policy the Czar withdrew from the Drie- Kaiser-Bond.

Dual alliance (1879)

After the failure of The League of Three nationals Bismarck formed an alliance with Austria He negotiated with the Austrian chancellor count Andrassy and concluded The Dual alliance between Germany and Austria in 1879. By the Austro- German treaty it was agreed that if one of signatories were attacked by Russia, The other would come to the help of her partner. If one of the Signatories was engaged in a war with a power other than Russia (meaning France) the other partner would remain neutral should, however the attacking power supported by Russia then the other signatory would come to the help of the ally with full strength. The treaty was to remain in force for 5 years and was renewable thereafter. The Dual Alliance of Bismarck became the chief plank of his foreign of Bismarck became the chief plank of his foreign policy. It was renewed several times up to 1914.



CHAPTER - 7**UNIFICATION OF ITALY****Condition of Italy in the beginning of 19th Century**

In the beginning of 19th century Italy was a mere geographical entity and as a political entity the state of Italy did not exist. There was no country known as Italy from political and cultural point of view. The Treaty of Vienna splintered Italy. There were eight major states in Italy and all were independent of one another.

In the north-west of Italy, there was the state of Sardinia – Piedmont which was governed by the Savoy dynasty. The regions of Lombardy and Venetia, located in the north-east Italy were under the control of Austria. Parma, Modena and Tuscany were independent states and they were ruled by the princes related to ruling dynasty of Austria. In the middle of Italian mainland, the Pope possessed an independent state. In Southern region, there were Naples and Sicily where the Bourbon Dynasty reigned.

Vienna Congress and Italy

After Napoleon's downfall the fate of Italy was decided in the Vienna Congress of 1815. The treaty makers who had assembled at Vienna paid no heed to the Italian national aspirations. They cut Italy into pieces like Dutch chesses and divided the parts among various powers.

Italy ceased to exist as a united land in the political map of Europe. Metternich remarked with satisfaction, "Italy is nothing more than a geographical expression".

Italy was divided by the congress of Vienna into five principal divisions. Austrian Italy comprising Lombardy and Venetia; the kingdom of Piedmont (Sardinia) under the house of Savoy; the papal states under the pope; the central duchies under the Hapsburg princes; the kingdom of Naples and Sicily (Two Sicilies) under a Bourbon King.

The Princes who were restored to their Italian throne after Napoleon's fall followed a policy of blind reaction and repression. They tried to blot out all the legacies of Napoleonic reforms and bring back the old system.

In Victor Emmanuel I of Piedmont said after his restoration that: "I have slept all the last 15 years." He tried to undo the beneficial reforms of Napoleon. His reactionary zeal drove him to adopt many absurd measures like destruction of the gas lights in the Turin theatre set up by French. Uprooting some plants of the Botanical garden because the French had planted them. Thus Italy not only lost her political unity; she also became a classic land of reaction after 1815.

Hurdles against the unification of Italy

For more than a thousand years Italy was patchwork of small states jealous of one another. Several attempts to weld the peninsula into a united kingdom had failed in the 19th century because more than one obstacle came in the way of Italian unity. The most serious obstacle was the foreign domination over Italy. The foreign dominance in Italy posed greatest hurdle in the way of unification of Italy. Italy was dominated by Austria in the North and the House of Savoy in the south. Lombardy and Venetia were under the direct control of Austria and Parma and Tuscany were governed by Austrian princes. Louisa, the queen of Parma, was an Austrian princess. The only national dynasty was the House of Piedmont. Austria was very watchful against any spark of Italian nationalism. The military might of Austria was strong enough to crush any unity and liberation movement in Italy.

Geographical barriers of Italy also obstructed the process of her unification. Italy was roughly divided into three geographical regions i.e. north, central and southern Italy. The regional economic disparity

also hurdled the path of unification. Southern Italy was rural and devoid of development, while North Italy was a semi-industrial. Economically Italy was underdeveloped and backward comparatively. In the middle of the eighteenth century, Italy was an economically backward country. 80% of its population was engaged in agricultural pursuits. Its industrial growth was limited to handicrafts only. The work of industrial development and research was negligible. Scarcity of the means of transport was the main cause of industrial backwardness. In 1815, there was no trace of Industrial revolution in Italy. Therefore, land was still a valuable asset. Feudalism was still dominant in Italy and the nobility and feudal lords tried to strengthen themselves in Italy after the decline of Napoleon. The nobility feared that unification would eliminate their right over estates and they would lose influence.

The pope was determined to hold his reign over his state Rome. The kingdom of the pope in central Italy was another great obstacle to Italian unity. The papal kingdom running through central Italy divided the country into two parts. The catholic powers like Austria and France were generally sentimental supporters of papal kingdom. It was impossible to unite so long as papal kingdom existed in the heart of country.

The nationalists and the politicians of Italy did not have any harmonious plan for carrying out the unification of Italy. There were diverse ideas, diverse principles and diverse goals preached by them. It was not easy task to coordinate these ideas. Mazzini and Garibaldi wanted the unification of Italy as a republic, but Gioberti stressed upon a federal state.

Italy had not yet developed national consciousness. All its states followed their diverse traditions and customs. In the words of Metternich, in Italy, There stood a state, a city against a city, a family against other family and a man against a man. There was absence of national consciousness among the Italians in general. Though the Napoleonic rule created a sort of national consciousness among the Italian intellectuals, the masses of Italy were still unconscious of their nationalism.

Factors favorable to the Unification of Italy

Though there were number of hurdles in the way of Italian unification but the feeling of liberty, equality and patriotism were becoming stronger among the Italians over a period of time. The Italian patriots and supporters of democracy resolved to launch a combined struggle to achieve liberty and liberalism for Italy. Many secret institutions were established in Italy and Carbonari was the most prominent among them.

Before the end of the 18th century, certain prominent thinkers, such as Ferdinando Galioni, Cesare Beccaria, Pietro Verri started drawing Italy's attention of economic reforms. Economic and industrial reforms have been carried out by Carlo Emmanuel III in Sardinia between 1730 and 1733 and Ferdinand III in Tuscany between 1790 and 1829. Some reflective economists of Italy advocated the cause of economic reforms. They demanded freedom in Economic field, encouragement of national savings and investment, development of effective means of transport and import of technical knowledge from the developed industrial countries of Europe. It was the achievement of those reflective economists that Italians started perceiving the unification of Italy necessary for economic cooperation and unity. In the beginning of the nineteenth century, the concept of carrying out agronomical development played a remarkable role in the industrial development of Italy. Railway lines were, laid in the North-Western part of Italy and the use of steam engine was introduced. But the work of laying railway lines went on slowly. But the end of 1869, the length of the railway lines was 1623 km. In the beginning, Italy imported steam engines from England but soon it became self – dependent. In 1854, Italy manufactured the first railway engine in Genoa. The contribution of railways to the cause of unification of Italy can never be forgotten. The operation of railway trains not only influenced the economy of Italy but also aroused political awakening. The guild economic which collapsed by the end of 1845 brought about a great change in economic set-up of Italy. Italians were now convinced that only such creative steps could generate new industries and encourage effective economic processes.

Early Attempts towards the unification of Italy

A series of revolutionary movements conducted by secret agencies started in the second decade of the 19th century and secret society of charcoal burners was founded in 1810 in Naples. But its members belonged to

all Sections viz Nobles, military officers, farmers, priests and middle class people. That society set two goals— banishment of foreigners from Italy and establishment of freedom. It was inspired by the principles of the French Revolution.

Inspired by the revolts of 1820 in Spain, the public of Naples and piedmont asked their governments to frame a constitution. The first revolt broke out in Naples but it had hardly been suppressed when commotion started in Piedmont and Lombardy. Austrian troops crushed the uprising. Thus monarchy was again secured in Italy. But Italians turned violent when their demand for a constitution was turned down. The more the monarchy was orthodox and reactionary, the more liberalism, patriotism and nationalism increased in Italy.

By 1830, revolutionary sentiment in favor of a unified Italy began to experience resurgence and a series of insurrections laid the groundwork for the creation of one nation along the Italian peninsula. When there was a revolution in France in 1830, a revolt erupted in Italy. Violent demonstrations were staged in the Papal States. The rulers of Parma and Modena were banished from their states. Austria took extreme steps against these revolts immediately and the dethroned rulers were reinstated. In this way, Austria crushed the ambitions of national unity and independence of Italians twice. The failure of revolts of 1820 and 1830 taught a lesson to Italian leaders that their efforts for freedom and unity would bear no fruit until Austria's dominance was over.

As political, social and economic factors had great importance in the unification of Italy; writers, philosophers and critics also made praiseworthy contribution in cultural field. In 1832, Silvio Pellico contributed his ten years memoirs about Austrian prisons to the magazine *Le-Mie-Pricioni*. These memoirs convinced Italians that it was imperative to liberate Italy from atrocious Austria. In 1843, Gioberti advocated the cause of a federation of Italian states in his book *Moral and civil superiority of Italy*. There were some writers who thought that if all states were assimilated in Sardinia, Italy would emerge as a powerful and organized monarchy with Certainty. Some patriots wanted to get independence of Italy by means of liberal monarchy. They wished to liberate Italy from the foreign sovereignty under the leadership of Charles Albert – the ruler of Sardinia – piedmont Charles Albert implemented various economic and martial reforms and declared that whenever it becomes imperative, my life, my wealth, all my assets and belongings will be sacrificed on the altar of Italy. That declaration convinced the people that only he had the guts to steer the course of action towards the independence and unification of Italy.

After the death of Pope Gregory XVI (1846), Pius became the ninth pope. He was kind and liberal and had sympathy for those who wanted change in Italy and he himself took initiative. Political prisoners were released from Papal States and various reforms were implemented there. His liberal rule influenced other states.

Revolution of 1848 and Italy

Italy was naturally influenced by French Revolution of 1848. Consequently, national movement started there also. The revolution of 1848 in Italy aimed at implementing liberal economic reforms, constitutional rule and achieving unification and independence of Italy by hook or by crook. First of all, the reformists in the states of Naples and Sicily started revolts and demanded a constitution. Ferdinand II, the ruler of Naples adopted a reformist constitution Constitutional monarchy was also established in Piedmont, Tuscany and papal states in March, 1848. It was unanimously accepted by all that Austrian yoke must be removed from Italy's shoulders. Happenings of Vienna caused a revolt in Milan and its viceroy fled away. The rule of Austria was overthrown from Venice also and the republican rule was established there. The rulers of Parma and Modena too fled away. Now, all people of different thoughts resolved to start war against Austrian rule and liberate themselves. Count Cavour who was editor of the newspaper *Risorgimento* addressed the nation by appealing that it is the occasion to take the crucial decision in the interest of Sardinia Charles Albert, The Emperor of Sardinia also read the appeal on 23rd March, 1848 he declared war against Austria. Pope and Ferdinand, the ruler of Naples were compelled by the citizens to take part in the war of Italy's independence. This struggle assumed the shape of a national war. Austria met defeats at several places. Unfortunately, the wave of Italy's unification proved to be a short – lived dream. Pope withdrew his support and Ferdinand followed suit.

Charles was left alone and had to surrender to Austria. In consequence of it, Lombardy and Venetia were again subdued by Austria.

Mazzini came back to Italy during that period. He was the leader of republican extremists who had started steering the course of national movement. In February, 1849, a republican rule was established in Rome under the leadership of Mazzini. The sovereignty of pope came to an end and pope himself had to take shelter in Naples. Tuscany also went republican and its rulers, Leopold had to flee from there Charles Albert, the ruler of piedmont started struggle against Austria. But on 23rd March, 1849, his army was defeated at Novara. Charles abdicated and his son Victor Emmanuel II becomes the ruler of piedmont. He had to settle a treaty under which Lombardy was conceded to Austria.

After the end of war at Novara, entire Italy started seething with dissatisfaction. Ferdinand resumed power in Naples and Sicily. Tuscany came under Leopold. Pope resumed his sovereignty in Rome with the help of Louis Napoleon. In August, 1849, Austria took possession of Venice and established her sovereignty over Italy again. Mazzini and Garibaldi had to flee from their country. Thus the efforts for unification and independence of Italy ended in fiasco. However the seeds of success were hidden under this failure. The reins of leadership for fresh war of independence was now taken by the Dynasty of Piedmont.

The forces which impeded the cause of the unification of Italy were exposed to the public. Many national leaders were striving to weed them out. Italy had a fight against Austria, pope and monarchy. Secret agencies, writers, Mazzini, past revolts and revolutions kept the spirit of revolution for the independence of Italy alive in the minds and hearts of Italians. But nobody presented a realistic approach for the unification of Italy, which was ultimately devised by Victor Emmanuel and Cavour.

Role of Mazzini and young Italy

Mazzini laid the foundation of Italy's unification and inculcated among Italians the thoughts of patriotism, duty and sacrifice. He was a poet, an idealistic thinker and a pioneer of revolution. He was the spiritual force of the Italian resurrection. Mazzini perceived the truth that the unification of Italy could be achieved and he communicated his belief to the public. Mazzini roamed in England and France, but continued writing articles, addressing and inspiring his countrymen.

Mazzini was a republican and he wished his country, when united to be a republic. He did not for a moment believe that the solution of the Italian problem lay in combining the existing states into a federation.

All the efforts made for the unification of Italy till 1830, were a total fiasco. Italian patriots had to succumb to defeat against Austria's invincible strength. At such a crucial time, a great person appeared and ignited new awakening among Italians. That glorious person was none but Mazzini. He dreamt of Italy's independence and hoped that he would emancipate and lead Italy. In his interesting and marvelous biography, Mazzini has disclosed that as a child he had resolved to always put on black clothes because he felt himself wailing over the miserable condition of his country.

He participated in the revolution of 1830 and after the suppression of the revolution; he was arrested and sent to prison in Spielberg fort. Then he was exiled from Italy. He came to France in 1830 and founded a society under the name of young Italy which aimed at infusing the spirit of fraternity among Italians. Young Italy was a secret institution with a well defined aim and a definite programme to achieve it. It relied on the principles of progress and commitment. Significant words like unity and independence were printed on one side of its flag and on the other side it had holy principles of French Revolution: Liberty, equality and fraternity—Mazzini declared that “to start revolution in the society, hand over the leadership to the young. Immense power lies dormant in the heart of young people”. He had a definite goal to educate people and convince them that Italy is a perfect nation. In 1835, Mazzini wrote that we are proud of all those political, scientific and intellectual traditions of ours which have glorified the history of Europe. But we have neither a national flag, nor a political name we are scattered among eight states. We do not enjoy freedom and foreigners have kept us bound in the chains of Slavery.

Through young Italy, Mazzini specified his goals clearly as the realization of Italy's unity and independence and integration of Italy into a well – organized state based on the ideals of Liberty, equality and public welfare. Inspired by Mazzini's efforts, a number of courageous young men came forward to make any sacrifice for the unity of Italy. He imparted martial training to young men. The number of members of young Italy reached 60,000 in two years. Italy's war of independence had knocked the doors of new epoch. Later Cavour could work on the ground prepared by Mazzini. The sense of unity i.e. mental unity among the Italians developed by the works of Mazzini greatly helped Cavour's attempt for political union later.

Role of Garibaldi (1807–1882)

Giuseppe Garibaldi was born on 1807 in Nice. He travelled for ten years on merchant ships and acquired sufficient experience of Mediterranean expeditions. During those voyages, Garibaldi met Italian patriots who kindled in him a desire for the freedom of Italy. He came in Contact with Mazzini and being impressed by his noble ideals joined young Italy. Garibaldi took a leading part in the young Italy movement of 1833-34.

He joined the Sardinian navy with a view to win over the sailors to the plot hatched by Mazzini. In 1833, he participated in the naval conspiracy. He was arrested and sentenced to capital punishment but somehow escaped to South America. He stayed there for fourteen years and learnt the technique of guerrilla warfare.

On hearing of the revolution of 1848, he came back to Italy and took part in the war against Austria under the leadership of Charles Albert. As Charles Albert was cold towards him, Garibaldi went to Milan and fought against Austria with a private army. After the fall of Milan to the Austrians, he retired to Rome where Mazzini had set up a republican government. The defense of Rome fell upon Garibaldi. He tried to defend Rome fighting to the last against the French troops but his efforts ended in failure and he escaped and reached Tuscany. From Tuscany he came to piedmont and ultimately, went to America with some of his supporters. He lived in America for Six years and came back to Italy in 1854 after earning a lot of money.

In 1856, he met Cavour for the first time and was impressed by his thoughts to the extent that the offered his services to the ruler of Sardinia in 1857. Though he remained a republican at heart, he adopted the cause of the Sardinian monarchy and Italian union under it. It converged the diverse currents of Italian Liberation and helped the cause of unification. It was largely use to Garibaldi's influence that many Italians patriots accepted the alliance of Sardinia with Napoleon III for the liberation of Italy that Austria. During the wars of Italian liberation, Garibaldi was entrusted with the command of a Sardinian regiment which won great success in the battlefield. Garibaldi was then a well – known national figure.

The unification of Naples and Sicily could become possible only due to the undying spirit and hard work of Giuseppe Garibaldi. After Union of central Italy, Cavour failed to make any plan for the union of south Italy. When Cavour's diplomacy became bankrupt, it was the Garibaldi who showed the way. He led the revolutionaries in Sicily against the Bourbon king. He routed out the foreign ruler from Naples and Sicily and this enabled the unification of Southern Italy with the rest of the Nation.

Role of Victor Emmanuel II

Victor Emmanuel II was a great warrior, true patriot and honest ruler. When he became the ruler of piedmont Sardinia in March, 1849, Austria had defeated the troops of Sardinia. Hence he had to sign a treaty with Austria for which he was vehemently opposed in the parliament of Sardinia. Austria exercised pressure on victor to quash the constitution of 1848, but he kept the constitution alive. In August, 1849, a treaty was concluded between Austria and Sardinia. To get it ratified by the parliament of Sardinia, victor Emmanuel had to seek general elections.

Victor Emmanuel was confident that by following a compromising policy he could carry out the unification of Italy under the aegis of Sardinia. He was fortunate enough to find out a meritorious minister count Cavour who's reckoned as the greatest politician of the nineteenth century.

He gave full support to Cavour for initiating liberal reforms. The king always had a second judgment

and sympathetically Understood Cavour's problems. By the pact of Plombiers, he agreed to marry his 16 years old daughter to the aged cousin of Napoleon III for the sake of his country's interests.

Cavour died in 1861 and at the time of his death Venetia was under Austria and Rome was under French control these two areas were united to Italy by king victor Emmanuel II through his sagacity and visionary efforts.

Role of Cavour (1810-61)

Count Cavour was born in 1810 in a noble family of turn. He visited England and studied the parliamentary set – up there. After returning back he started making efforts for the implementation of parliamentary set-up in his own country.

In 1847, Cavour started the publication of a newspaper called the *Il Risorgimento*. People started talking about the unification of Italy through that newspaper. In 1848, he was elected a member of the first Parliament of Sardinia— Piedmont. He was assigned the Ministry of Finance and Industries in 1850. He was convinced that economic progress and powerful army were two vital forces for the unification of Italy. In 1852, he became Prime Minister and a new chapter opened in the History of Italy. He proved himself to be an extraordinary diplomat and marvelous politician of his time. Like Mazzini and Garibaldi, Cavour also was a true patriot and had determined to see Italy independent and unified. He was alive to the fact that the unification of Italy could be materialized under the aegis of Sardinia and the liberation of Italian states from the dominance of Austria was essential for this purpose. He also knew that foreign help was imperative to liberate Italy from Austria.

Cavour fostered the ideals of liberal monarchy and did not have any sympathy for Mazzini's republican views and revolutionary measures. But he synthesized the thoughts of both Mazzini and Garibaldi. With the appointment of Count Cavour as the Prime Minister of Sardinia – Piedmont the process of Italian unity began in true sense. He prepared the platform for unification of Italy with the help of his domestic and foreign policy.

Domestic Policy of Cavour

Prime Minister Cavour put his heart and Soul into the work of strengthening Piedmont by means of a series of reforms. Cavour made remarkable efforts for the economic development of his state. For the advancement of trade and Commerce, he adopted the policy of free trade and encouraged foreign trade, extended the facilities of transport and opened banks. He negotiated commercial treaties with France, England and other nations. He modernized the financial system and encouraged agriculture. He established cooperative committees and built various societies for the growth agriculture. He also deprived church of its several special privileges. He imposed tax on the Land under the church and Tried to bring the church under political control.

Numerous railways were built; and he even established a line of steamships between Genoa and America. He dissolved the monasteries, abolished feudal inequalities, and special privileges of the clergy.

He also paid attention to the army and made General La-Marmorra commander-in-chief. He raised a well equipped army of 90,000 soldiers. He built new fortress and strengthened the old ones. He also strengthened the naval force.

He suppressed all religious orders that were not engaged in nursing, preaching, or education and established civil marriage. However; these political measures were not impelled by feeling of hostility of the clergy. Without the efficient modernization of Piedmont the union of Italy could not have been achieved. Cavour's domestic policy proved to be a great success. He received cooperation from all sections and made Piedmont a solid, Prosperous and ideal state. Within 10 years during 1850-1860, he made wonderful progress in Sardinia became the foremost state in Italy.

Foreign Policy of Cavour

Cavour was practical and positive in his outlook. Then main objective of Cavour's foreign policy was to overthrow the sovereignty of Austria. He held that Austria must be driven out of Italy as a first step towards

Italian unification. Cavour had discerned that Austria would not give up its hold on Italy without war. Therefore, foreign help had become imperative for Italy because Sardinia-Piedmont could not accomplish this alone. It was essential to take the help of a great military power of Europe to force Austria out of Italy. Therefore he wanted to win over at least one big European power in his favour. Therefore, he was in search of help of some effective European power. Cavour knew that but it must be either Britain or France.

Cavour would have preferred British help, for Britain was generally sympathetic to the cause of liberal nationalism in Italy but a definite help was not expected of her. As a matter of foreign policy, Britain would not help Italy with military support. Britain desired the maintenance of Austria to hold the balance of power between France and Russia. Therefore, the most that Cavour could expect from Britain was her neutrality. On the other hand, France was supposed to have the best army in Europe. Her ruler, Napoleon III, sympathized with the Italian cause. Napoleon III was ambitious, courageous and a supporter of nationalism. So Cavour tried to seek help from Napoleon III.

Crimean war and the Unification of Italy:

It is often said, Italy took birth from the mud of Crimea. Crimean war was fought in 1854 on the coast of Black Sea between Russia and Turkey. In this war, England and France extended help to Turkey against Russia. The Crimean war gave Cavour an opportunity of extending cooperation of England and France. In January, 1854, Cavour made up his mind to extend help to French and British troops which were fighting against Russia. By the end of April, 1854, as many as 18,000 brave Italian soldiers reached Crimea, which strengthened the allied troops. Cavour took part in the war because he wanted that Sardinia should be reckoned among important states of Europe and the question of the unification of Italy should become internationalized. In this political gambling Cavour was confident of earning sympathy from the French ruler Napoleon III.

After the end of the war, a conference was convened at Paris in March 1856 and Sardinia was invited by England and France to attend it. In the conference Cavour painted the miserable condition of Italy in an impressive way and held Austria responsible for it. Thus Cavour converted the problem of Italy into a European problem. This increased his prestige not only in Sardinia — Piedmont but in entire Italy.

After the end of Paris Conference, Austria mitigated the severity of rule in Lombardy and Venetia and in January, 1857, Emperor Francis Joseph visited some provinces of Italy and made his brother, Maximilian the governor of Lombardy — Venetia. But his changed policy did not conciliate Italian patriots who wanted Austria to leave Italy.

The First Phase of the Unification of Italy

Cavour perceived that the cooperation of France was indispensable to win the future war of Italian independence. He was waiting for an opportunity when Orsini's episode occurred. In 1858, Mazzini's republican pupil Orsini tried to assassinate Napoleon III. Napoleon III had a very narrow escape, although some of his bodyguards were killed in the attack. Cavour condemned the crime committed by Orsini and as desired by Napoleon III imposed severe censorship upon newspapers. Napoleon was very much impressed by Orsini's letter in which he had prayed him to do something for the independence of Italy. The policy of Cavour during Orsini's episode brought Napoleon III closer to Cavour.

Napoleon III wanted to cooperate with Cavour in Italy's national movement for many reasons. Napoleon had been there in carbonari and had participated in the struggle for Italy's independence in his early life. Besides, he claimed himself to be the Messiah of the nationality of downtrodden countries. He wanted to finish Austria's dominance over Italy and take revenge on his enemy for the humiliation caused in 1815 to his dynasty and France.

Cavour reached Plombières where Emperor Napoleon III had been staying for a month. As a result of a meeting between them an agreement known as the Plombières pact was concluded between France and Sardinia. According to the Plombières pact Napoleon III promised to send 2 lakh soldiers to help Piedmont in case Sardinia started war against Austria in order to expel Austria from Italy. Lombardy, Venetia and other parts will remain with Sardinia after the expulsion of Austria. Cavour assured Napoleon to concede the regions of

Savoy and Nice to France in lieu of Napoleon's help to Sardinia. A new state would be carved in Italy by merging Aumbria and Tuscany and Prince Jerome Bonaparte would become its ruler. Naples and Sicily as well as Papal States would enjoy their earlier sovereignty. Victor Emmanuel's daughter Clotilde would be married to Napoleon's Cousin Prince Jerome Bonaparte in order to strengthen the bond of friendship between France and Sardinia.

Austro - Sardinian War

Cavour started preparations for war from the time he came back from plombiers. The newspapers of Piedmont started criticizing Austria vehemently. Cavour's intention was to instigate Austria for war. Cavour prompted people to revolt in Austrian colonies of Mantua and Ferrara situated in Italy. The situation became tense and it seemed that a war between Sardinia and Austria had become inevitable. On 23rd April, 1859, Austria sent an ultimatum to Sardinia to withdraw its troops in three days failing which a war would be declared against Sardinia. Cavour's dormant hopes shone suddenly. On 29th April, Austria's troops entered the boundary of Sardinia and war started. Austria became aggressor in the eyes of Europe and lost sympathy of European states. In May France too declared war against Austria and in favour of Sardinia.

The combined forces of France and Sardinia defeated Austria at Montebello on May 20, at Palestro on May 30, and at Magenta on June 4 successively. Milan was also defeated after a few days. On June 24th combined forces got victory at Solferino. In consequence of these defeats, Austria was constrained to leave Lombardy region. It seemed at that time that Sardinia would also take possession of Venetia but Napoleon III declared cease-fire abruptly without consulting Sardinia.

France withdrew from the war because French forces had sustained considerable loss in this war. Napoleon realized that the establishment of a powerful state along the South-East border would pose danger to France. The Roman Catholics of France did not want to continue war because Sardinia's expedition of victories could endanger the position of the pope. Napoleon had also realized that Austria's strength had not been broken despite so many defeats and Prussia was thinking of waging war in favour of Austria. Napoleon was not in a position to fight against the combined forces of both the countries.

The truce of Villa Franca (July 11, 1859)

In July, 1859, Napoleon III met Emperor of Austria Francis Joseph at Villa Franca and settled the conditions of armistice. According to this truce Lombardy will be given to Sardinia but Venetia would remain with Austria. The rulers of the Central Italian states of Parma, Modena and Tuscany should be restored. Italy will be converted into a federation under the presidency of the pope and Venetia will become a part of that Italian federation.

This Armistice shattered hopes of Cavour and Italians. Austria maintained its sovereignty over Venetia because of the Treaty which was detrimental to Italy. Shocked Cavour tendered his resignation. Victor Emmanuel too was displeased with that treaty. But he was wiser than his meritorious premier and could assess the gravity of the situation clearly. He held that when European powers had approved the right of Italy over Lombardy, Italy had moral right over Venetia too.

On November 10, 1859, Emmanuel in company with Austria and France signed the Zurich Treaty which ratified Villa Franca Armistice and established legal right of Piedmont over Lombardy. With it, the first phase of the unification of Italy came to an end.

The second phase of the unification of Italy

During this phase the states of central Italy were united with Piedmont - Sardinia. Cavour came back to his post of premiership again in 1860. He commented that 'They have stopped me from making Italy by diplomacy from the North; I will make it by revolution from the south. At the same time, the people of central Italy expelled the rulers of Parma, Modena and Tuscany. People removed the representatives of the pope from Bologna, Romagna and established temporary governments there. Those regions passed a resolution and decided to merge with Sardinia.

The liberal government of England which had sympathy for the ambitions of Italy adopted the policy of non-interference and declared that Italians had a right to solve their problems themselves. Austria and Prussia wanted to the reinstall previous rulers on the thrones of central Italy but they could not do anything in the prevailing atmosphere. Cavour bargained with Napoleon III on the question of Italy. It was decided that France would not raise objection on merging the states of Italy into Sardinia only if Nice and Savoy provinces were given to him.

In the middle of March 1860, through a referendum Parma, Modena, Tuscany, Bologna and Piyokenja decided to merge with Sardinia. The public of Nice and Savoy also voted for merger with France. Separation of Nice and Savoy from Italy was severely criticized. The area of Sardinia — Piedmont was doubled in that bargain. An Italian state was created comprising all regions of North Italy and Central Duchies except Venetia. With it the Second phase of Italy's unification ended.

Third phase of the unification of Italy

Naples, Sicily, Venetia and Rome were still out of reach of Italy. Italy still, had to capture the remaining half of the peninsula. Naples and Sicily were greatly influenced by the Austro — Sardinian war of 1859 and violent uprisings had taken place there also. The people of those states were dissatisfied as their rulers were of foreign origin. The public of Sicily was against the despotic rule of Bourbon dynasty. The patriots of Sicily requested Garibaldi to lead their mission. Garibaldi agreed to help them on Condition that they should rise in revolt in the name of victor Emmanuel and Italy.

On 4 April, 1860, revolt broke out near Masina although the French troops suppressed it. Garibaldi made up his mind to help Sicily. Cavour too wanted to help Sicily, but he could not do so openly for fear of breaking international laws. Therefore, externally he demonstrated his neutrality, but extended help to Garibaldi and Sicily secretly.

On May 5, 1860, Garibaldi Marched forward from Genoa to Sicily. On May, 11 with his famous Red Shirt volunteers Garibaldi reached Marsala on the West Coast of Sicily Island. On many, 15 he defeated the troops of Naples at Keltapheme, took possession of Palermo and by the end of June, established his dominance over Sicily and declared him self to be the sovereign of Sicily. But Garibaldi's stupendous achievements put many troubles at the door of Cavour who suspected that Garibaldi would make the Conquered territories republic under the influence of Muzzini. Cavour wanted to employ Garibaldi's success in favour of Italy so he proceeded with great Circumspection. In his message to Garibaldi, Cavour asked him to merge Sicily with north Italy but Garibaldi refused to do so. Cavour sent a few selected volunteers to Sicily and Naples. They succeeded in preparing consensus in favour of the merger of Naples with North Italy. On Cavour's advice, Admiral Parsano persuaded the fleet to Naples to act in favour of Italy.

On August 19, 1860, Garibaldi attacked Naples. He was in a better position than earlier because he had mustered the mass support and success had elevated the morale of his army. Napoleon III wanted to thwart Garibaldi's progress and sent a proposal to England to prevent Garibaldi from not reaching north of Sicily but Great Britain rejected that proposal and Garibaldi got the change of marching forward smoothly to Naples. All efforts made by Francis II to prevent Garibaldi ended in failure and the ruler of Naples fled to Geetta. Garibaldi marched forward without any hindrance and declared him self to be the sovereign of Naples. He appointed Bertain, the supporter of Mazzini as the minister of the state.

Goaded by the tide of enthusiasm, Garibaldi resolved to subjugate Venetia and Rome. But Cavour made a firm determination to finish Garibaldi's efforts. He decided to have Papal States attacked by the army of piedmont in order to defend Rome from the dominance of Garibaldi. Napoleon allowed Cavour to engineer attacks on the Papal States on Condition that Rome should be spared. Cavour found the path clear. On September 29, Sardinia took possession of Aumbria and Marches – Garibaldi was marching forward but the troops of Naples obstructed his march and held him for many days. By the end of October, the public of Naples, Sicily and the Conquered Papal States voted for merger into the state of North Italy. It strengthened Cavour's position. On the other hand, Garibaldi was convinced that he would not succeed in his mission

without the help of Italian forces. He accepted Emmanuel as a rule of Italy and— surrendered his rights and force to him. On 7th November, 1860 Victor Emmanuel was declared the rule of combination Italy. With the merger of the states of southern region the third phase of the unification of Italy come to an end on 18th February 1861. The first session of Italian parliament was held at Turin and was attended by all the representatives of Italy except those from Venetia and Rome. Victor Emmanuel II was accepted as the rule of Italy and Sardinia became a state of Italy. The parliament accepted to Cavour's proposal for making Rome the capital of Italy.

Fourth Phase of the Unification of Italy

Except Rome and Venetia, unification of Italy had been complete. The fate of Rome and Venetia was still connected with international circumstances. In 1866, Italy got an opportunity to acquire Venetia. Chancellor Bismarck of Prussia was making preparations for war against Austria and required Italy's cooperation in this venture. In April, 1866, a treaty was signed between Bismarck and Emmanuel, which provided that Venetia would be annexed to Italy in lieu of Italy's help to Prussia during war against Austria. On 14th June, 1866 Prussia declared war against Austria. Emmanuel's army attacked Venetia from southward on 20th June while Prussia attacked Austria from North. Consequently, Austrian forces were divided. Although Italy fought with great courage and bravery, Austria frustrated Italy at several places. On the contrary, Prussia defeated her on 3rd July, 1866 in the battle of Sadowa. The victory of Prussia enabled the unification of Venetia to Italy and by means of referendum Venetia was merged into Italy.

Fifth Phase of the Unification of Italy

Without Rome, the condition of Italy looked like that of a body without heart. Rome was dominated by Pope and French troops were deployed there to protect him. In 1867, Garibaldi made efforts to acquire Rome but in Vain. The politicians of Italy were aware that Rome could not be acquired without the cooperation of France. When the war broke out between Prussia and France in 1870 Napoleon called his army back from Rome and on 20th September, 1870, King Victor Emmanuel II established his dominance over it. Referendum was carried out in Rome and it was merged into Italy and made the capital of united Italy. With the acquisition of Rome, Italy did not remain merely a Geographical entity but became an independent and sovereign nation.



CHAPTER - 8**THE RUSSIAN
REVOLUTIONS OF
1905 & 1907****The 1905 Revolution and its Aftermath**

The 1905 Revolution had its roots in the Russo-Japanese War, which had begun in February of 1904. Advisers to the Tsar, Nicholas II, had viewed it as an excellent way to improve Russia's position in the Pacific and to encourage patriotic feeling at home. Instead, Russia suffered a series of humiliating defeats at the hands of the Japanese, a supposedly backward nation, and these setbacks led to unrest at home. On January 22, 1905, a crowd of peaceful demonstrators gathered before the Tsar's Winter Palace in St. Petersburg—but the Tsar was absent, his ministers displayed uncertainty, and soldiers sensing the tension gunned down the marchers. Hundreds died in a massacre that came to be known as “Bloody Sunday,” and Russia plunged into chaos. A series of strikes swept the country, closing banks, halting trains, and paralyzing industry. Revolutionary leaders returned from exile, and workers' councils, known as “soviets,” sprang up in Moscow and St. Petersburg. In rural areas, peasants burned manor houses and attacked landlords, and even political liberals joined the clamor, urging the Tsar to move the country toward representative government.

“The uprising has begun,” Lenin wrote in early February. “Rivers of blood are flowing; the civil war for freedom is blazing up.” The Third Social Democratic Party Congress was held in April and May, and this time Lenin dominated, stirring an enthusiastic response from the delegates as he leveled attack after attack on the Mensheviks. In December, he returned to Russia for the first time in five years, to take over the leadership of the Bolsheviks in St. Petersburg. By this point, however, the uprising's momentum was slowly dying out, as the Tsar had begun to address the people's concerns. Nicholas II, desperate to restore order, had made peace with Japan in September, and then issued the “October Manifesto,” promising civil rights and the formation of a legislative assembly, called the Duma.

This concession divided the opposition. The more moderate groups, especially the middle-class liberals, were satisfied with the promised reforms, and their support for revolutionary violence waned. Unrest continued among the peasantry and laboring classes, but the government felt sufficiently secure to arrest the leadership of the St. Petersburg Soviet, on December 16, and a subsequent uprising, in which a number of Bolsheviks took part, was brutally crushed.

Lenin denounced the “October Manifesto” as nothing but empty promises (which, in fact, it may have been), and although orders were out for his arrest, he managed to avoid imprisonment after returning to Russia. In December he went to Finland, which, although officially under the Tsars' control, maintained its autonomy and therefore served as a haven for dissidents. There, he attended a conference of Russian Bolsheviks in the town of Tammerfors, and met for the first time a young Bolshevik named Joseph Stalin, known at the time as “Koba,” after a famous Georgian bandit. As unrest diminished in the spring of 1906, the Social Democrats met for their Fourth Congress in Stockholm, where an attempt was made to bridge the gap between Mensheviks and Bolsheviks. The divide persisted, despite Lenin's best efforts, but even without the Mensheviks' support Lenin enjoyed high prestige. He returned to St. Petersburg on May 9 and addressed a crowd three thousand strong at the house of a sympathetic noblewoman. On July 8, the Tsar dissolved the first Duma, prompting a new series of uprisings, and again it seemed that revolution might be at hand. The Bolsheviks called for a general strike and a withholding of tax-payments, but the population, weary after the violence of 1905, did not respond, and the Tsar's government struggled on. After dissolving a second Duma in June of the following year, the Tsar finally allowed a Third Duma to hold a number of sessions between 1907 and 1912. During this period, the Tsar's government found a clever, politically shrewd leader in Peter Stolypin, a cagey conservative who mixed tight political control with “reforms” designed to bring the propertied

classes into an alliance with the monarchy.

With hopes of immediate revolution receding, Lenin remarked, “this is the beginning of a reaction which is likely to last twenty years, unless there is a war in the meantime. That is why we must needs go abroad and work from there.” The Fifth Party Congress, held in London in spring of 1907, saw the Mensheviks gain a stronger position, as a number of Lenin’s favorite tactics were condemned, including “expropriation” (a euphemism for grand theft), which had been a source of Bolshevik funds for some time. (Indeed, only a few weeks after expropriation was officially disavowed, the funds from a huge robbery in the city of Tiflis [in Russian Georgia] were delivered directly to Lenin.) After the Congress, Lenin returned to Finland briefly, and from there he sailed for Western Europe in December 1907. He would not return to Russia for ten years.

RUSSIAN REVOLUTION OF 1917

Introduction

Russia witnessed a series of revolutions during the opening decades of 20th century. These revolutions were the product of long standing grievances of Russians people. The corrupt and inefficient rule of Tsar Nicholas II had resulted in all round decline of Russia various political and economic hardships were faced by The Public and the Tsarist administration did not try to eliminate the hardship of the people.

The revolutions of 1917 were the result of the combinations of a number of factors. It was the manifestation of Public discontentment against the inefficient and corrupt Tsarist regime of Russia. The existing regime of Russia had lost its efficacy. The revolutionaries sought to establish a democratic republic in Russia after removing the autocratic rule of Tsar Nicholas II

The revolutions of 1917 are still known in Russia as the February and October Revolutions. This is because the Russians were still using the old Julian calendar which was 13 days behind The Gregorian calendar used by the rest of Europe Russia adopted the Gregorian calendar in 1918.

Causes of The revolution

Political issues

The Russians were dissatisfied with the existing autocratic administrative system. Nicholas II was a deeply conservative ruler. He viewed his criteria of virtue- orderliness family and duty as both personal ideals for a moral individual and rules for society and politics. Individual and society alike were expected to show self-restraint, devotion to community and hierarchy and a spirit of duty to country and tradition. Religious faith helped bind all this together as a source of comfort and reassurance in the face of contradictory conditions as a source of insight into the divine will as a source of state power and authority indeed perhaps more than any other modern monarch, Nicholas II attached himself and The future of his dynasty to the myth of the ruler as saintly and blessed father to his people. This inspiring faith many historians have argued blinded him to the actual state of his country: Unable to believe that his power was not from God and that the Russian people were not as devoted to him as he felt he was to them he was unwilling to allow the democratic reforms that might have prevented revolution and when after the 1905 revolution he allowed limited civil rights and democratic representation he tried to limit these in every possible way, in order to preserve his autocratic authority.

One of Nicholas’ reasons for going to war in 1914 was his desire to restore the prestige that Russia had lost during the Russo- Japanese war. Also. Nicholas Empire consisted of people of many diverse ethnicities and he hoped to galvanize them under a single banner by directing military force at a common enemy namely Germany and the central power. A common assumption among his critics is that he believed that by doing so he could also distract people from the ongoing issues of poverty inequality and poor working condition that were sources of discontent instead of restoring Russia political and military standing world war I led to horrifying military casualties on the Russians side and undermined The condition of The country further.

Social Causes

The social causes of The Russian Revolution mainly came from centuries of oppression of the lower classes by The Tsarist regime and Nicholas' failures in World War I while rural agrarian presents had been emancipated from serfdom in 1861, they still resented paying redemption payments of the states and demanded communal tender of the land they worked. The problem was further compounded by the failure of Sergei writer land reforms of The early 1900s Increasing peasant disturbances and sometimes full revolts occurred with the goal of securing ownership of The land they worked Russia consisted mainly of poor farming peasants with 15% of The population owning 25% of The land At the start of 1917 The condition were ripe for revolution in Russia. Peasant had migrated to urban industrial centres from villages in large numbers in the search of employment due to economic hardships in rural Ares. This relocation had created a growing urban labour force. A middle class of white collar employees businessmen and professional (the latter group comprising doctors, lawyers, teachers, journalists, engineers etc) was on the rise Even nobles had to Find new ways to subsist in this changing economy and contemporaries spoke of new classes forming (proletarians and capitalists for examples) although these classes were also divided along crisscrossing lines of status gender age, ethnicity and belief

If anything it was becoming harder to speak of clearly –defined social groups or boundaries. Not only were groups fractured in various ways, their defining boundaries were also increasingly blurred by mingling peasants workers intellectuals gentry professionals and the like almost everyone felt that the texture of their lives was transformed by a spreading commercial culture which remade the surfaces of material life (building, store fronts, advertisements, fashion, clocks and machines) and nurtured new object of desire

By 1917 the growth of political consciousness the impact of revolutionary ideas and the weak and inefficient system of government (which had been debilitated further by its participation in World War I) should have convinced the emperor Nicholas II to take the necessary steps towards reform. In January 1917 in fact Sir George Buchanan the British Ambassador in Russia advised the emperor to “breakdown the barrier that separates you from your people to regain their Confidence. He received little response from Nicholas. This prevailing social dissatisfaction played important role in bringing about the revolution in Russia

Economic Factors behind the revolution

The failure of land reforms initiated by Stolypin had become clear by 1911. Because of this the economic hardship faced by common public continued. The rapid growth of the peasant population further worsened the conditions the farming method employed by the Russian peasants were too insufficient to support the growing population adequately. The assassination of Stolypin in 1911 removed one of the few really able Tsarist ministers and perhaps the only man who could have saved the monarchy

The industrialization of Russia also resulted in urban overcrowding and poor condition for urban industrial workers between 1890 and 1910 the population of the capital Saint Petersburg, swelled from 1,033,600 to 1,905,600 with Moscow experiencing similar growth. This created a new “proletariat” which due to being crowded together in the cities was much more likely to protest and go on strike than the peasantry had been in previous times. In one 1904 survey it was found that an average of sixteen people shared each apartment in Saint Petersburg with six people per room. There was also no running water and piles of human waste were a threat to the health of the workers. There was a wave of industrial strikes set off by the shooting of 270 striking gold – miners in the Lena goldfields (April 1912) In all there were over 2000 separate strikes in that year's 2400 in 1913 and over 4000 in the first seven months of 1914 before war broke out whatever improvement had taken place They were obviously not enough to remove all the Pre-1905 grievances The Tsarist government failed to realize the gravity of The continued without any change. The secret police rooted out revolutionaries among university students and lecturers and deported masses of Jews thereby ensuring that both groups were firmly anti – Tsarist the situation was particularly dangerous because the government had made the mistake of alienating Three of the most important sections in society – peasants industrial workers and intelligentsia.

Rasputin Affair

The royal family was discredited by a number of scandals. It was widely suspected that Nicholas himself was a party to the murder of Stolypin who was shot by a member of the secret police in the tsar's presence during a gala performance at the Kiev opera. Nothing was ever proved but Nicholas and his right wing supporters were probably not sorry to see the back of Stolypin who was becoming too liberal for their comfort.

More serious was the royal family's association with Rasputin, a self-professed holyman, who made himself indispensable to the Empress Alexandra by his ability to help the ailing heir to the throne, Alexei. This unfortunate child had inherited haemophilia from his mother's family and Rasputin was able on occasion apparently through hypnosis to stop the bleeding when Alexei suffered a haemorrhage. Eventually Rasputin became a real hindrance and his numerous affairs with court ladies. Alexandra preferred to ignore the scandals and the Duma's request that Rasputin be sent away from the court (1912).

Impact of World War- I

The outbreak of war in August 1914 initially served to quiet the prevalent social and political protests; focusing hostilities against a common external enemy but this patriotic unity did not last long. As the war dragged on inconclusively war-weariness gradually took its toll. More important though was this deeper fragility; although many ordinary Russians joined anti-German demonstrations in the first few weeks of the war the most widespread reactions appear to have been skepticism and fatalism. Hostility toward the Kaiser and the desire to defend their land and their lives did not necessarily translate into enthusiasm for the war or the government. Russia's first major battle of the war was a disaster; in the 1914 Battle of Tannenberg over 30,000 Russian troops were killed or wounded and 90,000 captured while Germany suffered just 20,000 casualties. In the autumn of 1915, Nicholas had taken direct command of the army personally overseeing Russia's main theatre of war and leaving his ambitious but incapable wife in charge of the government. Reports of corruption and incompetence in the imperial government began to emerge and the growing influence of Rasputin in the imperial family was widely resented. In the eyes of a revisionist historian who focuses on the role of the people Rasputin was a "fatal disease" to the Tsarist regime.

In 1915 things took a critical turn for the worse when Germany shifted its focus of attack to the Eastern Front. The superior German army—better led, better trained and better supplied—was terrifyingly effective against the ill-equipped Russian forces. By the end of October 1916 Russia had lost between 1,600,000 and 1,800,000 soldiers with an additional 2,000,000 prisoners of war and 1,000,000 missing, all making up a total of nearly 5,000,000 men.

These staggering losses played a definite role in the mutinies which began to occur and in 1916 reports of fraternizing with the enemy started to circulate. Soldiers went hungry and they locked shoes, munitions and even weapons. Rampant discontent lowered morale only to be further undermined by a series of military defeats.

Casualty rates were the most vivid sign of this disaster. Already by the end of 1914 only five months into the war nearly 400,000 Russian men had lost their lives and nearly 1,000,000 were injured. Far sooner than expected scarcely trained recruits had to be called up for active duty, a process repeated throughout the war as staggering losses continued to mount. The officer class also saw remarkable turnover, especially within the lower echelons which were quickly filled with soldiers rising up through the ranks. These men, usually of peasant or worker backgrounds, were to play a large role in the politicization of the troops in 1917.

The huge losses on the battlefields were not limited to men. The army quickly ran short of rifles and ammunition as well as uniforms and food, and by mid-1915 men were being sent to the front bearing no arms; it was hoped that they could equip themselves with the arms that they recovered from fallen soldiers of both sides on the battlefields with patent good reason. The soldiers did not feel that they were being treated as human beings or even as valuable soldiers but rather as raw materials to be squandered for the purposes of the rich and powerful.

By the spring of 1915 the army was in steady retreat which was not always orderly; desertion, plunder and chaotic flight were not uncommon. By 1916 however the situation had improved in many respects. Russian troops stopped retreating and there were even some modest successes in the offensives that were staged that year albeit at great loss of life. Also the problem of shortages was largely solved by a major effort to increase domestic production. Nevertheless by the end of 1916 morale among soldiers was even worse than it had been during the great retreat of 1915. The fortunes of war may have improved by the fact of the war, still draining away strength and lives from the country and its many individuals and families remained and oppressive unavailability. The Crisis in morale was caused by Allah Wildman (a leading historian of The Russian army in war and revolution) was rooted fundamentally in the feeling of utter despair that the slaughter would ever end and that anything resembling victory could be achieved”

The war devastated not only soldiers. By the end of 1915 there were manifold signs that the economy was breaking down under the shortages and rising prices. Inflation shoved real incomes down at an alarmingly rapid rate and shortages made it difficult to buy even what one could afford. These shortages were especially a problem in the capital Petrograd (formerly the city of Saint Petersburg) where distance from supplies and poor transportation networks made matters particularly bad. Shops got closed partially or entirely for lack of bread, sugar, meat and other provisions and lines lengthened massively for what remained. It became increasingly difficult both to afford and actually buy food.

Not surprisingly strikes increased steadily from the middle of 1915 and so did crime; but for the most part people suffered and endured – scouring the city for food – working – class women in Petrograd reportedly spent about forty hours a week in food lines – begging, turning to prostitution or crime, tearing down wooden fences to keep stoves heated for warmth, grumbling about the rich and wondering when and how this would all come to an end. Government officials responsible of public order worried about how long the people's patience would last. A report by the Petrograd branch of the security police the *okhrana* in October 1916 warned bluntly of the possibility in the near future of riots by the lower classes of the empire enraged by the burdens of daily existence”

Nicholas was blamed for all of these crises and what little support he had left began to crumble. As discontent grew the State Duma issued a warning to Nicholas in November 1916. It stated that inevitably a terrible disaster would grip the country unless a constitutional form of government was put in place. In typical fashion however, Nicholas ignored them and Russia's Tsarist regime collapsed a few months later during the and his entire family were executed. Ultimately Nicholas accepted handling of his country and the war destroyed the Tsars and ended up costing him both his rule and his life.

February Revolution

This revolution broke out without definite leadership and formal plans which may be seen as indicative of the fact that the Russian people had quite enough of the existing system. Petrograd, the capital, became the focus of attention and on February 23 (March 8) 1917. People at the head of queues started a demonstration

They were soon joined by many thousands of women textile workers who walked out of their factories – Partly in Commemoration of international women's Day but mainly to protest against the severe shortages of bread. Already large numbers of men and women were on strike and the women stopped at any still operating factories to call on their workers to join them. The mobs marched through these streets with cries of “bread” and “Give us bread” During the next two days the strike encouraged by the efforts of hundreds of rank and file socialist activists spread to factories and shops throughout the capital. By February 25th virtually every industrial enterprise in Petrograd had been shut down together with many commercial and service enterprises. Students' white collar workers and teachers joined the workers in the streets and at public meetings whilst in the still active Duma Liberal and socialist deputies came to realize a potentially massive problem. They presently denounced the current government even more vehemently and demanded a responsible cabinet of ministers the Duma consisted primarily of the bourgeoisie pressed the Tsar to abdicate in order to avert a revolution.

On the evening of Saturday the 25th with police having lost control of the situation Nicholas II who refused to believe the warnings about the seriousness of these events sent a fateful telegram to the chief of

the Petrograd military district General Sergei Khabarovsk: I command you tomorrow to stop The disorders in the capital which are unacceptable in the difficult time of war with Germany and Austria, “ Most of The soldiers obeyed these orders on the 26th but mutinies often started by lower-ranked officers spread overnight. On the morning of the 27th workers in the streets many of them now armed were joined by soldiers sent in by the government to quell the riots. Many of these soldiers were insurgents however and they joined the crowd and fired on the police. The outnumbered police then proceeded to join the army and civilians in their rampage. Thus with this near total disintegration of military power in the capital effective civil authority collapsed.

By the night time on the 27th the cabinet submitted its resignation to the Tsar and proposed a temporary military dictatorship but Russia's military leaders rejected this course. Nicholas meanwhile had been on the front with the soldiers where he had seen first hand Russia's defeat at Tannenberg. He had become very frustrated and was conscious of the fact that the demonstration were on a massive scale: indeed he feared for his life. The ill health of his son (suffering from the blood disorder hemophilia) was causing him difficulties too. Nicholas accepted defeat at last and abdicated on 2 March hoping by this last act of service to his nation (as he stated in his manifestos) to end the disorders and bring unity to Russia in the wake of this collapse of the 300 year old Romanov dynasty- Nicholas's brother to whom he subsequently offered The crown refused to become Tsar unless that was the decision of an elected government : he wanted the people to want him as their leader. A minority of the Duma's deputies declared themselves a provisional Government chaired by Prince Lvov a moderate reformist- although leadership moved gradually to Alexander Kerensky of The Social Revolutionary Party.

The Period between February and October

After The success of February revolution most people in Russia expected that the autocracy of the Tsarist system will be replaced by a democratic republic with an elected Parliament the Duma struggling to take control set up a mainly liberal Provisional government with Prince George Lvov as prime minister. In July he was replaced by Alexander Kerensky, a moderate socialist. But the new government was just as perplexed by the enormous problems facing it as the Tsar had been. In November a second revolution took place which overthrew the provisional government and brought The Bolsheviks to power.

Although return to Russia for Lenin had become a possibility the war made it logistically difficult. Eventually. German officials arranged for Lenin to pass through their territory, hoping that his activities would weaken Russia or even- if the Bolsheviks come to power – lead to Russia withdrawal from the war. Lenin and his associates however had to agree to travel to Russia in a sealed Train: Germany would not take the chance that he would foment revolution in Germany. After passing through the front he arrived in Petrograd in April 1917.

With Lenin's arrival, the popularity of The Bolsheviks increased steadily. Over the course of The Spring public dissatisfaction with the Provisional Government and the war. In particular among workers, soldiers and peasants pushed these groups to radical parties. Despite growing support of The Bolsheviks buoyed by maxims that called most famously for “all power to the soviets” The party held very little real power in the moderate dominated Petrograd soviet. In fact historians such as Sheila Fitzpatrick have asserted that Lenin's exhortations for the soviet councils to take power were intended to arouse indignation both with the Provisional Government whose policies were viewed as conservative and the soviet itself, which was viewed as subservient to the conservative government. By most historians' accounts, Lenin and his followers were unprepared for how their groundswell of support especially among influential worker and soldiers groups would translate into real power in summer 1917

On June 18, The Provisional Government launched an attack against Germany which failed miserably. Soon after the military was ordered by the Petrograd to go to the front reneging a previously made promise the soldiers refused to follow the new orders. The arrival of radical Kronstadt sailors, who had tried and executed many officers including one admiral, further fuelled the growing revolutionary atmosphere. The Sailors and soldiers along with Petrograd workers, took to the streets in violent protest calling for “all power

to the soviets” The revolt however was disowned by Lenin and the Bolshevik leaders and dissipated within a few days. In the aftermath, Lenin fled to Finland under threat of arrest while Trotsky, among other prominent Bolsheviks was arrested. The July Days confirmed the popularity of the anti-war radical Bolsheviks but their unpreparedness at the moment of revolt was an embarrassing factor which resulted in loss of support among their main constituent groups – soldiers and workers

The Bolshevik failure in the July Days proved temporary though. In August, poor, or misleading communication led General Lavr Kornilov, the recently appointed supreme commander of Russian military forces to believe that the Petrograd Government had been captured by radicals or was in serious danger thereof. In response he ordered troops to move to Petrograd to pacify the city and to capture the radicals. In order to secure his position Kerensky had to ask for Bolshevik assistance. He also sought help from the Petrograd soviet which called upon armed Red Guards to “defend the revolution” The Kornilov affair failed largely due to the efforts of the Bolsheviks whose influence over railroad and telegraph workers proved vital in stopping the movement of troops with his coup failing Kornilov surrendered and was relieved of his position. The Bolsheviks’ role in stopping the attempted coup immensely strengthened their position.

In early September, the soviet council freed the jailed Bolsheviks and Trotsky became chairman of the Petrograd soviet. Growing numbers of socialists and lower-class Russians viewed the government less and less as a force in support of their needs and interests. The Bolsheviks benefited as the only major organized opposition party which had refused to compromise with the provisional Government and they also benefited from growing frustration and even disgust with other parties, such as the Mensheviks and SRs, who stubbornly refused to break with the idea of national unity across all classes. In Finland Lenin had worked on his book state and revolution and continued to lead his party by writing newspaper articles and policy decrees. By October he returned to Petrograd aware that the increasingly radical city presented him no legal danger and a second opportunity for revolution. The Bolshevik central committee drafted a resolution calling for the dissolution of the Provisional Government in favor of the Petrograd soviet. The resolution was passed 10-12 (Lev Kamenev and Gregory Zinoviev prominently dissenting) and the October Revolution began.

Factors and Forces responsible for The Failure of the Provisional government

The Provisional government formed after the success of February revolution failed to counter the existing challenges successfully many factors and forces played important role in failure of the provisional government. It took the unpopular decision to continue the war but the June offensive Kerensky’s idea proved to be another disastrous failure. It caused the collapse of army’s morale and discipline and sent hundreds of thousands of deserting troops streaming home.

The effective power of the Provisional Government was challenged by the authority of an institution that chimed to represent the will of workers and soldiers and could in fact mobilize and control these groups during the early months of the revolution – the Petrograd soviet { Council } of workers’ Deputies. The government had to share power with it. The Petrograd soviet can elect committee of soldiers and workers representative) Which tried to govern the city other soviets appeared in Moscow and all the provincial cities when the Petrograd soviet ordered all soldiers to obey only the soviet, it meant that in the last resort the provisional government could not rely on the support of the army.

The relationship between these two major powers was complex from the beginning and shaped the politics of 1917. The representatives of the provisional Government agreed to “take into account the opinions of the soviet of workers’ Deputies” Though they were also determined to prevent “interference in the actions of the government, “which would create “an unacceptable situation of dual power” In fact, this was precisely what was being created, Though this “dual power” was the result less of the actions or attitudes of the leaders of these two institutions than of actions outside their control especially the ongoing social movement taking place on the streets of Russian cities in factories and shops in barracks and in the trenches and in the villages.

The moderate socialist leaders of the soviet also undermined the authority of the provisional Government. Although the soviet leadership initially refused to participate in the “bourgeois” Provisional Government,

Alexander Kerensky, a young and popular lawyer and a member of the social Revolutionary party (SRP) agreed to join the new cabinet and he became an increasingly central figure in the government eventually taking leadership of the provisional Government. Administer of war and later Prime Minister Kerensky promoted freedom of speech and released thousands of political prisoners. These Liberal measures strengthened the opponents of the provisional Government. The political group which proved most troublesome for Kerensky, and would eventually overthrow him was the Bolshevik party, led by Vladimir Lenin. Lenin had been living in exile in neutral Switzerland and, due to the democratization of politics after the February Revolution which legalized formerly banned political parties he perceived the opportunity for his Marxist revolution.

The government also lost popular support because it delayed election for a constituent Assembly (Parliament) which it had promised. The government argued that these were not possible in the middle of a war when several million troops were fighting to save the existence of the country. Another promise not kept was for land reforms i.e. The redistribution of land from large estates among peasants. Tired of waiting, some peasants started to seize land from landlords. The Bolsheviks were able to use peasant discontent to win support.

Meanwhile, Thanks to the new political amnesty, Lenin was able to return from exile in Switzerland (April). The Germans allowed him to travel through to Petrograd in a special seated train in the hope that he would cause further chaos in Russia. After a rapturous welcome he urged (in his April Theses) that The Bolsheviks should cease to support the provisional government that all power should be taken by the soviets and that Russia should withdraw from the war.

The growing economic chaos with rising inflation rising bread prices lagging wages and shortages of raw materials and fuel also played important role in sealing the fate of the provisional government. In the midst of all this Lenin and the Bolsheviks put forward what seemed to be a realistic and attractive policy; a separate peace with Germany to get Russia out of the war all land to be given to the peasants and more food at cheaper prices.

The Kornilov affair embarrassed the government and increased the popularity of the Bolsheviks. General Kornilov The army commander in chief viewed The Bolsheviks as traitors decided it was time to move against The soviet and brought troops towards Petrograd (August) However many of his soldiers mutinied and Kornilov was arrested. Army discipline seemed on the verge of collapse, public opinion swung against the war and in favour of the Bolsheviks who were still the only party to talk openly about making a separate peace.

By October they had won a majority over the Mensheviks and social Revolutionaries in both the Petrograd and Moscow soviets though they were in a minority in the country as a whole. Leon Trotsky (who had just become a Bolshevik) was elected chairman of the Petrograd soviet.

On 20 October urged on by Lenin the Petrograd soviet took the crucial decision to attempt to seize power. Trotsky made most of the plans which went off without a hitch. During the night of 6-7 November, Bolsheviks Red Guards occupied all key points and later arrested the provisional government minister except Kerensky who managed to escape. It was almost a bloodless coup; enabling Lenin to set up a new soviet government with himself in charge the coup was successful because Lenin had judged to perfection The moment of maximum hostility towards the Kerensky government. The Bolsheviks knew exactly what they were aiming for and were well – disciplined and organized whereas the other revolutionary groups were in disarray. The Mensheviks for example thought that the next revolution should not take place until the industrial workers were in a majority in the country.

October Revolution

The October Revolution was led by Vladimir Lenin and was based upon Lenin's writing on the ideas of Karl Marx a political ideology often known as Marxism – Leninism. It marked the beginning of the spread of Communism in the twentieth century. It was far less sporadic than the revolution of February and came about as the result of deliberate planning and coordinated activity to that end. Though Lenin was the leader of the Bolshevik party, It has been argued that since Lenin wasn't present during the actual takeover of the

winter place it was really trotsky's organization and direction that led The revolution spurred by the motivation Lenin instigated within his party. Critics on the Right have long argued that the financial and logistical assistance of German intelligence via their key agent Alexander parvis was a key component as well through historians are divided for the evidence is sparse.

On 24th October 1917 (In the night of November 6-7, 1917) The Bolsheviks executed the long planned coup and overthrew the Kerensky government. They Seized railways bridges telephones and banks of the capital. They also surrounded thje imperial palsace and captured it after some resistanjce Kerensky who had left a little earlier escaped but his ministers were arrested the peace– parliamentswas abolished and the passed on into the Ukraine and The Cossack. The Bolsheviks did not encounter much opposition and easily captured power.

The October revolution ended the phase of The revolution instigated in February replacing Russia short lived provisional parliamentary government with government by soviets local councils elected by bodies of workers and peasants. Liberal and monarchist forces loosely organized into the white Army immediately went to war against the bolsheviks Red army

The coup accomplished by the Bolsheivks with success was duly approved by all Russian congress of the soviet of workers and soldier's deputies which met on 25th October 1917. Next day the congress authorized the setting up of a new government under the chairmanship of Lenin.

The new government was to be known as of people commissars this confirmed that the Bolsheviks had acquired full control over the Petrograd and Moscow , However most of the country was still independent of control , This was accomplished during the next three or four years.

Soviet membership was initially freely elected by many members of the socialist – Revolutionary party anarchists and other leftists opposed the Bolsheivks through The soviets when it became clear that the Bolsheviks had little support outside of the industrialized aras of saint Petersburg and Moscow They barred non-bolsheviks from membership The soviets othe socialists revolted and called for “a third revolution “The most notable instance were the Tambov rebellion 1919-1921 and the kronstadt rebellion in March 1921. These movements which made a wide range of demands nad lacked coordination were eventually defeated along with the while army during the civil war.

Russian Civil War

The Russian civil war, Which broke out in 1918 shortly after The revolution, brought death and suffering to millions of people regardless of their political orientation. The war was fought mainly between the Red Army (“Reds”) Consisting of radical communists and revolutionaries and The “Whites “– The monarchists, conservatives, liberals an moderate socialists who opposed The drastic restroturing championed by The Bolsheviks. The whites had backing from nations such as Great Britain, France, USA and Japan

Causes for the Victory of Bolsheviks

Despite trouble parts of the country and active intervention by the allied powers the Bolsheviks ultimately emerged successful. Many factors contributed to the victory of the Bolsheviks. The opponents of The Bolsheviks were disunited and failed to take simultaneous action. As a Result the Bolsheviks were able to send their forces on the front where they were most needed.

The control exercised by the Bolsheviks over the interior lines of Communications and railways greatly helped them in meeting the challenge from the foreign powers.

The Bolsheviks also carried on an effective propaganda against their enemies. This not only united the Bolsheviks supporters but also created dissensions in the ranked of the enemies.

The red army which was raised by the Bolsheviks fought with missionary zeal and this zeal greatly contributed to the ultimate victory of Bolsheviks the red army was fully backed by thousands of communist party members who were inspired by high sense of devotion and discipline and were willing to undertake task assigned to them by the party without any hope of reward.



CHAPTER - 9**WORLD WAR - I****The World War I & its Causes and Consequences**

In the early years of the twentieth century Europe was standing on a heap of explosives which need just one spark to go off. For the last half century events in Europe had been taking such a turn that it was no longer possible to maintain peace. Each European Country vied with the other in augmenting her arsenals. Such unpalatable events as the Franco- Prussian war, Berlin congress, Bulgarian Question, birth of Triple Alliance Russo- German Dispute, Naval Competition between England and Germany, Eastern Question, spirit of Imperialism, Morocco Crisis Sarajevo murder etc. were dragging the whole world towards a ferocious conflagration . By now Europe had been dividing into two hostile camps. The first camp of allied and Associated Powers Consisted of England ,France, Russia, Serbia, Japan, Portugal, Italy, U.S.A, Rumania, Greece, Siam, Siberia, Cuba, Panama, Brazil, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Cistercian, etc. The other camp of central powers consisted of Germany, Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey.

The War between Austria and Serbia which started after the murder of Archduke Francis Ferdinand on June 28, 1914 gradually developed into a world war. Almost all the nation and races of the world were dragged into this war.

Political situation on the Eve of the World War I

Almost all countries participated in the War fought between 1914 to 1918 It was an explosion of coeval political, economic and social condition obtaining in European states. It was a War between imperialists of the division of colonies. There were Some Subsidiary causes also which flared up the flames of War.

When the World War I broke out there were five great powers- Austria, France Britain, Prussia and Russia. Later Italy entered this group and Germany replaced Prussia. By the middle of the nineteenth century there was perfect balance of power which began to dwindle with the passage of time.

The period of 40 to 50 years before the World War I witnessed a keen competition among the states to increase their military strength to occupy new colonies in Asia and Africa and to redistribute the territories already captured coalitions for self-defense were being formed and military equipment was fast expanding. The European states were trying to consolidate their strength. Southern Slaves inside and outside Austria-Hungary wanted to unite in a Separate state and the Poles living in Austria, Russia and Germany wanted to establish a new state of Poland. Italy was not satisfied with her unification and was arousing the feelings of world conquest among its youth France was preparing to take revenge on Germany which in 1870 had deprived it of Alsace and Lorraine- its deposits of mineral wealth Germany therefore entered into friendly alliances with the neighbors' of France and strengthened her military power. It inculcated chauvinistic feelings among its youth and preached that war is a necessity in the absence of which the world begins to stagnate Germany Concentrated on increasing the strength of her navy and in 1882 signed Triple Alliance with Austria and Italy, Which provided that in case of invasion by a foreign power they would jointly retaliate it. Thus, Germany made her position strong.

Britain grew apprehensive of German militarism and signed treaties with Japan (1902), France (1904), Russia and France (1907). It ratified the treaty of 1893 which had bound Britain France and Russia against Bismarck.

The Balkan states were in a state of turmoil which alarmed the monarchy in the multi-racial Austria-Hungary. Serbia was the main eyesore because she wanted to organize all the slaves into a state. Bulgarian

ruler donned the title of Czar and Greece dreamt of an empire. The Balkan States were torn by religious and social problems also. The Christian rulers here wanted to overthrow the domination of the Islamic Turkey and for this Austria-Hungary were ready to extend their help Russia under this excuse wanted to expand till the Mediterranean but Britain did not like it. Russia also designed to increase its area of influence against Germany, Austria and Hungary in the near east and the Balkan states. The USA though a powerful nation did not cherish any imperialistic ambition. It kept aloof from the disputes of the world and did not want to disturb the balance of power in Europe. It sold arms to all European States but did not relish any interference in its own affairs Japan was rising as a power to reckon with.

Thus there was an atmosphere of apprehension and ribaldry and the War was in the offing.

The Causes of the First World War

Imperialism and Economic Competition: In the beginning of the twentieth century, the world made progress in two ways. The rich and industrialized countries were eager to earn more and more money and procure markets to sell their products. To meet their economic needs they needed more and more colonies France and Italy which were passing through a stage of balance between agriculture and industry wanted to establish hold on Asia, Africa and east European countries to invest their excess wealth and to dump their products. This led to a scramble for colonies by the end of the nineteenth century most of Africa had been shared out among European States. The major portion went to England and France. In the early part of the twentieth century commercial between England and Germany mounted up. The European powers scrambled for expending their economic and imperialistic ambitions of the European nations made an armed conflict inevitable.

Militarism and Armament Race: In the latter half of the nineteenth century, militarism was growing in Europe. It was caused by violent nationalism, economic competition and international tension. 'Militarism includes two conceptions: first the dangerous and burdensome mechanism of great standing armies and large navies, with the attendant evil of espionage, Suspicion, fear and hatred Second the existence of a powerful class of military and naval officers headed by the General staff who tend to dominate especially at a time of political crisis over the civilian authorities when Germany began to strength her naval power it led to naval competition with the British naval power and influenced other European states as well. Military Strength became synonymous with national prestige and every state began to increase her military power though all this military preparations was being made from the point of view of defense yet it gave rise to a race for armaments which filled the atmosphere with fear apprehension and mutual hatred.

Feeling of Nationalism: The French Revolution gave birth to the spirit of nationalism which saw a fast development after the Vienna congress. This feeling was responsible for the unification of Italy and Germany Nationalism inspired Creation of new nations whereas, violent nationalism caused mutual differences among them. After 1871, the French demand for Alsace and Lorraine became her national demand. The Italian nationalist's started and irredentist movement to get back the territory of Trentino Trieste, which adversely affected relations between Italy and Austria. People were under foreign rule wanted to re-establish their own nation. Balkan states like Serbia wanted that their fellow nationals who lived in these states should come together to form a greater Balkan state. The feeling of nationalism made all the countries of the world eager to clash with each other.

Diplomatic Treaties: Diplomacy often Creates Conditions Conducive to War. Such Conditions existed before the First World War Prof Fay writes, 'The greatest single underlying cause of War was the System of Secret alliances which developed after the Franco- Prussian War. It gradually divided Europe into two hostile Camps of powers who were increasingly Suspicious of one another and who steadily built up greater and greater armies and navies'. 'From one point of view this system was helpful in maintaining peace of view this system was helpful in maintaining peace in Europe because to spare one of their colleagues from War they persuaded their friends to keep off War: on the other hand this system as curtailed that if there was a War, all the big powers would have to join it'. Because of this campaign every member was forced to take part in activities which were obviously of no advantage to him but were necessary to support his friends. For

example Germany had no interest in the Balkans, but had to take action in Support of her friend Austria: Similarly France had to Support the Balkan policy of Russia Just to maintain friendship with her. Thus these diplomatic alliances made the World War inevitable.

International Anarchy: In the first decade of the 20th century anxiety and anarchy had engulfed Europe. The events that occurred after 1900 made the international atmosphere tense. Russo- Japanese War (1904-05) also influenced European Politics Germany challenged France in Morocco and Created a Serious situation in the international field. When Russia was thwarted from expanding her empire in the far-east she began to intervene in the affairs of the Balkan states. This complicated the political situation there. In 1911 to suppress the revolt in Fez and to safeguard the life and property of the Europeans living here. France sent her troops. Germany opposed this but had to bow down before the British warning. During the crisis England Supported France: this embittered her relations with Germany. The Balkan wars of 1912-13 also made the international atmosphere tense. They accelerated the race for militarism and armaments. Grant and Temper lay write. 'No other event was so much responsible for the world War of 1914 as the Balkan Wars;

Absence of an International Organization: At this time there was no international organization in Europe which could solve disputes between various states through negotiations and put off the imminence of war. Every state considered herself most affluent and turned an indifferent eye towards international promises.

Because of the system of secret alliances the people or the house of representative in a country did not know what type of agreement its ambassadors or ministers had entered into with other countries. For example the house of commons was not told anything about the assurances given to France before the war started. Similarly, Italy, a member of the Triple Alliance, Signed Separate Secret treaties with France (1902) and Russia (1909) but there was no institution which could mound pressure on her not to do so.

The Influence of Press and Means of Communication: Inspired by vigorous nationalism the press in all countries reported many events in such a way that excited the people and made a peaceful settlement of disputes seem impossible German became inimical to the people of England and the relations between France and Germany deteriorated because of press reports After the murder of Archduke Francis Ferdinand newspapers in Serbia and Austria wrote acrimonious articulate against each other. This enraged people both the countries. The press in Eastern and Western Europe enjoyed comparatively less freedom than it enjoyed in England, still it played an important role in enraging the War.

Social Imbalance: Narrow nationalism, bitterness caused by diplomacy selfishness and concern for economic interests had grown so much that appeals for peace proved to be cries in the wilderness. Instead of peace and good will there arose fear apprehension and malice People of each nation considered their culture Superior to that of the other and thought that it was their holy duty to civilize the backward and barbarous nations.

Immediate cause of the War: The relations between Serbia and Austria had not been cordial since 1908 and reached their highest pitch in 1914. Some violent associations in Serbia planned the murder of governor of Bosnia. At this time they learned that prince Ferdinand of Austria was coming on an official visit to Bosnia, so they planned to murder him. The high official of Serbia supplied arms and ammunition to these people and arranged their entry into Bosnia. When on 28 June 1914 the royal cavalcade was moving towards the town hall in Sarajevo, a conspirator Gabriella principal fired two shots and killed Prince Ferdinand and his wife Sophie, This event pushed Europe into the conflagration of War.

Austrian Reaction to this Murder

As Soon as this news reached Austria, a wave of rage and resentment overwhelmed the people. The government held Serbia responsible for this. The Austrian foreign minister Berch to decided to take a stern action against her.

The Commander in chief of Austria, Conrad also held Serbia responsible for this Murder and wanted to wage a war against her but Emperor Francis Joseph was noting Favor of war because he feared that a war against Serbia might lead to war against Russia.

Austrian Ultimatum to Serbia

Austria could not risk an armed conflict with Serbia without the support of Germany. The Austrian foreign minister Berch told wrote on behalf of Emperor Francis to the Emperor of Germany explaining the Austrian policy and requested his help and cooperation. On 5 July 1914 Germany assured Austria to fully support any decision she took against Serbia. This German Support to Austria is considered a 'Blank Cheque' Austrian government issued an Ultimatum to Serbia on July 23 and asked her to accept its condition within 48 hours. The Serbian Government accepted most of the Conditions except two which hurt her sovereignty and prestige. All European states found the Serbian reply satisfactory. It symbolized a most subdued surrender and left no basis for War.

Attempts to prevent War: Britain and Germany tried to localize the War, but the situation had gone out of their control. The British foreign minister sir Edward Gray made the greatest efforts to prevent the war because he did not want peace in Europe to be disturbed. He proposed that the ambassadors of France, Germany, Italy and England Should meet in London and discuss ways and means of preventing the war between Serbia and Austria, but Germany turned down this proposal. She did not exercise her influence on Austria otherwise the War could be put off. Thus all attempts for an agreement failed.

The War begins

The First World War began on July 28, 1914 when Austria attacked Serbia. Next day Russian army was alerted and Germany declared war against Russia (August 1, 1914) and against France (August 3), Italy declared her neutrality on this day. Thus all the important states of Europe Joined the War.

British Entry into the War

The British Foreign Minister Gray made last minute efforts to prevent War but he was disappointed. At every crisis between 1905 and 1912 England had Supported France and the military officers of the two countries had been secretly consulting each other. On July 31, 1914 the French President sent his special envoy to Emperor George V to ask for help and on August 1, France ordered the mobilization of her army and War between France and Germany became in evitable. On August 2, Germany occupied the neutral territory of Luxembourg and demanded passage for her army through Belgium within 12 hours so that she might attack France. Belgium appealed to England to help her. In case Germany occupied Belgium, it might endanger the security of England, Soon August 4, Britain declared War against Germany.

The Beginning of the World War

As Soon as Britain entered the War against Germany, it spread among all the big powers of Europe. Montenegro entered the arena in Support of Serbia on August 7; Japan issued an ultimatum to Germany on August 23 and declared War. On October 29, 1914 Turkey bombarded Russian ports on the Black Sea without formally declaring War. This made Russia declare war against Turkey on November 3, 1914. The Allied powers were greatly concerned when Turkey Joined the War on the side on Germany, because no w it became difficult to send war supplies to Russia and get food grains form her through the straits.

Italy Joins the Allied Powers

On August 3, 1914 Italy announced neutrality on the ground that her friends had started war themselves But when the Allied powers admitted her to their Camp on April 6, 1915 and assured her to accept her domination over Trentino, Triest, South Tyrol, Gorzia, Gradisca, Estria and Albania archipelago as well as to establish her influence on the Asian region of Turkey and to cede Some portion of the German territory in Africa She declared war against Austria on May 23, 1915.

Bulgaria declared War against Serbia on October 14, 1915 This Strengthened the German Side. Portugal Joined the War on the Side of Allied Powers in February 1916. Than on 27 August 1916 Romania declared war against Austria and reinforced the Allied Powers.

The U.S.A Joins War on behalf of the Allied powers

On August 4, 1914 the American President Wilson declared neutrality but majority of the American citizens sympathized with the Allied powers. Two important events occurred in 1917 First the Bolshevik Revolution broke out in Russia and she signed a peace Treaty with Germany and retracted from the War. Second Germany navy sunk American passenger liner *Lucitania* carrying about 1200 passengers and the French passenger liner *Sussex* wounding a large number of American citizens on board. At this the American government threatened Germany to break off diplomatic relation with her. In March 1917 Germany sank five American Cargo ships. Now American lost her patience and declared war against Germany on 6 April 1917. Thus the War became a world- War in the true sense of the phrase.

For the world War, the whole world divided into two camps:

- (a) The Allied and Associated powers Comprising Britain, France, Russia, Serbia, Japan, Portugal, Italy, U.S.A, Romania, Greece, Siam, Siberia, Cuba, Panama, Brazil and Guatemala etc.
- (b) The Central Powers Chiefly consisted of Germany, Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey.

The Responsibility for the War

When the world War was over and the peace Conference had been convened the Victorious countries appointed in 1919 a commission on Responsibility for the War. In its report the commission found Germany and her allied power mainly responsible for the War. In its report the Commission found Germany and her allied powers mainly responsible for the War. But it cannot be said decisively who was the real culprit; still the charges can be arranged in the sequence. Prof Fay holds all nations responsible in one way or the other. The Serbian Government was aware of the Conspiracy of murder but took no effective steps to prevent it or informed Austria about it. Austria was more responsible for the immediate origin of the War than any other power. To maintain his power the Foreign minister of Austria decided to destroy Serbia in war and showed unnecessary haste in declaring war against Serbia. Thus Austria was responsible for the origin of War. With the Assurance of her Cooperation, Germany inflamed her all the more.

Similarly the probability of destruction of Serbia enraged Russia and she concentrated her armies on the border. Germany was under the delusion that this war would only be a 'local War' and she would reap its advantages. But the military action taken by Russia frightened Germany. France followed Russia and it became impossible to contain the War. In reality it is impossible to hold any one country or camp responsible for War. Really speaking nationalism imperialism militarism had created such an explosive atmosphere that it was impossible to maintain peace any longer.

The First World War lasted around 4 years and 65 million soldiers from 30 countries participated in it. Both the victors and vanquished had to pay price. About 8 million soldiers were killed and twenty million wounded. Besides these the number of people who died under inhuman and toretious conditions in the areas occupied or subjected by the enemy countries was not insignificant. There was unprecedented loss of property. On the whole various countries had to suffer and economic loss to the tune of \$ 40,000 million.

A large verity of latest and deadly weapons was used in this war. Tanks, aero planes and Submarines caused tremendous destruction and did not spare even innocent civilians.

The Consequences of the War were important from the point of view of politics also. Three ancient dynasties Hapsburg of Austria, Hohenjouloun of Germany and Romanov of Russia were washed off. The war was won by the democracies of the west.

THE IMPACT OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR

Economic Impact

Economic loss: The direct expenditure on the war was 1,000 million rupees, but it is difficult to estimate the indirect loss of people and property. The national debt of Britain which was formerly 70 crore 8 lakh pound rose to 743 crore 50 lakh pound. The French national debt rose from 34,182 million franc to 147,447 million franc and that of Germany from 5000 million marks to 1,60,6000 million marks. Germany and her allies

spent one third of the total amount and the remaining two thirds was spent by the Allied and Associated powers. In the beginning of the Great War the average daily expenditure was Rs 400 million which rose to 35 million per hour after 1918. The American Federal Reserve board estimated that all the belligerent nations had spent 35,000 million pound by 31 May 1918.

Loss of Manpower: That the present war was highly destructive is proved by 8 million people who lost their lives and 20 million who were wounded during the four years and quarter. The average death toll during this period was 7000 persons per day. In all 60 million people participated in military activities, which is unprecedented in history. The proportion of slain and wounded among them rose steeply to 40%.

War debts: The extraordinary expenditure during the War caused a signal rise in public debts all over the world. The public debt in main countries in both the sides was 80,000 million pounds in 1914 which rose to 4,00,000 million pounds in 1918. Several countries had to face great difficulty because of the destruction of property. In all property, a worth Rs, 1,32,000 million was demolished.

Loss to Trade and Commerce: Loss of Corers and Corers of rupees adversely affected the trade and commerce now every nation was trying to curtail imports and increase her exports. For this they raised customs duties exorbitantly and this reduced international trade all the more. After the war U.S.A Japan and some Latin American Countries took firm hold of these markets which were formerly in the hands of Britain and Germany.

Inflation: A Huge amount was spent in this war for destruction and devastations. Mills and factories railways, and ships and other property were decimated. This forced all the nations to borrow heavily to meet their growing expenses. Loans were raised both internally and externally. To pay off their debts many European countries issued a large amount of purer currency which caused a very heavy rise in prices.

Labour Movement: Millions of young men Joined military Services during the War. This caused scarcity of labour. The Supply of arms and ammunition and other military equipment spiraled up. This raised demand for labor. So they began to demand higher wages and reduction in the number of hours of work.

Rise of National Socialism: The ideas of Communism had begun to exert influence even before the Great War but the management of trade and commerce was still in the hands of capitalists. But during the war many states were forced to take the management of some undertaking in their hands in order to conduct the war properly and to have control over the country economy.

Social Impact

Attempts to solve the Problem of Minorities: The Most formidable problem that faced the peace conference at Paris was how to safeguard the interests of the minorities permanently residing in foreign countries. The peace conference of Paris forced Poland and Czechoslovakia to guarantee the safeguard of the language religion and culture of the minorities permanently residing in these countries but Italy refused to comply.

Changes In Women Status During First World War

The war bestowed two valuable legacies on women those are: It opened up a wider range of occupations to female workers and hastened the collapse of traditional women's employment, particularly domestic service. From the 19th century to 1911, between 11 and 13 per cent of the female population in England and Wales were domestic servants. By 1931, the percentage had dropped to under eight per cent. For the middle classes, the decline of domestic servants was facilitated by the rise of domestic appliances, such as cookers, electric irons and vacuum cleaners. The popularity of 'labour-saving devices' does not, however, explain the dramatic drop in the servant population. Middle-class women continued to clamour for servants, but working women who might previously have been enticed into service were being drawn away by alternative employment opening up to satisfy the demands of war. Thus, nearly half of the first recruits to the London General Omnibus Company in 1916 were former domestic servants. Clerical work was another draw card. The number of women in the Civil Service increased from 33,000 in 1911 to 102,000 by 1921. The advantages of these alternative employments over domestic service were obvious: wages were higher, conditions better, and independence enhanced.

Cultural Damage: The world war proved very devastating from the cultural point of view. Many cultural bequests were destroyed and a whole generation of artists and intellectuals was swept away. Several schools and colleges were razed to the ground and scientists, writers and artists killed. It gave a great set back to cultural development and destruction of works of art, libraries and historical building etc. obstructed the path of cultural development.

Peace Treaty After The First World War

The victorious powers or the Allies, as they were called, met in a conference first in Versailles, a suburb of Paris, and later in Paris, between January and June 1919. Though the number of countries represented at the conference was 27, the terms of the peace treaties were really decided by three countries — Britain, France and USA. The three persons who played the determining role in framing the terms of the treaties were Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States, Lloyd George, Prime Minister of Britain, and George Clemenceau, Prime Minister of France. The defeated countries were not represented at the conference. The victorious powers also excluded Russia from the conference. The terms of the treaty were thus not the result of negotiations between the defeated and the victorious powers but were imposed on the defeated by the victors.

The Treaty of Versailles

- The main treaty was signed with Germany on 28 June 1919. It is called the Treaty of Versailles. The republican government of Germany was compelled to sign this treaty under the threat of invasion.
- The treaty declared Germany and her allies guilty of aggression.
- Alsace Lorraine was returned to France.
- The coal mines in the German area called Saar were ceded to France for 15 years while that area was to be governed by the League of Nations.
- Germany also ceded parts of her prewar territory to Denmark, Belgium, Poland and Czechoslovakia.
- The area of the Rhine valley was to be demilitarized.
- The treaty also contained provisions for disarming Germany.
- The strength of her army was to be limited to 100,000 and she was required not to have any air force and submarines. She was dispossessed of all her colonies which were taken over by the victors.
- Togo and the Cameroon were divided and shared by Britain and France.
- German colonies in South West Africa and East Africa were given to Britain, Belgium, South Africa and Portugal.
- German colonies in the Pacific and the spheres under her control in China were given to Japan. China was aligned with the Allies during the war and was even represented at the Paris Conference. But her areas under German possession or control were not restored to China; instead they were given away to Japan.
- Germany was also required to pay for the loss and damages suffered by the Allies during the war. The amount of reparations was fixed at an enormous figure of \$6,500,000,000.

Other Treaties: Separate treaties were signed with the allies of Germany. Austria-Hungary was broken up and Austria was required to recognize the independence of Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Poland. She had to cede territories to them and to Italy. Many changes were made in the Balkans where new states were created and transfers of territories from one state to another took place. Baltic States which earlier formed parts of the Russian empire were made independent. The treaty with Turkey stipulated the

complete dismemberment of the Ottoman empire Britain was given Palestine and Mesopotamia (Iraq) and Syria went to France as what were called 'mandates'. In theory, the 'mandatory' power, that is Britain and France, were to look after the interests of the people of the 'mandates' but actually they were governed as colonies. Most of the remaining Turkish territories were to be given to Greece and Italy and Turkey was to be reduced to a very small state. However, there was a revolution in Turkey under the leadership of Mustapha Kemal. The Sultan was deposed and Turkey was proclaimed a republic in 1922. Turkey regained control of Asia Minor and the city of Constantinople (Istanbul) and the Allies were forced to abandon the earlier treaty.

The League of Nations

An important part of the peace treaties was the Covenant of the League of Nations. Wilson's Fourteen Points included the creation of an international organization for the preservation of peace and to guarantee the independence of all states. The League of Nations was created. It was intended as a world organization of all independent states. It aimed at the preservation of peace and security and peaceful settlement of international conflicts, and bound its members 'not to resort to war'. One of its important provisions was with regard to sanctions. According to this provision, economic and military action would be taken against any country which committed aggression. It also bound its members to improve Labour and social conditions in their countries. For this the International Labour Organization was set up which is now one of the specialized agencies of the United Nations.

The hopes of having a truly world organization devoted to the preservation of peace and independence of nations were, however, not realized with the formation of the League. Two major countries – Germany and the Soviet Union — were not allowed to become its members for many years while India, which was not independent, was made a member. The United States which had played an important part in the setting up of the League ultimately decided not to join it. The League was never an effective organization. In the 1930s when many countries resorted to aggression, the League was either ignored or defied.

An important feature of the peace treaties which indicates its nature was the decision with regard to the colonies of the defeated powers. The Allies had entered into many secret agreements for dividing the spoils of war. The Soviet government, to bring out the imperialist nature of the war, made these treaties public. During the war, the Allies had been claiming that the war was being fought for freedom and democracy. President Wilson had said that the war was being fought "to make the world safe for democracy". The publication of secret treaties by the Soviet government exposed these claims. However, in spite of this, the distribution of the colonies of the defeated countries among the victors took place as has been mentioned before. Of course, the Soviet Union which had repudiated all the secret agreements did not receive any spoils which had been promised to the Russian emperor. The League of Nations also recognized this division of the spoils. Legally most of the colonies which were transferred to the victorious powers were 'mandates' and could not be annexed.

Reason For The Failure Of League Of Nation

The League of Nations was the first major attempt as an international organization of state to maintain peace and promote international co-operation. But it failed. Some of the causes of its failure are briefly mentioned as follows:—

The political background of Europe at the time of the birth of the League was not very conducive to a peace organization. World War I had been fought ostensibly to make the world safe for democracy, to end all future wars, etc. But essentially it was an imperialist war for the division and re-division of colonies.

The major powers namely the allied and the associated powers were, no doubt, victorious but peace as it emerged was an imperialist peace. The secret treaties among major powers were concluded at the very outset.

The League of Nations was a part of the Versailles peace treaty. But men like Clemenceau (French P.M.) and Lloyd George never wanted its success. Clemenceau actually ridiculed the idea and said to Wilson, "I like your League of Nations. I like it very much but I do not believe in it," Thus the imperialist character

of the peace handicapped the League throughout its history.

At no stage of its history did the League represent the world balance of forces. The U.S.A. never became its member and Russia stepped in only in 1934. Thus its effectiveness as an instrument of the world peace suffered.

In absence of Russia and America, it was actually dominated by the Anglo-French powers and became an instrument of their policy in Europe and since these powers were not interested in peace so much as in maintenance of their imperialist domination and destruction of Soviet Union, the League of Nations never had a chance to succeed.

The League of Nations was founded on the principle of unanimity of all the members except those who were party to a dispute. Thus every single member including the smallest had the right to veto. This system had two very important consequences.

1. A small power could very irresponsibly hamstring the League in its action against an aggressor. For instance aid to Republican Spain and condemnation of Fascist attack against Spain was prevented by a hostile vote of Portugal. The small powers who could not have the responsibility of maintaining world peace, could yet wreck it.
2. The big powers very often used small powers as stalking horses from behind the veto of a small member and thus escaped responsibility for a particular decision before their own people and world public opinion.

The world was divided into two social systems-the capitalistic and socialistic. The absence of Russia created a very real danger that the League might be used against the new socialist state. Unfortunately this danger proved to be real. The League which condoned fascist aggressions one after the other, wasted no time in violating its very principles by expelling Soviet Union on the question of Finland.

The spheres of activity of the Council and the Assembly were not clearly defined. It led to confusion of responsibility.

The responsibility for maintenance of peace was not securely placed anywhere. The Council of the League which alone could shoulder it was burdened with other responsibilities regarding minority treaties, mandatory territories, etc.

Despite these flaws, the League could have been made an instrument of peace if the powers dominating had wished it so. The articles of the covenant of the League provided for economic and military sanctions against the aggressors. The League failed because the leading powers never wanted a durable peace.



CHAPTER - 10**BETWEEN THE
TWO WORLD WAR****GERMANY AND ITALY AFTER THE FIRST WORLD WAR****The Weimar republic of Germany**

As Germany moved towards defeat in 1918, public opinion turned against the government, and in October the Kaiser] in a desperate bid to hang on to power, appointed prince Max of Baden as chancellor. He was known for, in favour of a more democratic form of government in which parliament had more power.

In November 1919, a revolution broke out in Germany. The Kaiser escaped to Holland and abdicated, and Prince Max resigned, Friedrich Ebert, leader of the left-wing social democrat party, and becomes head of the government. In January 1919 a general election was held, the first completely democratic government was formed in Germany. The social democrats emerged as the largest single party and Ebert became first president of the republic. They had some Marxist ideas but believed. That the way to achieve socialism was through parliamentary democracy.

The new government was by no means popular with all Germans. Even before the elections the communists had attempted to seize power in the Spartacist rising (January 1919). In 1920 right-wing enemies of the republic occupied Berlin (The Kapp Putsch). The government managed to survive these threats and several later ones, including Hitler's Munich Beer Hall Putsch (1923).

By the end of 1919 a new constitution had been agreed by the national assembly which was meeting at Weimar because Berlin was still torn by political unrest. This Weimar constitution (sometimes called the most perfect democratic constitution of modern times, at least on paper), gave its name to the Weimar republic and lasted until 1933, when it was destroyed by Hitler. The new constitution adopted the democracy. It had a set of fundamental rights. Elections were to be held on the basis of universal adult suffrage on the basis of proportional representation. It favored parliamentary system of government in which chancellor and his cabinet was directly responsible to Reichstag. Germany was to be a republic and its head i.e., the president was to be elected for a period of 7 years by a popular vote. The parliament was a bicameral legislature of which the lower house was to be called Reichstag. Provision was also made for Supreme Court.

Achievements of Weimar republic

With all the limitations constraints and hostile attitude of allied power Weimar government did some good work. In the domestic field the government tried to solve financial crisis by using labor saving devices and by arranging international loan under Dawes plan which helped in the payment of reparation installment and economic stability of the country. New currency was issued and new techniques in coal mining were made to reduce dependence on imports of foreign goods. Shipping industry was paid full attention. But these efforts could achieve only partial success because automation and rationalization resulted in unemployment. The Weimar government failed to solve all the domestic problems. The country continued to face the same serious problems of inflation and unemployment. The government failed to bring economy on sound footings. It could balance its budget only when she was in a position to receive foreign loans. She continued to have unfavorable balance of trade. The masses continued to suffer. Because of all these reasons the Weimar government failed to last long in Germany.

The Weimar republic also achieved considerable success in foreign relations also. During Weimar government in foreign policy matters Stresemann was the guiding force. He made international field including the areas of trade and commerce, Germany should get back her lost prestige. He also tried to get back lost

colonies which Germany had to surrender by signing the treaty of Rapallo with Russia. The aim was both to win the friendship of Russian on the one hand and gain some concession from France and Britain on the other. He also suggested his people to accept Dawes plan, which he felt could help in the economic recovery of the country. It was because of his wise policy that France was made to leave Ruhr. In addition to his Germany got the membership of league of nation during this period. Germany was also in a position of conclude Locarno pact, about which a mention has been made, which very much increased German prestige in international affairs. In 1926 Germany signed another treaty with Russia which reaffirmed the spirit of Rapallo treaty of 1922. It was this German drift towards Russia that Germany was not only offered permanent membership of League of Nations but also forced the allied powers to leave Rhineland five years ahead of the schedule.

Fall of Weimar Republic

The reasons for the Weimar republic's collapse are the subject of continuing debate. It may have been doomed from the beginning since even moderates disliked it and extremists on both the left and right loathed it. Germany had no democratic traditions and Weimar democracy was widely seen as chaotic. And since Weimar politicians had been blamed for the "stab in the back" myth that was then widely believed in Germany as the real cause of the surrender of the German army in World War 1, the popular legitimacy of the government was on shaky ground. No single reason can explain the failure of the Weimar republic. The most commonly asserted causes can be grouped in to three categories: economic problems, institutional problems and the roles of specific individuals.

The republic faced a number of challenges from the beginning. The republic had accepted the humiliating and unpopular Versailles treaty, with its arms limitations, reparations and war guilt clause and was therefore always associated with defeat and dishonor. German nationalists could never forgive it for that. By the treaty of Versailles it had been provided that Rhineland was to be permanently 15 years. The attitude of French troops stationed there was that of arrogance and the soldiers had the airs of a victor which was a serious challenge to patriot Germans, who wanted to throw these soldiers out of Germany was an important problem for the new government.

There was a traditional lack of respect of democratic government and a great admiration for the army and the officer class as the rightful leaders of Germany. In 1919 the view was widespread that the army had not been defeated but it had been betrayed and stabbed in the back by the democrats who had needlessly agreed to the Versailles treaty. What most Germans did not realize was that it was General Ludendorff who had asked for an armistice while the Kaiser was still in power. However, the stab in the back legend was eagerly fostered by all enemies of the republic.

The parliamentary system introduced in the new Weimar constitution had weaknesses, the most serious of which was that it was based on a system of proportional representation, so that all political groups would have a fair representation. Unfortunately there were so many different groups that no party could ever win an overall majority. For example, in 1928 the Reichstag (lower house of parliament) contained at least eight groups of which the largest were the social democrats (153), nationalists (conservatives-78) and the catholic centre party (62). The communist has 54 seats, while the smallest groups were the Bavarian people's party (16) and the national socialists (12). A succession of coalition government was inevitable, with the social democrats having to rely on co-operation from left-wing liberals and the catholic centre. Because of this no party was able to carry out its programme.

The political parties had very little experience of how to operate a democratic parliamentary system, because before 1919 the Reichstag had not controlled policy: the chancellor had the final authority and was the one who really ruled the country. Under the Weimar constitution it was the other way round- the chancellor was responsible to the Reichstag, which had the final say-however, the Reichstag usually failed to give a clear lead because the parties refused to compromise. The communists and nationalists did not believe in the republic anyway and refused to support the social democrats. Disagreements became so bitter that some of the parties organized their own private armies, for self-defence to begin with, but this increased the threat of civil- war. The combination of these weaknesses led to more outbreaks of violence and attempts to overthrow the republic. The government seemed incapable of preventing these.

Institutional problem faced by the republic

It is widely agreed that the 1919 constitution had several weaknesses, making the eventual establishment of a dictatorship likely but it is unknown whether a different constitution could have prevented the third Reich.

The institution of the Reichspräsident (president) was frequently considered as an Ersatzkaiser (substitute emperor) on attempt to replace the Kaiser (who resigned and fled in 1918) with a similarly strong institution meant to diminish party politics. Article 48 of the constitution gave the president power to take all necessary steps if public order and security are seriously disturbed or endangered. Although this was intended as an emergency clause, it was often used before 1933 to issue decrees without the support of parliament and also make Gleichschaltung easier. For example, the Reichstag fire decree was issued on the basis of article 48.

The use of almost pure proportional representation meant any party with a small amount of support could again entry into the Reichstag. This led to many small parties, some extremist, building political bases within the system (in 1949, four years after the second world war the electoral law was changed and only parties with 5 % or more of the total vote would be allowed to enter the bundestag).

The Reichstag could remove the Reichskanzler (chancellor) from office even if it was unable to agree on a successor. This “motion of no confidence” led to many chancellors in quick succession, adding to the republic’s instability. The constitution provided that in the event of the presidents’ death or resignation, the Reichskanzler would assume that office (and crucially possess its power) pending election of a new president. This allowed Hitler to easily unit the offices of Reichskanzler and Reichspräsident after Hindenburg’s death in 1934.

Role of individuals in the fall of the republic

Some historians prefer to consider individuals and the decisions they made in the fall of the republic. This brings up the problematic question of what alternatives were available at the time and leads to speculation and hypothesis.

Burning’s economic policy from 1930-1932 has been the subject of much debate. It caused many debate. it caused many Germans to identify the republic with cost in social spending and extremely liberal economics. Whether there were alternatives to this policy during great depression in an open question.

Paul von Hindenburg became Reichspräsident in 1925. He represented the older authoritarian 1871 empire, and it is hard to label him as a democrat in support of the 1919 republic, but he was never a Nazi. During his later years (at well over 80 years old), he was also senile. A president with solid democratic beliefs may not have allowed the Reichstag to be circumvented with the use of article 48 decrees and might have avoided signing the Reichstag fire decree. Hindenburg waited one and a half days before he appointed Hitler as Reichskanzler on January 30, 1933, which indicates some hesitance. Some claim Nazism would have lost much public support if Hitler had not been named chancellor.

Writers John Cornwell and Lam Kershaw are amongst the modern commentators who have studied the role of Ludwig Kaas and his alliance to Pope Pius XII. As regards the Rhenish-Westphalian industrial magnates and Franz von Papen, the Nuremberg trials studied the era from January 30, 1933, and came to the conclusion that it would not be an indictable offence to have assisted Adolf Hitler and the NSDAP to power.

Economic difficulties faced by the republic

In 1999 Germany was close to bankruptcy because of the enormous expense of the war. Thus the new born republic was faced with serious financial crisis the allied power forced Germany to pay huge reparation on the on hand and on the other hand her resources were taken away. Her coal and industrial belts were taken away from her. Thus the new government found it impossible to balance her budget. This resulted in high inflation. Because of decline of industries and the international trade the government was faced with serious economic problems.

The German attempts to pay reparations installments made matters worse. In august 1921, after paying the \$ 50 million due, Germany requested permission to suspend payment until her economy recovered.

France refused, and in 1922. The Germans claimed they were unable to make the full annual payment. In January 1923 French troops occupied the Ruhr can important factories and mines. The German government ordered the workers to follow a policy of passive resistance and German industry in the Ruhr was paralyzed. The French had failed in their aim, but the effect on the German economy was catastrophic – galloping inflation and the collapse of the mark.

The economic situation improved dramatically in the year's offer 1924, largely thanks to the Dawes plan of that year, which provided a immediate loan from the USA equivalent to \$ 40 million, relaxed the fixed reparations payments and in affect allowed Germany to pay what she could afford. French troops withdrew from the Ruhr. The currency was stabilized, and wealthy landowners and industrialists were quite happy with the republic, since they were doing well out of it. Germany was even able to pay her reparations installments under the Dawes plan.

The work of the Dawes plan was carried a stage further by the young plan agreed in October 1929. This reduced the reparations from \$ 6600 million, to be paid in annual instilments over fifty nine years. There were other successes for the republic in foreign affairs. Thanks to the work of Stresemann, and it seemed stable and well-established. But behind this success there was a total weakness.

The prosperity was much more dependent on the American loans than most people realized. It the USA were to find herself in financial difficulties so that she stopped the loans, or worse still, wanted them paid back quickly, the German economy would be shaken again. Unfortunately this is exactly what happened in 1929. Following the Wall Street crash (October 1929) the world economic crisis developed. The USA stopped any further loan and began to call in many of the sort-term loans already made to Germany. This caused a crisis of confidence in the currency and led to a run on the banks, many of which had to close. The industrial boom had led to world- wide over-production, and German exports, along with those of other countries, were severely reduced. Factories had to close, and by the middle of 1931 unemployment was approaching 4 million sadly for Germany, Gustav Stresemann, the politician best equipped to deal with the crisis, died of a heart attack in October 1929 at the early age of 51.

To deal with the crisis the government of chancellor Brüning reduced social services, unemployment benefit, and salaries and pensions of government officials, and stopped reparations payments high tariffs were introduced to keep out foreign foodstuffs and thus help German farmers, while the government bought shares in factories hit by the slump- however, these measures did not produce quick results, though they did help after a time; unemployment continued to rise and by the spring of 1932 it stood at over 6 million. The government came under criticism from almost all groups. In society, especially industrialists and the working class who demanded more decisive action. The loss of much working class support because of increasing unemployment and the reduction in unemployment benefit was a serious blow to the republic. By the end of 1932 the Weimar republic had thus been brought to the very of collapse.

Violent incidents against Weimar republic

In January 1919 the Spartacist Rising Occurred (Spartacus was a roman who led a revolt of slaves in 71 BC), in which the communists, inspired by the success of the Russian revolution and led by Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg, occupied almost every major city in Germany, in Berlin, president Ebert found himself besieged in the chancellery. The government managed to defeat the communists only because it accepted the help of the freikorps (independent volunteer regiments raised by anti-communist ex-army officers). It was a sign of the government weakness that it had to depend on private forces which it did not itself control. The two communist leaders did not receive a fair trial; they were simply clubbed to death by freikorps members.

In March 1920 the Kapp putsch was organized. This was an attempt by right- wing groups to seize power. It was sparked off when the government tried to disband the freikorps. They refused to disband and declared Dr. Wolfgang Kapp chancellor. Berlin was occupied by a freikorps regiment and the cabinet fled to Dresden. The German army (Reichswehr) took no action against the putsch (coup or rising) because the generals were in sympathy with the right. In the end the workers of Berlin came to the aid of the social democrat government by calling a general strike which paralyzed the capital. Kapp resigned and the government

regained control. However, it was so weak that nobody was punished except Kapp, who was imprisoned, and it took two months to get the freikorps disbanded. Even then the ex-members remained hostile to the republic and many later joined Hitler's private armies.

Another threat to the government occurred in November 1923 in Bavaria, at a time when there was much public annoyance at the French occupation of the Ruhr and the disastrous fall in the value of the mark. Hitler, helped by General Ludendorff, aimed to take control of the Bavarian state government in Munich. And then lead national revolution to overthrow the government in Berlin. However, the police easily broke up Hitler's march, and the beer hall putsch (so called because the march set out from the Munich beer hall in which Hitler had announced his national revolution the previous evening) soon fizzled out. Hitler was sentenced to five years imprisonment but served only nine months because the Bavarian authorities had a lot of sympathy with his aims.

The violence died down during the years 1924 to 1924 as the republic became more stable, but when unemployment grew in the early 1930s, the private armies expanded and regular street fights occurred between Nazis and communists all parties had their meetings broken up by rival armies and the police seemed powerless to prevent happening.

Rise of Nazism in Germany

Nazi Germany and the third Reich are the common English names for describing Germany under the regime of Adolf Hitler and the national socialist German workers party to the Nazi party. This was an anti-Semitic and racist fascist political party that established a totalitarian dictatorship which existed in Germany from 1933 to 1945.

For about a decade after the First World War from 1919-29 democracies made remarkable progress all over the world. However this trend did not last long and during the next decade Europe witnessed the rise of totalitarian dictatorships under different names and forms. The failure of Weimar republic provided Hitler and the Nazi party a good opportunity to come to the power.

Following civil unrest, the worldwide economic depression of the 1930s spurred by the stock market crash in the US, the counter traditionalism of the Weimar period, and the rise of communism in Germany, many voters began turning their support towards the Nazi party with its promises of strong government, civil peace, radical changes to economic policy, and restored national pride. The Nazi party promised cultural renewal based on traditionalism, and it proposed military rearmament in opposition to the treaty of Versailles, the Nazis claimed that in the treaty of Versailles and the liberal democracy of the Weimar republic, Germany's national pride had been lost. The Nazis also endorsed the Dolchstoßlegende ("stab in the back legend") which figured prominently in their propaganda as it did in propaganda of most other nationalist leaning parties in Germany.

The Nazis offered what seemed to be an attractive alternative just when the republic had become most ineffective. The humiliating treatment meted out to Germany under the treaty of Versailles was greatly resented by the German people and army and they wanted to see Germany rise to the glory which it once enjoyed. No doubt. During the republican rule, Germany's terrible amount of war indemnity was reduced, reparation was divided into 85 installments, and the allies withdrew their armies from the Rhine land, yet the Germans nourished a feeling of resentment against the humiliating and insulting behavior meted out to them by the allies, and eagerly looked for an opportunity to avenge the same, these sentiments were fully exploited by Hitler, who was "an adept psychologist, a clever demagogue and a master showman, he was a resourceful agitator, a tireless worker and an able organizer. He openly encouraged the Germans "to consign the treaty of Versailles into the waste-paper basket offer tearing it." They also popularized the myth of the back. The Nazis promised to restore the lost national glory. Hitler proclaimed that he will bring all Germans (in Austria, Czechoslovakia and Poland) into the Reich.

The fortunes of the Nazi party were linked closely to the economic situation. Without the economic crisis though, it is doubtful whether Hitler would have had much chance of attaining power. It was the

widespread unemployment and social misery, together with the fear of communism and socialism, which gained the Nazis mass support, not only among the working class (recent research suggests that between 1928 and 1932 the Nazis attracted over 2 million voters away from the socialist SPD), but also among the lower middle class-office-workers, shopkeepers, civil servants, teachers and small scale farmers. The more unstable the economy, the more seats the Nazis won in the Reichstag. They offered national unit, prosperity and full employment by ridding Germany of what they claimed were the real causes of the troubles- Marxists, the November criminal (the people who had agreed to the armistice in November 1918 and later the Versailles treaty), Jesuits, freemasons and Jews. The Nazi private army, the SA (sturmbteilung- storm troopers) was attractive to young people out work. It gave them a small wage and a uniform. Wealthy landowners and industrialists encouraged the Nazis because they feared a communist revolution and they approved of the Nazi policy of hostility towards the communists.

A small clique of right-wing politicians with support from the Reichswehr (German parliament) decided to bring Hitler into a coalition government with the nationalists. The main conspirators were Franz von Papen and General Kurt von Schleicher. They were afraid of the Nazis attempting to seize power by a putsch. They believed they could control Hitler better inside the government than if he remained outside it, and that a taste of power would make the Nazis mollify their extremism the nationalists only had 37 seats in the Reichstag (July 1932), but the Nazi votes would go a long way towards giving them a majority which might make possible a restoration of the monarchy and a return to the system which had existed under Bismarck in which the Reichstag had much less power. Though this would destroy the Weimar republic, these right-wing politicians were prepared to go ahead because it would give them a better chance of controlling the communists who had had their best result so far in the July 1932 election by winning 89 seats.

President Hindenburg was persuaded to dismiss Brüning and appoint Papen as chancellor. They hoped to bring Hitler in as vice-chancellor, but he would settle for nothing less than himself as chancellor. In January 1933 therefore they persuaded Hindenburg to invite Hitler to become chancellor with Papen as vice-chancellor, even though the Nazis had by then lost ground in the elections of November 1932. Papen still believed that he can push Hitler into a corner. Hitler was able to come to power legally therefore, because all the other parties failed to recognize the danger from the Nazis, and so failed to unite in opposition to them. It ought to have been possible to keep the Nazis out; they were losing ground and had nowhere near an overall majority. But instead of uniting with the other parties to exclude them, the nationalists made the fatal mistake of inviting Hitler into power.

Consolidation of Hitler

On January 30, 1933 Adolf Hitler was appointed chancellor of Germany by president Hindenburg after attempts by General Kurt von Schleicher to form a viable government fouled. Even though the Nazis had gained the largest share of the popular vote in the two Reichstag general elections of 1932, they had no majority of their own and just a slim majority in parliament with their Papen-Proposed nationalist DNUP-NSDAP coalition.

The new government installed a totalitarian dictatorship through a series of measures in quick succession. On the night of February 27, 1933 the Reichstag building was set on fire and Dutch council communist Marinus van der Lubbe was found inside the building. He was arrested and charged with starting the blaze. The event had an immediate effect on thousands of anarchists, socialists and communists throughout the Reich, many of whom. Were sent to the Dachau Concentration Camp the unnerved public worried that the fire had been a signal meant to initiate the communist revolution, and the Nazis found the event to be of immeasurable value in getting rid of potential insurgents. The event was quickly followed by the Reichstag fire decree, rescinding habeas corpus and other civil liberties.

The Enabling Act was passed in March 1933, with 444 votes, to the 94 of the remaining social democrats. The act gave the government (and thus effectively the Nazi party) legislative powers and also authorized it to deviate from the provisions of the constitution for four years. With these powers, Hitler removed the remaining opposition and turned the Weimar republic into the “Third Reich”.

For Hitler to create the Nazi dictatorship, Germany had to become a one party state. this was achieved by the Nazis, as by June 1933 the social democrats had been banned, the communists had been banned and the German nationalists (DNVP), German peoples' party (DVP) and German democratic party (DDP) had all been forced to disband. The remaining catholic centre party, at Papen's urging, disbanded itself on July 5, 1933 after guarantees over catholic education and youth groups. On July 14, 1933 Germany was officially declared a one-party state with the passing of the law a gains the formation of parties.

Symbols of the Weimar republic, including the black-red-gold flag (now the present day flag of Germany) were abolished by the new regime which adopted both new and old imperial symbolism to represent the dual nature of the imperialist- Nazi regime of 199. The old imperial black-white-red tricolor, almost completely abandoned during the Weimar republic, was restored as one of Germany's two officially legal national flags. The other official national flag was the swastika flag of the Nazi party. It became the sole national flag in 1935.

Further consolidation of power was achieved on January 30, 1934 with the Gesetz uber den Neuaufbau des Reich's (Act to rebuild the Reich). The act changed the highly decentralized federal Germany of the Weimar era into a centralized state. it disbanded state parliaments, transferring sovereign rights of the states to the Reich central government and put the state administrations under the control of the Reich administration.

In the spring of 1934 only the army remained independent from Nazi control. The German army had traditionally been separated from the government and was somewhat of an entity of its own. The Nazi paramilitary SA expected top position in the new power structure and wanted the regime to follow through its promise of enacting socialist legislation for Aryan Germans. Wanting to preserve good relation with the army and the major industries who were weary of more political violence erupting from the SA, on the night of June 30, 1934, Hitler initiated the violent "Night of the long knives" a purge of the leadership ranks of Rohm's SA as well as hare-left Nazis (strasserists), and other political enemies, carried out by another, more elitist, Nazi organization, theses.

At the death of President Hindenburg on August 2, 1934 the Nazi-controlled Reichstag merged the offices Reichspräsident and Reichskanzler and reinstalled Hitler with the new title fuhrer and Reichskanzler. Until the death of Hindenburg, the army did not follow Hitler, partly because the paramilitary SA was much larger than the German Army (limited to 100,000 by the treaty of Versailles) and because the leaders of the SA sought to merge the Army into itself and to launch the socialist "second revolution" to complement the nationalist revolution which had occurred with the ascendance of Hitler. The murder of Ernst Roehm, leader of the SA, in the night of the long knives, the death of Hindenburg, the merger of the SA into the army and the promise of other expansions of the German military wrought friendlier relations between Hitler and the army, resulting in a unanimous oath of allegiance by all soldiers to obey Hitler. The Nazis proceeded to scrap their official alliance with the conservative nationalists and began to introduce Nazi ideology and Nazi symbolism into all major aspects of life in Germany. School books were either rewritten or replaced, and school teachers who did not support Nazi fiction of the curriculum war fired.

The inception of the Gestapo, police acting outside of any civil authority, highlighted the Nazis intention to use powerful, Coercive means to directly control German society. An army, estimated to be of about 100, 000, spies and informants operated throughout Germany, reporting to Nazi officials the activities of any critics or dissenters. Most ordinary Germans, happy with the improving economy and better standard of living, remained obedient and quiet, but many political opponents, especially communists and Marxist or international socialists, were reported by omnipresent eavesdropping spies and put in prison camps where many were tortured and killed. It is estimated that tens of thousands of political victims died or disappeared in the first few years of Nazi rule.

Characteristic features of Nazism

There has been great debate among historians about whether National Socialism was a natural development of German history, or whether it was a one-off, a distortion of normal development. Many British and American historians argued that it was a natural extension of earlier Prussian argued that it was a natural

extension of earlier Prussian militarism and German traditions. Marxist historians believed that National Socialism and fascism in general were the final stage of western capitalism which was bound to collapse because of its total flows. But German historians like Gerhard Ritter and K.D Bracher stressed on the personal contribution of Hitler, arguing that Hitler was striving to break away from the past and introduce something completely new, and that National Socialism was a grotesque departure from the normal and logical historical development. This is probably the majority view at the moment.

The Nazi party was more than just one political party among many. It was a way of life dedicated to the rebirth of the nation. The Nazis believed that all classes in society must be united to make Germany. A great nation again and restore national pride. Since the Nazis had the only correct way to achieve this, it followed that all other parties, in one party rule. The Nazis were not at all prepared to tolerate any opposition and wanted that the party should control all activities in the state. For them multiplicity of political parties and political ideologies created more confusion rather than solving any problem.

The state was supreme to them and the interests of the individual always came second to the interests of the state. The Nazis glorified state and for them the state was above everything else. The will of the state was expressed through party leader. Thus every individual must merge himself in the state. He has no right either to challenge the authority of the leader or that of the state. It is the state which cared for the collective welfare of the all living in the state. In Nazism there was no place for the individualism. Without state the individuals had no place and existence. The state represents all individuals and their collective interests. Since it was likely that greatness could only be achieved by war; the entire state must be organized on a military footing.

The race theory was vitally important to Nazi philosophy; they believed that mankind could be divided into two groups, Aryans and non-Aryans. The Aryans were the Germans, ideally tall, blond, blue-eyed and handsome; they were the master race and were destined to rule the world. Hitler believed the German race was the only pure race and that all other races were mixed races. He therefore pleaded that German race All other races such as slaves, colored peoples and particularly Jews were inferior and must accept German superiority and its culture and traditions.

POLICIES OF HITLER

Economy policy

When the Nazis came to power the most pressing issue was an unemployment rate of close to 30% the economic policies of the third Reich were in the beginning the brainchildren of Hilmar Schacht, who assumed office as president of the central bank under Hitler in 1933, and became finance minister in the following year. Schacht was one of the few finance ministers to take advantage of the freedom provided by the end of the gold standard to keep interest rates low and government budget deficits high, with massive public works funded by large budget deficits. The consequence was an extremely rapid decline in unemployment and that was most rapid decline in unemployment in any country during the great depression. Eventually this Keynesian economic policy was supplemented by the boost to demand provided by rearmament and swelling military spending.

The strict state intervention in the economy and the massive rearmament policy led to almost full employment during the 1930s. But the real wages in Germany dropped by roughly 25% between 1933 and 1938. Trade unions were abolished as well as collective bargaining and the right to strike. The right to quit also disappeared. Labor books were introduced in 1935, and required the consent of the previous employer profit incentive to guide investment; investment was guided through regulation to accord with needs of the state. Government financing eventually came to dominate the investment process, which the proportion of private securities issues falling from over half of the total in 1933 and 1934 to approximately 10 % in 1935-1938. Heavy taxes on profits limited self-financing of firms. The largest firms were mostly exempt from taxes on profits; however government control of these were extensive enough to leave “only the shell of private ownership.” Another part of the new German economy was massive rearmament, with the goal being to expand the 100,000- strong German army into a force of millions.

Political ideology

The totalitarian nature of the Nazi party was one its principal tenets. The Nazis contended that all the great achievements in the past of the German nation and its people were associated with the ideals of National Socialism, even before the ideology officially existed. Propaganda accredited the consolidation of Nazi ideals and successes of the regime to the regime's fuehrer ("leader") Adolf Hitler, who was portrayed as the genius behind the Nazi party's success and Germanys savior. To secure their ability to create a totalitarian state, the Nazi party's paramilitary force, the sturmabteilung (SA) or "storm unit" used acts of violence against leftist's democrats, Jews, and other opposition or minority groups. The SA'S violence created a climate of fear in cities, with people anxious over punishment, or even death, if they displayed opposition to the Nazis the SA also helped attract large numbers of alienated and unemployed youth to the party.

The Nazis endorsed the concept of Gerobdeuschland, or greater Germany, and believed that the incorporation of the Germanic people into one nation was a vital step towards their national success. It was the Nazis' passionate support to the concept of greater Germany that lead to Germany's expansion, that gave legitimacy and the support needed for the third Reich to proceed to conquer long-lost territories with overwhelmingly non-German population like former Prussian gains in Poland that it lost to Russia in the 1800s, or the acquire territories with German population like parts of Austria. The German concept of lebensraum (Living Space) or more specifically its need for an expanding German population was also claimed by the Nazi regime for territorial expansion. As a further extension of policy of political expansion (the lebensraum Programme) the Nazis attempted that Eastern Europe should be settled with ethnic Germans. And the Slavic population who met the Nazi racial standard should be absorbed into the Reich. Those, who were not fitting the racial standards, were to be used as cheap labour force or they were to be deported eastward.

Foreign policy

From 1933 onward, Hitler and the Nazi regime performed a number of political manoeuvres in order to restore German power on an international level, all in violation of the Versailles treaty. As Germany's agenda became increasingly revisionist, opposition grew. However, the 1935 Anglo-German naval agreement between Great Britain and Germany, allowing Germany to resume formerly- illegal naval construction, was seen by both sides as an important overture of peace given a Shipbuilding rivalry of the past.

That same year Germany endorsed a plebiscite in German populated sear, which resulted in its returning to Germany in 1935, after held by France as a protectorate since 1919. In 1936, with no British or French forces remaining in the Rhineland (which was to be permanently demilitarized of German forces). Germany defied the Versailles treaty by sending military forces into the Rhineland.

From 1936 onward, Germany steadily proceeded on an interventionist foreign policy approach, beginning by supporting the fascist nationalist forces of Francisco Franco during the Spanish civil war against the republican forces which were supported by the Soviet Union. German aircraft took park in attacks on Spanish republican forces as well as the infamous bombing of civilians in the Basque town of Guernica in 1937.

Although Germany's relations with Italy improved with creation of the Rome-Berlin axis, tensions remained high because the Nazis wanted Austria to be incorporated into Germany. Italy was opposed to this, as were France and Britain. In 1938, an Austrian- led Nazi coup took place in Austria and Germany sent in its troops, annexing the country. Italy and Britain no longer had common interests and, as Germany had stopped supporting the Germans who were under Italy's control in south Tyrol, Italy began to gravitate towards Germany.

Germany's annexation of the Sudetenland from Czechoslovakia in September 1938 came about during talks with British Prime Minister Neville chamberlain, in which Hitler, backed by Italian dictator Benito Mussolini demanded that the German territories be ceded. Chamberlain and Hitler came to an agreement when Hitler signed a piece of paper which said that with the annexation of the Sudetenland, Germany would

proceed with no further territorial aims. Chamberlain took this to be a success in that it avoided a potential war with Germany. However, the Nazis helped to promote Slovakian dissension which resulted in the dismemberment of Czechoslovakia. Hitler annexed the Czech part into Germany.

Germany had engaged in informal negotiations with Poland regarding the issue of territorial revision for quite some time but after the Munich Agreement and the reacquisition of Memel, the Hitler became increasingly vocal. But Poland refused to allow the annexation of the free city of Danzig. Germany and the Soviet Union began talks over planning an invasion of Poland. In August 1939, the Molotov pact was signed and Germany and the Soviet Union agreed to divide Poland along a mutually-agreed set boundary. The invasion was put into effect on September 1, 1939. Last-minute Polish-German diplomatic proceedings failed, and Germany invaded Poland as scheduled. Germany alleged that Polish operatives had attacked German positions. Hitler's attack on Poland resulted in the outbreak of World War II as allied forces refused to accept Germany's claims on Poland.

Legal system of Nazi Germany

Most of the judicial structures and legal codes of the Weimar Republic remained in use during the Third Reich, but significant changes within the judicial codes occurred, as well as significant changes in court rulings. The Nazi Party was the only legal political party in Germany and all other political parties were banned. Most human rights of the constitution of the Weimar Republic were disabled by several Reichsgesetze (Reich's Laws). Several minorities such as the Jews, opposition politicians and prisoners of war were deprived of most of their rights and responsibilities.

The plan to pass a Volksstrafgesetzbuch (people's code of criminal justice) arose soon after 1933, but didn't come into reality until the end of WWII. Hitler established a new type of court, known as the People's Court in 1934. This court dealt with the cases of political importance only. From 1934 to September 1944, a total of 5,375 death sentences were spoken by the court.

Military policy

The military of the Third Reich- the Wehrmacht- was the name of the unified armed forces of Germany from 1935 to 1945 with Heer (Army), Kriegsmarine (Navy), Luftwaffe (Air Force) and a military organization Waffen-SS (National Guard), which was, de facto, a fourth branch of the Wehrmacht.

The German Army furthered concepts pioneered during the First World War, combining ground and air force assets into combined arms teams. Coupled with traditional war fighting methods such as encirclements and the "battle of annihilation", the German military managed many lightning quick victories in the first year of the Second World War prompting foreign journalists to create a new word for what they witnessed: blitzkrieg. The total number of soldiers who served in the Wehrmacht during its existence from 1935 until 1945 is believed to approach 18.2 million.

Social policy

The Nazi social policy divided the German public into two groups namely the "Aryans" and the "non-Aryans" for "Aryan" Germans, a number of social policies were initiated by the regime to benefit them. These steps included state opposition to the use of tobacco and an end to official stigmatization toward Aryan children who were born from parents outside of marriage, as well as giving financial existence to Aryan German families who bore children.

The Nazi Party pursued its racial and social policies through persecution and killing of those who were considered social undesirables or "enemies of the Reich" Especially targeted were minority groups such as Jews, Romani (also known as gypsies), slaves, people with mental or physical disabilities and homosexuals. In the 1930s, plans to isolate and eventually eliminate Jews completely in Germany began with the construction of ghettos, concentration camps, and labor camps which began with the 1933 construction of the Dachau concentration camp, which Heinrich Himmler officially described as "the first concentration camp for political prisoners."

In the years following the Nazi rise to power, many Jews were encouraged to leave the country and many did so. By the time the Nuremberg laws were passed in 1935, Jews were stripped of their German citizenship and denied government employment. Most Jews employed by Germans lost their jobs at this time, which were being taken by unemployed Germans. Notably, the Nazi government attempted to send 17,000 German Jews of Polish descent back to Poland. This provided the pretext for a pogrom the Nazi party incited against the Jews on November 9, 1938, which specifically targeted Jewish businesses. By September 1939 more than 200,000 Jews had left Germany, with the Nazi government seizing any property they left behind.

The Nazis also undertook programmes targeting “weak” or “unfit” people, such as the T-4 Euthanasia programme, killing tens of thousands of disabled and sick Germans in an effort to “maintain the purity of the German master race” as described by Nazi propagandists. The techniques of mass killing developed in these efforts would later be used in the Holocaust under a law passed in 1933, the Nazi regime carried out the compulsory sterilization of over 400,000 individuals labeled as having hereditary defects, ranging from mental illness to alcoholism.

Another component of the Nazi programme of creating racial purity was the Lebensborn, or “fountain of life” programme founded in 1936. The programme was aimed at encouraging German soldiers- mainly SS- to reproduce. This included offering SS families support services (including the adoption of racially pure children into suitable SS families) and accommodating racially- valuable women, pregnant with mainly SS men’s children, in care homes in Germany and throughout occupied Europe. Lebensborn also expanded to encompass the placing of racially pure children forcibly seized from occupied countries such as Poland – with German families.

At the outset of World War II, the German authority in the general government in occupied Poland ordered that all Jews face compulsory labor and that those who were physically incapable such as women and children were to be confined to ghettos.

To the Nazis a number of ideas appeared on how to answer the “Jewish question”. One method was a mass forced deportation of Jews. Adolf Eichmann suggested that Jews be forced to immigrate to Palestine. Franz Redemacher made the proposal that Jews be deported to Madagascar; this proposal was supported by Himmler and was discussed by Hitler and Italian dictator Benito Mussolini but was later dismissed as impractical in 1942. The idea of continuing deportations to occupied Poland was rejected by the governor Hans Frank, of the general government of occupied Poland, as Frank refused to accept any more deportations of Jews to the territory which already had large numbers of Jews. In 1942, at the Wannsee conference, Nazi officials decided to eliminate the Jews altogether, as discussed the “final solution of the Jewish question”. Concentration camps like Auschwitz were converted and used gas chambers to kill as many Jews as possible. By 1945, a number of concentration camps had been liberated by allied forces and they found the survivors to be severely malnourished. The allies also found evidence that the Nazis were profiteering from the mass murder of Jews not only by confiscating their property and personal valuables but also by extracting gold fillings from the bodies of some Jews held in concentration camps.

Social welfare

Recent research by academics such as Gotz Aly has emphasized the role of the extensive Nazi social welfare programmes that focused on providing employment for German citizens and insuring a minimal living standard for German citizens. Heavily focused on was the idea of a national German community. To aid the fostering of a feeling of community, the German people’s labour and entertainment experiences- from festivals, to vacation trips and travelling cinemas- were all made a part of the “strength through joy” (Kraft durch Freude, kdf) programme. Also crucial to the building of loyalty and comradeship was the implementation of the national labour service and the Hitler youth organization, with compulsory membership. In addition to this, a number of architectural projects were undertaken kdf created the kdf-wagen, later known as the Volkswagen (people’s Car) which was designed to be a cheap, inexpensive automobile that every German citizen would be able to afford. The kdf wagon also was created in the idea that it could be converted to military vehicle for

war. Another national project undertaken was the construction of the autobahn, made in the first freeway system in the world.

Education policy

Education under the Nazi regime focused on racial biology, population policy, culture, geography and especially physical fitness. Anti-Semitic policy led to the expulsion of Jewish teachers and professors and officials from the education system. All university professors were required to be a member of the national socialist association of university lecturers in order to be able to be employed as professors.

Women's Rights

The Nazis opposed women's emancipation and opposed the feminist movement, claiming that it was Jewish and was bad for both women and men. The Nazi regime advocated a patriarchal society in which German women would recognize the "world is her husband, her family, her children, and her home." Hitler claimed that taking of vital jobs away from men by the women during the great depression, was economically bad for families in that women were paid only 66 percent of what men earned. The being said, Hitler never considered forcing the idea of raising women's wages to avoid such a scenario again, but instead called for women to stay at home. Simultaneously with calling for women to leave work outside the home, the regime called for women to be actively supportive of the state regarding women's affairs. In 1933, Hitler appointed Gertrud Schultz-Klink as the Reich women's leader who instructed women that their primary role in society was to bear children and that women should be subservient to men, once saying "the mission of woman is to minister in the home and in her profession to the needs of life from the first to last moment of man's existence.

The Nazi regime discouraged women from seeking higher education in Secondary school, universities and colleges. The number of women allowed to enroll in universities dropped drastically under the Nazi regime, which shrank from approximately 128,000 women being enrolled in 1933 to 51,000 in 1938. Female enrollment in secondary schools dropped from 437,000 in 1926 to 205,000 in 1937. However with the requirement of men to be enlisted into the German armed forces during the war, women made up half of the enrollment in the education system by 1944.

Organizations were made for the indoctrination of Nazi values to German women. Such organizations included the jungmadel (Young Girls) section of the Hitler youth for girls from the age 10 to 14, the bund Deutscher model CBDM, (German girls league) for young women from 14 to 18. Nonetheless, one reason for allied success in the war was that Germany never fully mobilized with regard to women while the nations arrayed against Germany not only recruited women into the military services but also unhesitatingly accepted women into the civilian workforce, particularly militarily critical jobs (Such as heavy truck/lorry driver, ship-fitter) previously held by men. Only late in the war, after many German municipalities were already bombed into rubble, did Germany begin training women and girls in how to operate anti-aircraft cannon located in their own neighborhoods. Despite the somewhat official restrictions, some women forged highly visible, as well as officially praised, achievements.

Fascism

Fascism is an ideology, a faction or a political philosophy that believes in aggressive nationalism. The fascists place the interests of the state above the individual. The fascist form of government is characterized by a centralized autocratic state government by a dictatorial head, stringent organization of the economy and society, and aggressive repression of opposition. In addition to placing the interests of the individual as subordinate to that of the nation or race, fascism seeks to achieve a national rebirth by promoting colts of unity, energy and purity. Fascists promote a type of national unity that is usually based on (but not limited to) ethnic, cultural, national, racial, and/or religious attributes.

Rise of fascism in Italy

The fascists in Italy were those who wore the black shirt as a sort of uniform and drilled themselves in quasi military companies. They were highly patriotic and exalted the authority of the state. They also stood of the

Italian patriotism and nationalism. The leader these people was Benito Mussolini who participated as a soldier in First World War and ultimately became founder and leader of fascist party.

Disappointment at Italy's gains from the peace settlement was one of the important factors responsible for the rise of fascism. Though Italy fought on the side of the victorious allies in the First World War, she emerged from the war a defeated nation. Six hundred and fifty thousand Italians had been killed and a million wounded. She was not happy with the terms of peace settlement because she was not given what had been promised to her by the treaty of London concluded during the war when she entered the war the allies had promised her trentino, the south Tyrol, Istria, Trieste, part of Dalmatia, Adalia, some Aegean islands, and a protectorate over Albania by the secret treaty of London (1915) in exchange for Italy's entrance into the war. Although she was given the first four areas, the rest were awarded to other states, mainly Yugoslavia and Albania was made independent. The Italians felt cheated in view of their valiant efforts during the war. Their failure to get Fiume (given to Yugoslavia), was particularly irritating to them. Naturally Italy felt dissatisfied, disappointed and considerably wounded in her self-esteem.

The programme of the fascists promised order and glory to the people of Italy. This programme was in consonance with the aspirations of the people and attracted the people towards them. Because of this the public extended willing support to its leaders. The fascists emphasized that the democracy was not suitable for the country because it widens the gap between the poor and the rich, the country could make progress only under one leader.

The fascism grew Italy to meet the challenges of the disorder created by the international communist movement in Italy. The communists, who were growing in large numbers, created serious danger to the Italian way of life. The government also proved weak to check the penetration of the communists. The fascists set up clubs all over the property and conservative sections of the society. After a series of fascist-socialist street fights and riots, the Anti Bolsheviks began to look to Mussolini's fascist bands to defend their interests. D'Annunzio's defeat left Mussolini as his natural heir. The leftist opposition to Mussolini was further weakened when the communists split off from the socialist party in 1921. The fascists grew enormously, from 30,000 in May 1920 to 100,000 in February 1921, to more than 300,000 in October 1922. Liberal parliamentary leaders of Italy felt that the fascist bands were teaching the left a useful lesson, so they encouraged army officers to issue rifles, trucks and gasoline to the fascists and assigned officers to command their operations. The police were encouraged to look the other way during disorders started by fascists, and local judges were urged to help by releasing arrested fascists. Mussolini's newspaper was circulated free to the soldiers in the army as a patriotic sheet thus, the fascism arose as an answer to the bolshevism and to curb anarchy.

The effects of the war on the economy and the standard of living were disastrous. The government had borrowed heavily, especially from the USA, and these debts now had to be repaid. Italian industry slumped immediately after the war and within a few months 10 per cent of the industrial workers were unemployed, prices rose rapidly, and wages failed to keep up. The promised pensions for wounded veterans and families of the killed were long delayed. Strikes and disorders became frequent. Many of the young men were released from the armies with no trade but war and no job to go to, they drifted restlessly, prey for leaders with glittering promises. As the lira declined in value, the cost of living increased accordingly by at least five times. There was massive unemployment as heavy industry cut back its wartime production levels, and 2.5 million ex-servicemen had difficulty in finding jobs. Secondly after the end of the war, Italy resorted to demobilization which created serious unemployment and bred discontent, there were wide spread strikes and lock-outs in the country. Hungry mobs organized a number of uprisings and there were frequent riots. Even the middle classes were greatly impoverished. The existing democratic government was considered to be too feeble to tackle the numerous problems confronting the country.

During 1920 and 1921 the industrialists and landowners, squeezed by taxation and inflation, became bitter shopkeepers and traders wanted the street disorders to end, food prices to be regulated and the cooperative food stores of the socialist and catholic parties to be closed as competitors. Professionals and

others with fixed incomes suffered, as prices went up and salaries lagged behind. The police grew tired of suppressing local disorders. In fact there was complete political instability in the country between 1919 and 1922. Six coalition governments were formed in Italy. People thought that under the circumstances only a strong and powerful government could take the country forward. The situation was fully exploited by the fascists under the leadership of Mussolini and they fed the people with the idea of providing a strong truly national government. The Russian revolution also inspired the Italian leaders. The Italian socialist leaders tried to fully exploit the extremely bad economic conditions prevailing in the post world war period and tried to transplant the soviet system in Italy. They organized strikes, lock-outs, riots etc. in Italy and created chaotic conditions in Italy. This way fully exploited by the fascists.

Growing contempt for the parliamentary system also enabled the rise of fascists. Votes for all men and proportional representation were introduced for the 1919 elections. Although this gave a fairer representation than under the previous system, it meant that there was large number of parties in parliament. This flimsy system of franchise prevailing in the country greatly contributed to the rise of fascism in Italy. After the election of May 1921, for example, there were at least nine parties represented, including liberals, nationalists, socialists and communists, this made it difficult for any one party to gain an overall majority, and coalition government were inevitable. No consistent policy was possible as five different cabinets with shaky majorities came and went there was growing impatience with system which seemed designed to prevent decisive government. On account of their mutual differences and bickering, these parties could not take any concerted action against the fascists and thereby greatly contributed to the rise of fascism in Italy.

In the elections of May 1921 Mussolini and thirty four other fascists were elected to the chamber of deputies (the lower house of the Italian parliament), along with ten nationalists as their political allies. The momentum of the fascist movement was now too great to be slowed down. Mussolini abandoned his antimonarchical views, and fascism became a political party in November as a necessary step in the drive for power. The government became alarmed too late and tried to take measures against the fascists, but the fascists were too strong by now and the police too was accustomed to collaborating with them. The liberal politicians were also unaware till now that a lightly directed armed mob could take over the state. The king's cousin had become a fascist sympathizer, as had many generals, the entire nationalist party, and leading industrialists.

In the fall of 1922 it was clear that the army would not resist fascist coup in Rome. When a decree of martial law was presented to the king, he refused to sign it, probably law was presented to the king, he refused to sign it, probably influenced by his knowledge that the army would not fight the fascists and that his cousin would gladly take his crown. The cabinet resigned, and on October 29 the king telegraphed Mussolini in Milan to come to Rome and form a cabinet. Mussolini arrived by sleeping car the next morning, just ahead of thousands of followers who "marched on Rome" by commandeering railroad trains.

Political and legislative policies of the fascist regime

At various times after 1922, Mussolini personally took over the ministries of the interior, foreign affairs, colonies, corporations, defense, and public works. Sometimes he held as many as seven departments simultaneously, as well as the premiership. He was also head of the all powerful fascist party and the armed local fascist militia, the MVSN or "black shirts." Who terrorized incipient resistances in the cities and provinces? He later formed the OVRA, institutionalized secret police that carried official state support. In this way he succeeded in keeping power in his own hands and preventing the emergence of any rival.

Over the next two years, Mussolini progressively dismantled virtually all constitutional and conventional restraints on his power, thereby building a police state. A law passed on Christmas Eve 1925 changed Mussolini's formal title from "president of the council of ministers" to "head of the government." He was no longer responsible to parliament and could only be removed by the king. While the Italian constitution stated that ministers were only responsible to the sovereign. In practice it had become all but impossible to govern against the express will of parliament. The Christmas Eve law ended this practice, and also made Mussolini the only person competent to determine the body's agenda. Local autonomy was abolished and podestats

appointed by the Italian senate replaced elected mayors and councils.

All other parties were outlawed in 1928, though in practice Italy had been a one party state since Mussolini's 1925 speech. In the same year, an electoral law abolished parliamentary elections. Instead, the grand council of fascism selected a single list of candidates to be approved by plebiscite. The grand council had been created five years earlier as a party body but was "constitutionalised" and became the highest constitutional authority in the state. The grand council also had power to recommend Mussolini's removal from office, and was thus theoretically the only check on his power. However, only Mussolini could summon the grand council and determine its agenda.

Economic policy

Mussolini launched several public construction programmes and government initiatives throughout Italy to combat economic setbacks or unemployment levels. His earliest and one of the best known was Italy's equivalent of the green revolution, known as the "battle for grain", in which 5,000 new farms were established and five new agricultural towns on land reclaimed by draining the Pontine Marshes. This plan diverted valuable resources to grain production, away from other less economically viable crops. The huge tariffs associated with the project promoted widespread inefficiencies and the government subsidies given to farmers pushed the country further into debt. Mussolini also initiated the "battle for land", a policy based on land reclamation outlined in 1928. The initiative had a mixed success; while projects such as the draining of the Pontine Marsh in 1935 for agriculture were good for propaganda purposes, provided work for the unemployed and allowed for great land owners to control subsidies; other areas in the battle for land were not very successful. This programme was inconsistent with the battle for grain (small plots of land were inappropriately allocated for large-scale wheat production), and the Pontine Marsh was lost during world war II. Fewer than 10,000 peasants resettled on the redistributed land, and peasant poverty remained high. The battle for land initiative was abandoned in 1940.

He also combated the economic recession by introducing the "gold for the fatherland" initiative, by encouraging the public to voluntarily donate gold jewellery such as necklaces and wedding rings to government officials in exchange for steel wrist bands bearing the words "gold for the fatherland". Even Rachel Mussolini donated her own wedding ring. The collected gold was then melted down and turned into gold bars, which were then distributed to the national banks.

Mussolini pushed for government control over all types of businesses. By 1935, Mussolini claimed that three quarters of Italian businesses were under state control. That same year, he issued several edicts to further control the economy, including forcing all banks, businesses, and private citizens to give up all their foreign-issued stocks and bonds to the bank of Italy. In 1938, he also instituted wage and price controls. He also attempted to turn Italy into a self-sufficient autarchy, instituting high barriers on trade with most countries except Germany.

Foreign policy of fascist Italy

In foreign policy, Mussolini was pacifist and anti-imperialist during his lead-up to the power but he soon shifted to an extreme form of aggressive nationalism. An early example was his bombardment of Corfu in 1923. Soon after he succeeded in setting up a puppet regime in Albania and in ruthlessly consolidating Italian power in Libya, which had been loosely a colony since 1912. It was his dream to make the Mediterranean *mare nostrum* ("our sea in Latin"), and established a large naval base on the Greek island of Leros to enforce a strategic hold on the eastern Mediterranean.

Conquest of Ethiopia

In an effort to realise an Italian empire or the new Roman Empire as supporters called it, Italy set its sights on Ethiopia with an invasion that was carried out rapidly. Italy's forces were far superior to the Abyssinian forces, especially in regards to air power and were soon declared victors. Emperor Haile Selassie was forced to flee the country. Italian forces entered the capital Addis Ababa and proclaimed an empire in May 1936, making Ethiopia part of Italian East Africa.

Despite the fact that all of the major European power of the time had also colonized part of Africa, including some who maintained power by particularly brutal means such as the French and British, detractors of Mussolini commonly choose to single out Italy's actions, retroactively, Italy was criticized for its use of mustard gas and phosgene against its enemies and also for its zero tolerance approach to enemy guerrillas.

When Rodolfo Graziani the viceroy of Ethiopia was nearly assassinated at an official ceremony, with the guerrilla bomb actually exploding among the people there, a very strong handed reaction followed against the guerrillas, including those who were prisoners according to the international Red Cross. The IRC also alleged insisting that the rebels were targeted. It wasn't until the east African campaign's conclusion in 1941 that Italy lost its east African territories.

Spanish civil war and Rome-Berlin axis

Mussolini actively participated in the Spanish civil war during 1936-1939 on the side of Franco. His participation in this conflict any possibility of reconciliation of Italy with France and Britain. As a result, his relationship with Adolf Hitler became closer and he chooses to accept the German annexation of Austria in 1938 and the dismemberment of Czechoslovakia in 1939. At the Munich conference in September 1938, he posed as a moderate working for European peace, helping Nazi Germany seize control of the Sudetenland. Until May 1939, the axis had not been entirely official, however during that month the fact of steel, a treaty was made outlining the "friendship and alliance" between Germany and Italy, signed by each of his foreign ministers.

Munich conference (September 1938)

The allies still regarded Mussolini as approachable at this point and 11 Duce acted as the go between at the Munich agreement. This was an effort to avoid all-out warfare between the powers, which was signed by Neville chamberlain of Britain, Eduard Daladier of France, as well as Mussolini and Hitler. However the Italia irredenta stance, desired the returning of lands which previously belonged to older states now incorporated inside of Italy, to complete the Italian unification. This included nice which was part of the kingdom of Sardinia until 1860, Corsica which was part of the republic of Genoa until 1768 and most contentiously for European relations, Malta which was part of the kingdom of Sicily until 1530.

Mussolini had imperial designs on Tunisia which had some support in that country. In April 1939 with world focus on Hitler's invasion of Czechoslovakia, looking to restore honour form a much older defeat Italy invaded Albania. Italy defeated Albania within just five days forcing king zong to flee, setting up a period of Albania under Italy.

BRITAIN AND FRANCE BETWEEN THE TWO WORLD WAR

Britain

Britain and France did not succumb to fascist movements. However, both these countries were faced with serious economic difficulties. In 1921, there were 2 million unemployed persons in Britain. The workers' movement made great advances. In 1924, the first Labour Party government came to power. However, it did not remain in power for long. In 1926 occurred the biggest strike in the history of Britain involving 6 million workers. The strike ultimately failed. A few years later, Britain was badly affected by the worldwide economic crisis and about three million people were unemployed. In 1931, the National government comprising the Conservative, the Labour and the Liberal parties was formed. This government took some steps to overcome the serious economic difficulties though the unemployment situation remained serious. After the victory of fascism in Germany, a fascist movement started in Britain but it could not make much headway and Britain continued as a democratic country.

France

The government of France for many years was dominated by big bankers and industrialists. It hoped that by making use of the resources of the German areas which had come under her control after the war, it would be able to make France economically strong. However, these hopes were not fulfilled. France could not

attain political stability also. Many governments came and fell. Political instability was made worse as a result of the economic crisis, and corruption became rampant. Fascist movement rose its head and there was violence in the streets. Ultimately, to meet the threat posed by fascist and other antidemocratic forces, a government comprising Socialist, Radical Socialist and Communist parties was formed in 1936. This is known as the Popular Front government and it lasted for about two years. During this period many important economic reforms were introduced in France.

Thus Britain and France succeeded in remaining democratic countries even though they were faced with serious problems. However, the foreign policy of these countries, as you will see later, was not conducive to the maintenance of democracy in other parts of Europe and in preventing the outbreak of war.

USA between Two World Wars

One of the most important features of the period after the First World War was the decline in the supremacy of Europe in the world and the growing importance of the United States of America. She had, in fact, emerged as the richest and the most powerful country in the world at the end of the war. This was clear from the important role that she played during the framing of the peace treaties. While the war had severely damaged the economy of the European countries, the economy of USA during this time had in fact become stronger. She had made tremendous industrial progress and was beginning to make heavy investments in Europe. However, in spite of this progress, the United States was frequently beset with serious economic problems. These problems were the result of the capitalist system about which you have read before.

The Great Depression

The worldwide economic crisis which began in 1929 has been mentioned before. The crisis originated in USA. The years after First World War had seen a big increase in the production of goods in America. In spite of this, however, more than half of the population lived at less than the minimum subsistence level. In October 1929, the entire economy began to collapse. The stock market in New York Crashed. The fall in the value of shares had created so much panic that in one day 16 million shares were sold in New York Stock Exchange. In some companies, the shares held by people became totally worthless. During the next four years, more than 9,000 American banks closed down and millions of people lost their life's savings. The manufacturers and farmers could not get any money to invest and as people had little money to buy, the goods could not be sold. This led to the closing of thousands of factories and throwing of workers out of employment. The purchasing power of the people was thus reduced which led to the closing down of more factories and to unemployment.

The Depression, as this situation is called, began to spread to all the capitalist countries of Europe in 1931. After the First World War, the economies of the countries of Europe, excluding Russia, had become closely connected with and even dependent on the economy of USA, particularly on the American banks. The consequences of the Depression in Europe were similar to those in the USA and in some cases even worse. The economies of the colonies of the European countries were also affected.

Result of The Great Depression

The Depression resulted in large scale unemployment, loss of production, poverty and starvation. It continued throughout the 1930s even though after 1933, the economies of the affected countries began to recover. The crisis as long as it lasted was the most terrible and affected the lives of scores of millions of people all over the world. The estimates of unemployed during this period all over the world vary between 50 and 100 million. In USA alone, the richest country in the world, the number of the unemployed exceeded 15 million. Thousands of factories, banks and business enterprises stopped working. The industrial production fell by about 35 per cent, in some countries by about half.

It may appear surprising that the crisis was caused by overproduction. You have read earlier how under capitalism, the owners of factories and business enterprises try to maximize their profits by producing more and more goods. When production increases but the purchasing power of the workers remains low,

the goods cannot be sold unless their prices are reduced. However, the prices cannot be reduced because this would affect the profits. So the goods remain unsold and the factories are closed to stop further production. With the closure of factories people are thrown out of employment which makes the situation worse as the goods which have been produced cannot be sold. Such crises occurred often in almost every country after the spread of the Industrial Revolution. The crisis of 1929-33 was, however, the worst in history. In this crisis while millions were starving, lakhs of tonnes of wheat were burnt down in some areas to prevent the price of wheat from falling.

Political Consequences

The economic crisis had serious political consequences. You have read how the Nazis in Germany exploited the discontent of the people to promote their anti democratic programme. In many countries, hunger marches were organized and the socialist movement pressed for far-reaching changes in the economic system so that such crises would not recur. The only country which was not affected by the economic crisis of 1929-33 was the Soviet Union.

Economy Of The USA

The economic crisis had worst affected—the economy of the United States. It led to the victory of the Democratic Party and Franklin D. Roosevelt became the President of the United States in 1933. Under his leadership a programme of economic reconstruction and social welfare was started. This programme is known as the New Deal. Steps were taken to improve the conditions of workers and to create employment. As a result of the New Deal, the economy of the United States recovered from the crisis and the industrial production picked up again. In 1939, however, there were still 9 million unemployed people in the United States.

The United States had retained her position as a mighty power. However, her foreign policy was not very different from that of Britain and France. She, like Britain and France, did not adopt a strong position to resist aggressive acts of fascist powers until after the outbreak of the Second World War when she herself had to enter the war.

SOVIET UNION BETWEEN THE TWO WORLD WARS

The emergence of Soviet Union as a major power

The period after the First World War saw the emergence of the Soviet Union as a major power and she began to play a crucial role in world affairs.

Russia's participation in the First World War and the long period of civil war and foreign intervention which followed the revolution had completely shattered the economy of the country. This was a period of acute economic distress for the people. There was a severe shortage of food. The production of industrial goods had fallen far below the prewar level. To make the distribution of goods equitable in conditions of severe scarcity, certain strong measures were taken. The peasants were made to part with their produce which was in excess of what was essential for their own needs. They were not allowed to sell it in the market. The payment of salaries in cash was stopped and instead people were paid in kind, that is foodstuffs and manufactured goods. These measures had created unrest among the peasants and other sections of society but were accepted because they were considered essential to defend the revolution. After the civil war ended, these measures were withdrawn and in 1921, the New Economic Policy was introduced. Under this policy, the peasants were allowed to sell their produce in the open markets, payment of wages in cash was reintroduced and production of goods and their sale in some industries under private control was permitted. A few years later, in 1929, the USSR started its vigorous programme of economic reconstruction and industrialization when it adopted the first of a series of its Five Year Plans. Within a few years, the Soviet Union emerged as a major industrial power. The extraordinary economic progress that the Soviet Union achieved was against heavy odds. Though the foreign intervention had been ended, many countries of Europe, and the United States followed a policy of economic boycott with the aim of destroying the revolution. However, the Soviet Union not only survived but continued to grow economically at a fast rate. She was, as

mentioned before, the only country which remained unaffected by the economic crisis of 1929-33. On the contrary, its industrial development went on as before while millions of people in the west were unemployed and thousands of factories had come to a standstill.

The Soviet Union was not recognized by most European powers and USA for a long time. You have read before that she was not allowed to be represented at the Peace Conference which was held at the end of the First World War nor in the League of Nations. She remained surrounded by countries which were openly hostile to her. However, with its growing strength she could not be ignored and gradually one country after another recognized her. Britain established diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union in 1933. In 1934 she also became a member of the League of Nations. However, in spite of the ending of the isolation of the Soviet Union, the hostility towards the Soviet Union continued. The Soviet Union followed a policy of support to the movements for independence. The help given to China is notable in this context. When the fascist countries started their acts of aggression, the Soviet government pressed for action against them. However, the Western countries did not agree to the Soviet proposals. They continued to regard the Soviet Union as a danger to them and hoped that the fascist countries would destroy her. Their hostility to the Soviet Union led to the appeasement of fascist powers and paved the way for the Second World War.

Asia And Africa Between The Two World Wars

The period following the First World War saw the strengthening of the movements of the peoples of Asia and Africa for independence. As stated earlier, many leaders of freedom movements in Asia and Africa had supported the war effort of the Allies in the hope that their countries would win freedom, or at least more rights after war was over. Their hopes had been belied and the imperialist leaders soon made it clear that the wartime slogans of freedom and democracy were not meant for then colonies. However, the war had weakened the imperialist countries and had contributed to the awakening of the colonial peoples. Their struggles for freedom entered a new phase after the war. The support of the Soviet Union further added to the strength of the freedom movements. Even though most of the countries of Asia and Africa emerged as independent nations after the Second World War, the period after the First World War saw serious weakening of imperialism.

India between The Two World War

In India this was the period when the freedom movement became a mass movement under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi. Many countries in Asia made significant advances towards freedom. You have read before that Iran had been divided into Russian and British spheres of influence before the First World War. The Soviet government after the revolution of 1917 had given up the sphere under her control and had withdrawn all her troops from there. The British, however, tried to extend their influence over the entire country. These efforts were met with a widespread uprising. In 1921, power was seized by Reza Khan who in 1925 became the emperor. The British troops left Iran and the modernization of Iran began.

The British government had waged many wars against Afghanistan in the nineteenth century. As a result of these wars, the independence of Afghanistan had been curbed. The foreign relations of Afghanistan had passed under British control. In 1919, the king of Afghanistan was assassinated and his son, Amanullah became the King. Amanullah proclaimed complete independence of Afghanistan, which was immediately recognized by the Soviet Union. The British government in India waged a war against the new Afghan government but in the end Britain agreed to recognize the independence of Afghanistan. Amanullah's government made vigorous efforts to modernize Afghanistan.

There was an upsurge in Arab countries against Britain and France. The Arabs had been asked by the Allies, during the First World War, to fight against their Ottoman rulers. However, the end of the war did not result in the independence of Arab countries. These countries had assumed additional importance after it was known that they had immense oil resources. Britain and France had extended their control over these countries as their protectorates and 'mandates'. There were uprisings against Britain in Egypt and Britain was forced in 1922 to grant independence to Egypt though British troops continued to stay there.

Syria had been handed over to France after the war. However, from the very beginning France met with intense opposition there. In 1925 there was an open rebellion and the French government resorted to a reign of terror. The city of Damascus which became a centre of revolt was reduced to ruins when the French troops bombed the city from the air and made use of heavy artillery to shell the city. About 25,000 people were killed as a result of bombing and shelling of Damascus. However, in spite of these massacres, the resistance to French rule continued.

China between The Two World War

One of the most powerful movements in this period began in China. In 1911, there was a revolution in China which resulted in the established of a republic. However, power passed into the hands of corrupt governors called warlords. The national movement in China aimed at the overthrow of foreign domination and the unification of China by ending the rule of the warlords. The founder of the national movement in China was Dr. Sun YatSen. He had played an important role in the 1911 revolution and in 1917 had set up a government at Canton in south China. The party formed by him called Kuomintang led the national struggle in China for a number of years.

The Russian Revolution had a deep impact on China. The new government in Russia had renounced all the unequal treaties which the Russian emperors had imposed on China and had promised full support to the Chinese national struggle. In 1921 the Communist Party of China was formed. In 1924, the Kuomintang and the Communist Party decided to work together and the Soviet government gave various kinds of aid, such as the training of a revolutionary army. A number of Soviet political and military advisers worked with the Chinese liberation movement. After the death of Sun YatSen in 1925, the unity between the Kuomintang and the Communist Party was broken and a period of civil war began. In the 1930s when the Japanese attacked China with the aim of subjugating the entire country, the two parties agreed to work together to resist the Japanese invasion. The Communist Party played a leading role in the war of resistance against the Japanese invasion. It was able to establish its supremacy in the country and within a few years after the end of the Second World War was victorious in the civil war.

Africa between the Two World War

This period also saw the emergence of political and national consciousness in Africa. Though the struggles for national independence in Africa gained momentum after the Second World War, the 1920s and the 1930s were a period when the first political associations were formed. An important role in the growth of national consciousness in Africa was played by a series of Pan African Congresses. The Pan African movement asserted the identity and unity of the African people, and independence of Africa. The national movement in 'the Union of South Africa had emerged earlier than in other parts of Africa. In 1912 had been formed the African National Congress which became the leading organization of the South African people. The people of Ethiopia fought heroically against the Italian invasion of Chen country in 193536 and their resistance served as a source of inspiration to the people of Africa.

The national awakening of the people of Asia and Africa and the growing strength of their struggle for freedom were factors of great importance in the making of the modern world. While the long oppressed peoples in these two continents were beginning to assert their right to independence, preparations for another war were being made in Europe.

Japanese Invasion of China

One of the first major acts of aggression after the First World War was the Japanese invasion of China in 1931. A minor incident involving a railway line owned by the Japanese in Manchuria, the northeastern province of China, was made the pretext for the invasion. China, a member of the League of Nations, appealed to the League for sanctions against Japan to stop the aggression. However, Britain and France, the leading countries in the League, were completely indifferent to the appeal and acquiesced in the aggression. Japan occupied

Manchuria installed a puppet government there and proceeded to conquer more areas. The United States also did nothing to counter the aggression. In 1933, Japan quit the League of Nations. She had also started seizing the British and American property in China. However, the appeasement of Japan continued as the Western countries thought that the Japanese could be used to weaken China as well as the Soviet Union. Britain had an additional reason. She did not want to alienate Japan and thus endanger her possessions in Asia.



CHAPTER - 11**WORLD WAR - II****Introduction**

All the close of the Paris peace conference the delegates of the great power expressed hopes that the old mistakes would not be repeated and no nation would amass brute force, but these hopes were completely belied. The events that followed World War I led to the Second World War stern French policy of extraction reparation from Germany worldwide Depression, imperialistic policy of Japan. Mussolini's lust for an empire and the development of dictatorial power of Hitler in Germany were some of the factors that gave a fatal blow to the international order established in 1919. England adopted the policy of appeasement and this encouraged the aggressive nations. Consequently the international situation became frightful. After 1936 the War cloud begins to thicken everywhere and finally on September 1 1939 the Second World War broke out exactly twenty years after World War I, when Germany attacked Poland naturally the ground for the Second World War had been prepared during these twenty years.

Economic and political situation in the world on the Eve of the World War II

The whole world had to suffer economic and political consequence of the World War I. The Conquest of the natural forces and the production of materials goods and arms were held in high respect but after the world war the condition of all these countries became very wretched Economic rivalry between nations increased. There was explosion of population in several countries. Politically the world divided into the Camps: the totalitarian states and the democratic states.

1. Economic Rivalry

The World – Wide Economic depression that followed the world War. I foisted hardships on all government. Industry was in straits, export was declining and unemployment was wide rampant. National Income fell, making it difficult to repay loans. To cope with this situation many countries devolved their currency. England gave up gold standard in 1931 and 35 government followed suit in 1932. Most of the countries restricted imports and increased exports. Some raised tariff and resorted to barter system. But all these measures failed to bring in stability. They simply aroused animosity and Jealousy. It was said at this time 'If goods are not allowed to cross border, armies will'

2. Opulent Vs Indigent Countries

Economic disparity between the countries increased as a consequence of treaties signed after the World War. I Relations with Germany, Italy and Japan became bitter because they thought that in Justice had been done to them. In 1930, Britain, France and the USA Occupied 30 million square miles of land whereas Germany, Italy and Japan shared only 1 million square miles. Out of the seven big nations four were prosperous and owned enough land and the natural resources whereas the other three were resource less and for bidden to expand their territory.

3. Growing Pressure of Population:

The distribution of colonies that was affected after the World War I was not rational there was no space for the growing population of Germany, Italy and Japan were as Britain, Russia, America and France possessed vast areas sparsely populated. As a solution to this problem 10 million Italians immigrated to the new world, Canada and Latin America between 1880 and 1930 during the same period two million Germans immigrated to the USA. This exodus slackened after 1930 and some Europeans settled in British colonies and Latin America. Later on like America, Britain also banned the entry of Asians and Africans into her colonies.

4. *Totalitarianism vs. Democracy:*

The World War I culminated into a struggle between democratic (Britain, France and America) and totalitarian (Germany, Austria and Hungary) powers. The Allied powers came out victorious on the belief that this was a war to finish War. In the name of strengthening democracy. The USA supported Britain and France. The Russian revolution did away with the despotism of the Czar but installed in its place all the more absolute but efficient communist dictatorship. Discontent with its parliamentary democracy, Italy in 1922 handed over power to Fascists under Benito Mussolini. Frustrated with its defeat. Germany wholeheartedly supported Nazi party to establish its dictatorship in 1933. These events proved fatal to democracy. Communist, Fascist and Nazi government differed with each other in their ideology and objectives still they had significant similarities. They were all totalitarian governments where the power was concentrated in the hands of a disciplined organizations which did not want to share it with any one, for all political parties were at the mercy of the government which subscribed to the ideal 'Government of the party, by the party for the party'. These differences between ideologies aggravated international tension and paved the way for the World War.

5. *The Background of World War- II*

After a peace for twenty years the flames of war once again engulfed the whole of Europe on September 1, 1939 and the struggle became Worldwide. The apprehension of war had begun after the Paris peace conference of 1919 when the German delegates were coerced to sign the 'dictated' and 'humiliating treaty' of Versailles. They considered the treaty of Versailles a profane document and wanted to overthrow the restrictions imposed on them. Though Germany had been defeated and crushed, it could not be neglected. At the time of Paris Peace Treaty the German leader Erzberger had said with great confidence. 'The nation with 60 million oppressed people could never perish'.

The 'German Problem' which remained one of the most complicated and disturbing problems of Europe during the period between the world wars finally became the most prominent cause of the Second World War. At the Paris Peace Conference Germany was not treated in a befitting manner. The French policy of extracting reparation from Germany in a harsh manner intensified her indignation. America had gradually adopted the policy of isolationism. Discontented with the peace treaties, Italy joined the revisionists. France wanted to reduce Germany to a state of extinction but Britain wanted to see her prosperous nation able to maintain balance in Europe and act as a shield against communism. Thus Germany got an opportunity of violating the condition of the Treaty of Versailles.

Japan was also discontented with the Paris peace Treaties. Prompted by militarism she started implementing her expansionist policies. Japan attacked and captured Manchuria in September 1931, renamed it Manchukuo and set up a puppet government there. When the League of Nations found Japan guilty of aggression and condemned her, she quit it.

At this time, Mussolini's nationalism touched its high and he attacked Abyssinia. Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis came into existence and divided the whole world into two powerful camps. The Axis powers on one side and the Democratic states on the other. Hitler disregarded the Treaty of Versailles and the German troops entered Rhineland. Republicanism died in Austria and it was merged with Germany on 10 April 1938.

Another important event was the dismemberment of Czechoslovakia. The German population in one of the provinces Sudetenland was above 50 percent. So it was merged with Germany. This temporarily averted the danger of war but cast a fatal effect on the international situation. Through her diplomatic maneuvers Germany won over the Baltic States to her side and signed a treaty with Russia. Britain wanted Germany to peacefully resolve the problem of Poland but Hitler preferred a stern policy. Hitler demanded from Poland the port of Danzig and the Polish Corridor to reach the Sea. With this demand Hitler attacked Poland on the morning of September 1, 1939. This was the beginning of World War II.

Causes of World War II

The Crisis caused by the German demand for Danzig and Polish Corridor was the immediate cause of World War II, but the ground for it had been prepared since the end of world War I. The fundamental causes of this Great War were:

1. Harsh Terms and Conditions of the Treaty of Versailles:

In World War I Germany was defeated and made to sign the humiliating treaty of Versailles. The Allied powers invoked the fourteen principles of Wilson but loyal George. Clemenceau and their fellow diplomats were so overwhelmed by the feelings of revenge. National self-interest and future security that they traded to create an order in which defeated Germany would never be able to raise her head. 'As a result of this treaty Germany had to lose one- eighth of her territories in Europe and 7 million people together with all her colonies. Her naval force which rivaled the naval force of Britain was destroyed and her army was reduced to one lakh. She had to forgo 2/3 of her coal field, 2/3 of iron, 7/10 of zinc and more than half of lead deposits. Churchill writes about this treaty. 'The economic clauses of the Treaty were foolish and harmful. They assisted in conjuring up the curse of militarism and economic crisis. 'A self- respecting country like Germany could not bear such harsh and humiliation conditions for long. Therefore as soon as the opportunity appeared Germany took up arms against the Allied powers to seek vengeance.

2. Rise of Dictators:

After World War I democracy had been set up in the defeated as well as newly created states Weimar republic which was established in Germany was accused of signing the Treaty of Versailles, so the Nazi party rose. It wanted to re-establish the prestige of Germany in the international field. Hitler tried to convince the people of the world that he aimed at establishing peace but soon he turned aggressive. In 1935 he flouted the military clauses in the Treaty of Versailles and declared re-armament. In 1938 he annexed Austria and dismembered Czechoslovakia. Now the clouds of War began together on all sides.

After World War I Mussolini established dictatorship in Italy. He Opposed the Treaty of Versailles. Italy demonstrated her imperialistic designs by attacking Abyssinia. The League of Nations failed to take any action against Italy, which exhibited the weakness of the League.

Japan also unfolded her imperialistic desires and disregarding the League of Nations occupied Manchuria In 1937. Italy Joined the Anti-cementers Pact and the Rome-Berlin –Tokyo Axis came into existence. In May 1939, Italy signed a ten years Treaty with Germany and both the states promised to cooperate with each other in case of war. With the help of the dictators of Italy and Germany Franco established his dictatorship in Spain. Thus these dictators drove the countries of the world to the verge of war.

3. Failure of the League of Nations:

End of the system of collective Security- The league on Nations failed to fulfill its objectives. America did not join the League. This deprived it of the support and assistance of a powerful nation. In the beginning the membership of the League was not open to the vanquished nations. Impressed by the Commendable work done by the League of Nations in certain fields between 1925 and 1929, fifty nations obtained its membership but this was a temporary phase. The Allied powers used the League to grind their own axe. England wanted to exercise international controls over the communistic tendencies of Russia. The aim of France was to see that the terms and condition of the peace conference were observed. Japan ignored the proposals of the League and quit it. Mussolini attacked Abyssinia in 1935, and grabbed it. The League failed to take effective steps during these world crises.

4. Failure of Disarmament Efforts:

Politicians the world over believed that to ensure peace and security the arms race should cease. After the Treaty of Versailles in 1919, the arms and armed forces of the vanquished nation had been greatly reduced. The Allied powers had assured Germany threat after the sometime general disarmament would be implemented to ascertain collective security but the policies adopted by different nations only encouraged armament The first attempt towards disarmament was made in 1921 in the Washington conference in which the major naval powers Britain, America and Japan agreed to delimit the proportions of the tonnage of their warships. The German disarmament conference held in 1932 made efforts to reduce the arms and to put check on them. The five power conference, the four powers pact and the Mac Donald plan were some of the important steps taken in the direction of establishing peace and implementing disarmament, but because of the differences

between France and Germany no decisions could be taken and when Hitler announced to walk out of the conference it totally fizzled out. After this all big and small states began to augment their military power and they would once again sink into the same international chaos in which Europe had been before the First World War began. The atmosphere that developed all round made a future war seem imminent.

5. Contradictory policies of Western Nations and the Failure of the Policy of Appeasement:

The mutual disputes among the Allied powers also contributed to the development of the power of Italy and Germany. After the Paris peace conference the group of Five Allied Powers came to an end and the responsibility for enforcing the peace treaties mainly fell on the shoulders of France and Britain. But differences between these two states had increased on the question of reparation collective security. It was unfortunate that for the sake of her commercial benefits, Britain implicitly helped Germany in her plans of rearmament. To maintain her worldwide empire and international trade Britain wanted to ward off any danger in the Mediterranean region and the Far East. This was why she appeased Italy. Britain did not oppose Japan (from Manchurian Crisis till Sino-Japanese War) because it appeared to be the only war of safeguarding her immediate and future trade interests in far and south-East Asia.

Another reason for adoption of the policy of appeasement was that after World War I France had become very powerful in Europe and to keep her under control Britain wanted to strengthen Germany. This enraged the Allied powers and France made separate treaties with Poland, Belgium and Czechoslovakia. Hitler and Mussolini took full advantage of the differences between France and England and of the policy of appeasement. Mutual distrust weakened the front of Allied powers and they found it difficult to check the growing power of the dictators. Thus the policy of appeasement completely demolished the concept of collective security.

6. Spirit of Extreme Nationalism:

As in World War I, the spirit of extreme nationalism was one of the important causes of the conflict. Because of industrial revolution economic competition had been growing in the world. This economic nationalism was responsible for the war. The need for controlling this nationalism had been felt since World War I came to an end. The spirit of internationalism failed to grow. The influence of extreme nationalism was pre-eminent in Italy, Germany and Japan. Nationalism there aimed at making the nation strong and glorious. Hitler made the concept of 'master race' the basis of national greatness. The economic depression played an important role in accentuating the spirit of nationalism.

7. Rise of the two Rivalry Military Blocs:

Before World War I the whole world was divided into two rival military camps: the one stood for democracy and the other for despotism. Now before World War II again there were two rival military camps. On the new side were nations like Germany, Italy and Japan which formed the Rome Berlin Tokyo Axis. On the other side were allied powers like Britain, France, Soviet, Russia and America. They formed a strong treaty organization when the German armed forces under Hitler attacked Poland, Britain and France supported Poland and the Second World War broke out.

8. The Discontent of the Minorities:

When the Paris treaties shifted boundaries of the states, exchange of races was inevitable. Austria was separated from Germany and Czechoslovakia was recognized as an independent state. This complicated the situation in Balkan Peninsula and central Europe. While the treaties were under preparation the Allied powers dispelled the fear of the minorities by asserting the principle of 'Self-determination'. But these minorities became a source of exciting 'mutual discord' agitation and discontent which finally initiated mutual struggle between various states.

9. The Immediate cause of War: German Attack on Poland:

Hitler suddenly stormed Poland on September 1, 1939. On September 3, Britain and France warned Germany to stop war. But Hitler turned a deaf ear. Consequently Britain and France declared war against Germany. In a short time the war spread like wild fire. This was the origin of World War II.

10. Events of World War II:

For the sake of convenience the events of the World War II can be put into four phases.

11. Phase one:

It comprises events from 1 September 1939 to 21 Jun 1941 when Germany attacked Poland Denmark Netherlands, Belgium, Luxemburg, France, Britain and Greece.

12. Phase two:

Between 22 June 1941 and 6 December 1941. The Axis powers attacked Africa and Germany attacked Russia.

13. Phase Three:

From 7 December 1941 to 7 November 1942. It includes Japanese attack on Pearl Harbors and occupation of Netherlands, East Indies and Caucasus by the armed forces of the Allied powers.

14. Phase Four:

From 8 November 1942 to 6 May 1945. It includes American attack on French North Africa and the surrender of Germany as well as the surrender of Japan between 7 May 1945 to 14 August 1945.

15. Attack on Poland: The War begins:

On 1 September 1939 Hitler forces crossed into the boundary of Poland captured Western Poland within two weeks and besieged her capital Warsaw. Meanwhile, Britain and France declared war against Germany on September 3. The Commonwealth countries (Australia New Zealand, South Africa, Canada and India) also joined the war against Germany. On September 28 Germany and Russia signed an agreement according to which the western part of Poland remained with Germany and the eastern with Russia.

16. Russia occupies Baltic states and attacks Finland:

After the Russo – German agreement, Germany engaged in War with Britain and France on the Western Front. Russia made treaties of cooperation with the three small states of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania in the Baltic region and sought from them an assurance to station her forces there. For the security of Leningrad she wanted facilities to build a military base in Finland. When negotiations between them failed Russia attacked Finland and forced her to surrender on 12 March 1940. Under a Treaty Finland had to cede to Russia a large portion of her territory together with Ladoga lake as well as consent the construction of a naval base at Hangö. Thus Russia reoccupied all the states that had slipped out of her hands after World War I.

17. Fall of Denmark and Norway:

After occupying Poland Hitler asked Britain and France to cease fire. But the Allied powers turned down his proposal. Thereupon in April 1940, Germany attacked and defeated Norway and Denmark. The defeat of these two states invited people's censure of the Chamberlain government. Chamberlain resigned and Churchill became the Prime Minister in his place. He proved to be Great War leader and conducted the war very efficiently.

18. German Attack on Holland and Belgium:

On May 10, Germany attacked Luxemburg, Belgium and Holland. Luxemburg fell the very same day, Holland was occupied after five days and Belgium surrendered on 28 May 1940.

19. Fall of France:

Hitler attacked France on May 10. On May 17 the German forces broke the French line of defense captured a vast area of 60 miles and created a rift between the combined French, Belgian and British Forces stationed in the north and the French forces in the south. France and the Allied powers were in a fragile position now. Calais fell on May 25, Dunkirk on May 27, and the German Forces Converged near the port of Dunkirk. The Belgian ruler Leopold surrendered on May 28 and ceased fire. This made the left wing of the Allied forces

stationed in the north vulnerable and presaged their defeat. Germany again attacked France on June 5 and on June 10 the French government shifted from Paris to Tours.

20. Italy Joins the War:

On June 10, Italy declared war against France and Britain on June 14, the German Forces easily entered Paris because French government had withdrawn her troops from there. Armistice was signed between France and Germany on June 22. According to the terms and condition of the Armistice, France had to cede more than half of her territory which contained most of her industrial estates and all the seaports on the coast of Atlantic. Armistice with Italy was signed on June 23, 1940 according to which France ceded to Italy all the territory she had already won as well as conceded to demilitarize her major bases of Toulou, Tunisia, Corsica and Algeria spread along the Italian border. Some French patriots who still wanted to continue war with Germany reached England under the leadership of De Gaulle, formed an independent French government there and organized an independent French army. This independent French government carried on War with Germany.

21. Germany attacks Britain:

The French defeat weakened the position of Britain. Germany now held sway over all the seas from Norway to south Spain. Encouraged by all this, Germany launched a fierce attack on England on 18 June 1940. The German airplanes bombarded England for five months. But the Churchill government faced Germany with great fortitude. Churchill not only made enthusiastic speeches but made all possible preparations for the defense of England. Therefore, Hitler gradually slowed down his attacks. On the other hand, Italy occupied Somaliland, Kenya and Sudan as well as attacked north Egypt and then Greece. Greece with the help of other states repulsed the Italian forces out of her territory. Now Germany came to help Italy and occupied Greece in April 1941. Russia which was also occupying the Balkan region signed an Agreement with Italy and Germany in September 1941 and entered war on the side of the Axis powers. Within two months Hungary, Rumania and Slovakia also joined the Axis powers. In February 1941, German forces put British forces to rout in Libya, attacked Yugoslavia on 9 April 1941 and conquered her. To finish the British Empire Germany attacked Iraq, Iran and Syria, but here Germany had to give in before the British power, this closed the eastern road for Germany.

22. Germany attacks Russia:

Though Russia and Germany had signed a non-aggression pact in August 1939, Hitler wanted to defeat Russia to ensure the safety of the Eastern frontier. Both Germany and Russia wanted to increase their influence in the Balkan region. This caused rivalry between them. On 22 June 1941 Germany's forces attacked Russia and brought Ukraine, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Finland and eastern Poland under her rule. But Hitler failed to capture Moscow and destroy the Russian army. Germany made a mistake by attacking Moscow. When the winter set in it became difficult for Germany to advance further. Counter attack by Russian army forced German forces to retreat from the suburbs of Moscow. However, they occupied 5 Lakh square miles of Russian territory.

23. Japan Attacks America:

Japan had already been trying to establish her influence in Asia and the Pacific region. With Germany she formed the Rome–Berlin–Tokyo–Axis. Taking advantage of the fall of France, Japan occupied French Indochina and captured her military and naval bases. These activities of Japan alerted Britain and America. America warned Japan not to disturb the peace of the Pacific region. But all of a sudden Japan attacked Pearl Harbor in the Hawaii islands on 17 December 1941. 19 naval ships including 8 warships were either sunk or damaged badly. 177 airplanes were lost, 2,343 soldiers were killed and more than 2000 wounded. On the next day that is on December 8, America and England declared war on Japan and made the war a world war in true sense.

24. Japan Military Campaign (December 1941- May 1942):

Japan like Germany achieved great success in the beginning. Having attacked Pearl Harbor, she quickly

moves towards European empires in South East Asia and the Pacific as well as the American islands and by the end of December 1941. She deprived Britain of Hong Kong and in January 1942 brought a large portion of Philippine Islands under her control. By the middle of February, the British naval base at Singapore passed under the control of Japan she defeated Burma by the end of March and closed all the routes of sending military equipment to China. In March itself she defeated the Joint fleets of Holland, America, England and Australia, sent some of her armed forces into Java and within a few weeks occupied the whole of Dutch East Indies and sailed up to Australia. In May 1942 she captured Watan and Coregidar. The remaining bases in the Philippines. Thus within six months she destroyed the European and American empires in East Asia and the Pacific region.

25. The Russian Front:

In spite of a prolonged struggle the Germany armed forces failed to penetrate any further into Russia. In the winter of 1941 the Russian attacked Germany forces and forced them to retreat. German forces failed to capture Moscow, but they soon trampled over Crimea and occupied Sebastopol during the summer a division of the German forces moved south towards Caucasus and captured its rich oil fields; another division moved east in the direction of Stalingrad on the Volga and reached there by the end of August. Thus by March 1942 the German armed forces had captured the whole of western region, Ukraine and Crimea in the south and had penetrated deep into the Caucasus region defense mechanism and inspired the Russian army and citizens to resist the enemy with new enthusiasm. In August 1942, Churchill visited Russia, explained the plan of Allied Powers to Stalin and obtained his concurrence. On November 19, 1942 the Russian army mounted a fierce counter attack against Germany and besieged twenty two divisions of Germany army between the Volga and Don Rivers. This gave a momentous shock to German armed forces as well as the prestige of Hitler. This put an end to German dream of ever establishing control over Russia.

26. The War takes a New Turn-Defeat of Axis Powers in Africa and Europe:

Up to the middle of 1942, the Axis powers carried on their victory march successfully in Europe. Africa and East Asia and Britain, America and Russia had to recede at every front. But by the end of 1942 the progress of Axis powers came to a halt. In November 1942, the Joint forces of Britain and America began to drive out Italian and German forces from North Africa and ultimately the Allied powers established their control there. In this victory campaign General Montgomery and Eisenhower showed great powers.

27. Defeat of Italy:

The Condition of Allied powers improved in 1943. On July 10, they attacked Sicily. Italian forces were very weak and suffered defeat at every place. Mussolini asked Hitler to help but he could not send any help. The Joint forces of Allied powers attacked Italy on July 18, after a fierce struggle Mussolini was arrested on July 23 Italy surrendered on 3 December 1943. Meanwhile the German paratroopers liberated Mussolini who once again tried to bring Italy under his influence with the help of Germany but in vain. Ultimately the Allied powers occupied Rome on 4 June 1944.

28. Defeat of Germany:

The defeat of Germany started from Stalingrad when the Russian army surrendered the German armed forces. By February 1943 more than one lakh German soldiers had been killed. The danger to Moscow had passed off. In the summer Russia frustrated the German forces. In the struggle that lasted about two months more than one lakh eighty thousand German soldiers perished and about 3500 German planes 20 thousand military vehicles and other arms and weapons including 1300 tanks were destroyed. The Russian armed forces now entered Poland devastated Nazi forces and Conquered Rumania England and Bulgaria. Finally on 8 March 1944 two thousand American bombers bombarded Berlin. The armies of the Allied powers were landed on the north western seacoast of France. By 1944 the number of forces in France reached 3 lakhs. German Fortification on the French border was pulled down.

On August 15, 1944 the forces of Allied powers were landed on the east. Mediterranean coast of France; they Captured the ports of Toulouse and Marseilles. The German occupied Paris fell on August 25 and the German army Surrendered.

After the Liberation of France the Allied Forces liberated all other states occupied by Germany. Almost all the states in the Balkan Peninsula sided with the Allied powers. In November 1944 the Allied powers entered Germany via Holland. When these forces had crossed the River Rhine, The German people turned against Hitler and a conspiracy was hatched to murder him. Meanwhile, Russian forces liberate all the states under German rule in the eastern region and marched towards Berlin. On April 22, 1945 Russia attacked Berlin, British, French and American forces also converged there. Finally, Berlin fell on 2 May 1945 and the German army surrendered on May 4. Hitler with his wife Iva Braun committed suicide and the Italian patriots shot Mussolini and wife dead. Armistice was signed on May 7, 1945 and on May the war in Europe came to an end.

Defeat of Japan and the End of the World War: After the defeat of Germany Allied powers turned their attention towards Japan. Now the British forces made a rapid advance in the Far East and liberated Burma. Then Malaya, Philippines and Singapore were liberated. Lastly a fierce attack was mounted on Japan. In the Potsdam Conference held on July 26, 1945 the Allied powers asked Japan to make an unconditional surrender but Japan turned a deaf ear. As a result on August 6, 1945, America dropped the first atom bomb on the prosperous city of Hiroshima. A second bomb was dropped on Nagasaki on August 9. Japan offered to surrender on the terms of Potsdam declaration on August 10 and the War came to an end on August 14 thus the fierce and annihilating Second World War lasted almost six years.

Political Consequences of World War-II

The Second World War was the most barbarous, fierce and devastating war in human history, it was so colossal and consequential than an age ended with it many new ideologies were born in Europe after World War II. The new ideologies of democracy and nationalism that had emerged after the French Revolution had successfully stood the test of time. But after the world War some of these ideologies had worn out. The spirit of nationalism began to decline. The new awakening brought about by the industrial revolution and the development of science enhanced the importance of economic organization of society. We can study the political consequences of this war under the following heads:

1. *Change in the Techniques of Warfare:*

Beginning of the Nuclear Age: The techniques used in this war greatly differed from those used in the previous wars. Hitler's technique of Blitzkrieg surprised the whole world. The victories that required years and months to accomplish were now attained in weeks and days. Army and navy did not have as much importance in this as the air force and aeroplanes. New methods of attack and counter-attack were successfully tested. The use of the atom bomb brought the world on the verge of disaster. All the scientists of the world over realized that man had attained super human powers in the form of atomic energy.

In the present day man has developed intercontinental supersonic jet planes, missiles carrying nuclear heads as well as planes and submarines powered with nuclear energy.

2. *Division of Society into two Ideologies:*

Several new tendencies were born in the history of Europe after World War II. The spirit of nationalism had waned and was being replaced by those new ideologies that aimed at reorganizing society in a new way. Society was now divided into two ideologies: communism and democracy. The communists wanted the means of production to be owned by the public as a whole and nobody should get any income without engaging himself in productive labour. Differences between high and low should be abolished; a classless society should be established and the government should control all business activities. On the other hand, believers in democracy, no doubt, favored the abolition of social distinction between high and low but they held that the government should make laws to control the origin, exchange and distribution of property to maintain coordination between capital and labour, landowners and peasants, and everyone should get an adequate share of property. During the world war many people felt no scruples in helping the enemy if it held identical ideas against which their own national governments were fighting. Now loyalty to the nation, patriotism and the spirit of sacrifice for the motherland were replaced by devotion to ideology.

3. Weakening of the Spirit of Nationalism:

Scientific development has annihilated time and space. Differences based on language, religion, race and culture have dissolved. Nations have now begun to organize themselves into various groups. After World War II the East Europeans nations which followed the communist ideology decided to form a bloc under the overall patronage of Russia. Similarly the west European nations which stood for democracy decided to join into a group to avert communism.\

United Nations

A conference was held at San Francisco, USA, from 25 April 1945. The conference was attended by 50 nations. On 26 June the conference adopted the United Nations Charter under which a new world organization was set up This was the United Nations Organization which was based on the principle of “the sovereign equality of all peace loving states” The purposes of the United Nations Organization were to maintain international peace and security, to develop friendly relations among nations and to achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character.

To carry out these objectives, six principal organs of the United Nations Organization (now referred to as the United Nations or simply the UN) were created these were:

1. The General Assembly composed of all the members of the UN;
2. The Security Council composed of five permanent members, viz. the United States, the Soviet Union, Britain, France and China, and six others to be elected by the General Assembly for a period of two years The Security Council was made primarily responsible for the maintenance of peace and security (The number of nonpermanent members was subsequently raised from six to ten).
3. The Economic and Social Council of 18 members to promote “respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all”
4. The Trusteeship Council
5. The International Court of Justice
6. The Secretariat with a Secretary General appointed by the General Assembly as its head.

OTHER specialized agencies of the UN

A number of specialized agencies of the UN were also created such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the World Health Organization (WHO), Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the International Labour Organization (ILO) (this body had been created after the First World War), etc. It was realized that unless all the permanent members of the Security Council, who were at that time the biggest powers, were agreed, no course of action for the maintenance of peace and security could be effective. Hence it was provided that any decision of the Security Council must have the support of all five permanent members. The setting up of the United Nations was one of the most important consequences of the Second World War.

Successes of the United Nations

- The First and foremost it has prevented the occurrence of any further world wars. Instrumental in the maintenance of international balance of power.
- It played a Significant role in disarming the world and making it nuclear free. Various treaty negotiations like ‘Partial Test Ban Treaty’ and ‘nuclear non-proliferation treaty’ have been signed under UN.
- Demise of colonialism and imperialism on one hand and apartheid on the other had UN sanctions behind them.

- UN Acted as vanguard for the protection of human rights of the people of the world, Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948.
- Despite crippled by Bretton Woods Institutions, UN has played limited but effective role on economic matters. Supported the North-South dialogue and aspired for emergence of new international economic order.
- Agencies of United Nations like WHO, UNICFF, UNESCO have keenly participated in the transformation of the international social sector.
- Peace keeping operations, peaceful resolution of disputes and refugee concerns had always been on the list of core issues.
- Since 1945, the UN has been credited with negotiating 172 peaceful settlements that have ended regional conflicts.
- The world body was also instrumental in institutionalization of international laws and world legal frame work.
- Passage of various conventions and declarations on child, women, climate, etc, highlights the extra-political affairs of the otherwise political world body.
- It has successfully controlled the situation in Serbia, Yugoslavia and Balkan areas.
- A number of peace missions in Africa has done reasonably well to control the situation.

Failures of the United Nations

- UN opinion on Hungary and Czechoslovakia were ignored by the erstwhile Soviet Union in 1950s.
- Israel had been taking unilateral action through decades in its geographical vicinity and nothing substantial has come out even by September 2010.
- No emphatic role in crisis of worst kinds like the Cuban Missile Crisis, Vietnam crisis etc.
- UN was nowhere in the picture when the NATO rained bombs over former Yugoslavia.
- Uni-polarity and unilateralism has shaken the relevance of the world body. Unilateral action in Iraq was bereft of UN sanction.
- Failed to generate a universal consensus to protect the deteriorating worldclimate, even at Copenhagen in 2009.
- Number of nuclear powers in the world has kept on increasing. UN Could not control the horizontal expansion and proliferation of weapons and arms.
- Financial dependence on the industrialized nations has at times deviated UN from neutrality and impartiality.
- The world body has failed to reflect the democratic aspiration of the world. Without being democratic itself, it talks of democratization of the world.
- Aids is crossing regions and boundaries both in spread and intensity.
- Domestic situation of near anarchy in Iraq and many regions of Afghanistan, despite on active UN. The US President scheme of withdrawal has not able to bring any specific solutions in the region. In fact, the situation has been further aggravated.
- The UN totally exposed in the case of US invasion on Iraq in name for the search weapon of mass destruction. US has withdrawn its combat forces but the law and order and mutual distrust has worsened and at this juncture UN seems to be clueless



CHAPTER - 12**COLD WAR****Meaning of cold war**

The term cold war refers to the war of ideologies. It signifies disturbed jealousy and state of active hostility without actually fighting the war. Cold war involves an arms race and a war of ideological propaganda. The term cold war was used in modern times to describe the tension that prevailed between the two power blocks namely the capitalist bloc headed by USA and the communist bloc led by Russia. American Bernard Bruch used the term cold war for the first time in the context of the relations between USA and USSR. In a speech in South Carolina on April 16, 1947 Bruch said that "let us not be deceived: we are today in the midst of a cold war." After Bruch the American, the American journalist Walter Lippman used this phrase.

The cold war was the period of conflict, tension and competition between the United States and the Soviet Union and their respective allies from the mid-1940s until the early-1990s throughout this period the rivalry between the two superpowers unfolded in multiple arenas: military coalitions; ideology; psychology and espionage; sport; military, industrial and technological development including the space race; costly defence spending; a massive conventional and nuclear arms race; and many proxy wars.

Several events led to suspicion and distrust between the United States and the Soviet Union; US intervention in Russia supporting the White Army in the Russian Civil War, Russia's withdrawal from World War I and the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany, the Bolsheviks' challenge to capitalism, the US refusal to recognize the Soviet Union until 1933. Other events in the period immediately before WWI increased this suspicion and distrust. The British appeasement of Germany and the German-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact are two notable examples.

There was never a direct military engagement between the US and the Soviet Union, but there was half a century of military build-up as well as political battles for support around the world, including significant involvement of allied and satellite nations' proxy wars. Although the US and the Soviet Union had been allied against Nazi Germany the two sides differed on how to reconstruct the post-war world even before the end of World War II. Over the following decades, the cold war spread outside the containment of communism and forged numerous alliances to this end particularly in Western Europe, the Middle East and South East Asia. There were repeated crises that threatened to escalate into world wars but they never did notably the Berlin Blockade (1948-1949) the Korean War (1950-1953) the Vietnam War (1959-1975) the Cuban Missile Crisis (1962) and the Soviet-Afghan War (1979-1989) there were also periods when tension was reduced as both sides sought détente. Direct military attacks on adversaries were deterred by the potential for mutual assured destruction using deliverable nuclear weapons.

Origin of cold war

The basic cause of cold war lay in the differences of principle between the communist state or liberal democratic states. The communist system of organizing the state and society was based on the ideas of Karl Marx which believed that the wealth of a country should be collectively owned and shared by everybody the economy should be centrally planned and the interests and well-being of the working classes safeguarded by state social policies. The capitalist system on the other hand operates on the basis of forces behind capitalism are private enterprise in the pursuit of making profits and the preservation of the private wealth.

There is some disagreement over that constitutes the beginning of the cold war. While most historians say that it began in the period just after World War II, some say that it began towards the end of World War

I though tensions between Russia/USSR and Britain and the united states date back to the middle of the 19th century fferences between the political and economic systems of Russia and the Russian revolution of 1917. From the neo-Marist world systems perspective, Russia differed from the west as a result of its late integration into the capitalist world systems perspective, Russia differed from the west as a result of its late integration into the capitalist world economy in the ath century. Striding to catch up with the industrialized west as of late 9th century, Russia at the time of the revelation in 1917 war essentially a semi-peripheral or peripheral states whose internal balance of forces. Tipped by the domination of the Russian industrial sector by foreign capital, had been such that it suffered a decline in its relative diplomatic power internationally. From this perspective the Russian revolution represented a break with a form of dependent industrial development and a radical with drawl form the capitalist world economy.

Other scholars have argued that Russia and the west developed fundamentally different political cultures shaped by Easter orthodoxy and rule of tsar other have linked the cold war to the legacy of different heritages of empire building between the Russian and Americans. From this view, the United States like the British Empire was fundamentally a maritime power based on trade and commerce, and Russia was a bureaucratic and land based power that expanded from the centre in a process of territorial accretion.

Modern historians trace the origins of the cold war to the Bolshevik revolution of 1917. Ever since the world's first communist government was setup in Russia (USSR) in 1917, the governments of most capitalists states viewed it with mistrust and were afraid of communism spreading to their countries- when civil war broke out in Russia in 1918 several capitalist states the USA, Britain, France and Japan sent troops to Russia to help the anti communist forces. The communists won the war, but Joseph Stalin, who became Russian leader in 1929, was convinced that there in 1929, was convinced that there would be another attempt by the capitalist powers to destroy communism in Russia the German invasion of in 1941 proved him right.

Stallin suspected that the USA and Britain were still keen to destroy communism, he felt that their delay in launching the invasions of France, the second front was deliberately calculated to keep most of the pressure on the Russian's and bring them to the point of exhaustion. Nor did they tell stallin about the existence of the atomic bomb until shortly before its use on Japan, and they rejected his request that Russia should share in the occupation of Japan. The need of self- preservation against Germany and Japan caused the USSR, the USA and Britain to forget their differences and work together, but as soon as the work together, but as soon as the defeat of Germany clear, both sides and espe Cially Stallin began to plan for the post war period.

POST 1945 DEVELOPMENTS

The Yalta conference (Feb. 1945)

At the Yalta conference in February 1945, the allies attempted to define the framework for a post war settlement in Europe. This was held in Russia (in the Crimea) and was attended by the three Allied leaders, Stalin. Roosevelt and Churchill so that they could plan what was to happen when the war ended. At the time it seemed to be a success, agreement being reached on several points. The German capital Berlin, which happened to be in the middle of the Russian Zone, would also be split into corresponding Zones. Similar arrangements were to be made for Austria.

However, there were differences in opinion about Poland. Russian armies had swept through Poland, driving the German back, they had set up a communist government in Lublin, even though there was already a polish government should be allowed to join the Lublin government, while in return, Russia would be allowed to keep a strip of eastern Poland which she had annexed in 1939. It was also decided at Yalta that a new organization called, the united nations, should be set up to replace the failed League of Nations.

The pots dam conference (July 1945)

Harry S. Truman, Churchill, and Joseph stallin met at the Potsdam and the conference started on July 18, 1945. Churchill was replaced by clement Attlee the new births Labour prime minister after labour election

victory. This conference revealed a distinct cooling off in relations.

The war with Germany was over, but no agreement was reached about her long term future. The big question was whether and when the four zones would be allowed to join together to form a united country again. She was to be disarmed, the Nazi party disbanded and its leader tried as war criminals. Most of these payments (known as reparations) were to go to the USSR, which was to be allowed to take non food goods from their own zone and from the other zone as well, provided the Russians sent food supplies to the western zones of Germany in return. Truman did not inform Stalin about the exact nature of the atomic bomb though Churchill was told about it. A few days after the conference closed the two atomic bombs were dropped on Japan and the war ended quickly on 10 August without the need of Russian help. The annexed south Sakhalin as agreed at Yalta, but they were allowed no part in the occupation of Japan. Stalin protested to us officials when Truman offered the Soviets little real influence in occupied Japan.

Communism established in Eastern Europe

The establishment of communist government in Eastern Europe caused alarm in the west. In the months following Potsdam, the Russians systematically interfered in the countries of Eastern Europe to set up pro-communist governments. This happened in Poland, Hungary, Bulgaria, Albania and Romania. In some cases their opponents were imprisoned or murdered in Hungary.

It was in this atmosphere of American anxiety that the cold war spotlight shifted to Korea, where in June 1950, troops from communist North Korea invaded non-communist South Korea.

The development in Germany further aggravated the difference between the Soviet Union and the western countries. Germany had been divided into four occupation zones each under the Soviet Union, USA, Britain and France. At the Potsdam conference, Germany became divided into two parts, the three zones under USA, Britain and France becoming one, the western part and the eastern part under USSR. The latter ended the supply of agricultural goods to the former; each part now had a separate currency. The political and economic policies followed in each part were different. Large landholdings were confiscated and redistributed among peasants, many industries and mines were nationalized and German communists, who had been living in exile since the fascist take over, were encouraged to come back. In the western part, a capitalist type of economy began to develop with massive US aid and political parties and groups which were hostile to communists and the Soviet Union became dominant. The policies followed in the western part were now based on the fear of communism and the Soviet Union. By 1947, Germany had been divided into two distinct economic and political parts. Later its division was formalized with the setting up of two independent states.

The communist takeover of Czechoslovakia (Feb 1948)

There was a coalition government of communists and other left wing parties which had been freely elected in 1946. The communists had won 38 percent of the votes and 114 seats in the 300 seat parliament and they held a third of the cabinet posts. The prime minister, Clement Gottwald, was a communist; President Benes and the foreign minister, Jan Masaryk were non-communists. They hoped that Czechoslovakia with its highly developed industries would remain as a bridge between east and west.

However, a crisis arose early in 1948. Elections were due in May and all in control of the union and the police seized power in an armed coup. All non communist ministers with the exception of Benes and Masaryk resigned. A few days later Masaryk's body was found under the windows of his office. His death was officially described as suicide. However, when the archives were opened after the collapse of communism in 1989 documents were found which indicated that he was murdered.

Similar developments took place in Bulgaria, Romania and Hungary. In Yugoslavia and Albania also communists who had led the national resistance had come to power. Thus seven countries in Europe had gone communist. Dominated by communist parties and the Soviet Union was no longer the only country in the world to be ruled by a communist party. Britain and USA were particularly concerned at this development which they viewed as a danger to what they called the free world.

Greece civil war

Another development which brought about the cold war was the civil war in Greece. Communists had been a major force in the resistance against fascist occupation of Greece. However, the British troops which had been sent to Greece wanted to restore the rule of the king who was brought back. This led to the civil war. There were 10,000 British troops who fought against the Greek communists in the civil war. However, Britain decided to withdraw from Greece. She informed the United States that she could no longer bear the burden of supporting the Greek government. This would have almost certainly led to communist victory in the civil war. The US government decided to take the burden of supporting the Greek government in the civil war upon itself. She also supported Turkey which it was thought, was threatened by the Soviet Union. The US decision to intervene in the Greek civil war may be considered as formally ushering in the cold war. President Truman while asking the Congress for \$ 400 million as military and economic aid to the Greek government made a policy statement which has been called the Truman doctrine.

The Truman doctrine

By 1947, Truman's doctrine advisors were worried that time was running out to counter the influence of the Soviet Union. In Europe, post war economic recovery was faltering, and shortages of food and other essential consumer goods were common. Truman's advisors feared that the Soviet Union was seeking to weaken the position of the US in a period of post war confusion and collapse.

The event which spurred Truman on to announce formally the US's adopting the policy of "containment" was the British government's announcement in February 1947 that it could no longer afford to finance the Greek monarchical military regime in its civil war against communist led insurgents. Rather than view this war as a civil conflict revolving around domestic issues, US policy makers interpreted it as a Soviet effort; however, the insurgents were helped by Josip Broz Tito's Yugoslavia, not Moscow. Secretary of State Dean Acheson accused the Soviet Union of conspiracy against the Greek royalists in an effort to "expand" into the Middle East, Asia, and Africa and in March 1947 the administration unveiled the "Truman doctrine". It must be the policy of the United States, Truman declared, "to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or outside pressures."

The Truman doctrine proclaimed communism as the threat to the free world which the United States, as the head of the free world, would not allow to succeed anywhere in the world. Every result of the Soviet expansionism which had to be crushed by all the might of the United States. This doctrine became the basis of the foreign policy of the United States for about four decades. Every conflict in the world was seen in terms of a struggle between the United States and the Soviet Union.

Immediately anti communists of Greece received massive amount of arms and other supplies, and by 1949 they defeated the communists. Turkey, which also seemed under threat, received aid worth about 60 million dollars. The Truman doctrine made it clear that the USA had no intention of returning to isolation as she had after the First World War; she was committed to a policy of containing communism, not just in Europe, but throughout the world, including Korea and Vietnam.

Marshall Plan

For US policymakers, threats to Europe's balance of power were not necessarily military ones, but political and economic challenge. George Kennan helped to summarize the problem at the State Department planning staff in May 1947 "communist activities" were not "the root of the difficulties of western Europe". According to this view, the communists were "exploiting the European crisis" to gain power. In June, following the recommendations of the State Department planning staff, the Truman doctrine was complemented by the Marshall Plan. A pledge of economic assistance aimed at rebuilding the western political-economic system. And countering perceived threats to Europe's balance of power. After lobbying by the joint chiefs of staffs and Generals Clay and Marshall, the Truman administration finally realized that economic recovery in Europe could not go forward without the reconstruction of the German industrial base on which it had previously been dependent.

In July, Truman rescinded on “national security grounds”. The punitive Morgenthau plan JCS 1067, which had directed the US forces of occupation in Germany to “take no steps looking toward the economic rehabilitation of Germany”. It was replaced by JCS 1779, which stressed instead that “an orderly, prosperous Europe requires the economic contributions of a stable and productive Germany.

The twin policies of the Truman doctrine and the Marshall plan led to billions in economic and military aid to Western Europe, and Greece and Turkey. With US assistance the Greek military won its civil war, and the Italian Christian Democrats defeated the powerful communist socialist alliance in the elections of 1948.

The Cominform

This was the communist response. Set up by Stalin in September 1947, this was an organization to draw together the various European communist parties. All the satellite states were members, and the French and Italian communist parties were represented. Stalin's aim was to tighten his grip on the satellites: to be communist was not enough it must be Russian style communism, eastern Europe was to be industrialized, collectivized and centralized: states were members, and all contacts with non-communist countries were discouraged. When Yugoslavia objected, she was expelled from the Cominform (1948) though she remained communist.

Molotov Plan

In 1949 the Molotov plan was introduced, offering Russian aid to the satellites. Another organization known as COMECON (Council of Mutual Economic Assistance) was set up to co-ordinate their economic policies.

The Berlin blockade and airlift (June 1948- May 1949)

This brought the cold war to its first climax. The crisis arose out of disagreements over the treatment of Germany. At the end of the war, as agreed at Yalta and Potsdam, Germany and Berlin were each divided into four zones. While the three western powers did their best to make Germany pay for all the damage inflicted on Russia but Russia treated his zone as a satellite, draining its resources away to Russia.

Early in 1948 the three western zones were merged to form a single economic unit, whose prosperity, thanks to Marshall Aid, was in marked contrast to the poverty on the Russian Zone. The west wanted all four zones to be re-united and given self-government as soon as possible; but Stalin had decided that it would be safer for Russia if he kept the Russian zone separate, with its own communist, pro-Russian government. The prospect of the three western zones re-uniting was alarming enough to Stalin, because he knew they would be part of the western bloc.

When in June 1948 the west introduced a new currency and ended price controls in their zone and in West Berlin. The Russians decided that the situation in Berlin had become impossible; already irritated by this island of capitalism a hundred miles inside the communist zone, they felt it impossible to have the two different currencies in the same city, and they were embarrassed by the contrast between the prosperity of West Berlin and the poverty of the surrounding area.

The Russian responses were immediate: all road, rail and canal links between West Berlin and West Germany were closed; their aim was to force the west to withdraw from West Berlin by reducing it to starvation point. The western powers convinced that a retreat would be the prelude to a Russian attack on West Germany, were determined to hold on. They decided to fly supplies in, rightly judging that the Russians would not risk shooting down the transport planes. Truman had thoughtfully sent a fleet of B-29 bombers to be positioned on British airfields. Over the next ten months 2 million tons of supplies were airlifted to the blockaded city in a remarkable operation which kept the 2.5 million West Berliners fed and warm right through the winter. In May 1949 the Russians admitted failure by lifting the blockade, the affair had important results, and the outcome gave a great psychological boost to the western powers, though it brought relations with Russia to their worst ever. It caused the western powers to co-ordinate their defences by the formation of NATO. It meant that since no compromise was possible, Germany was doomed to remain divided for the foreseeable future.

The formation of NATO

The Berlin blockade exposed the military unpreparedness and frightened them into making definite preparation. Already in March 1948 Britain, France, Holland, Belgium and Luxemburg had signed the Brussels defence treaty promising military collaboration in case of war. Now they were joined by the USA, Canada, Portugal, Denmark, Eire, Italy and Norway. All signed the north Atlantic treaty and the formation of the north Atlantic treaty organization (NATO) took place in April 1949. The NATO countries agreed to regard an attack on any one of them as an attack on them all, and placing their defence forces under a joint NATO command organization which would co-ordinate the defence of the west.

This was a highly significant development because the American had abandoned their traditional policy of not entangling in alliances and for the first time had pledged themselves in advance to military action. In most people's minds, the USSR was the most likely source of any attack. Predictably Stalin took it as a challenge and tensions remained high. NATO was not just a European organization. It also included the USA and Canada. The Korean War (1950-53) caused the USA to press successfully for the integration of NATO forces under a centralized command a supreme headquarters Allied powers Europe (SHAPE) was established near Paris Through this alliances the western countries launched a massive programme of rearmament to check what they called Russian expansion in Europe and to contain communism. During the next six years, the United States gave massive military aid to the NATO countries of Europe. In 1952, Greece and Turkey were also made members of NATO.

Emergence of the USSR as a nuclear power

The United States had emerged as the mightiest military power at end of the Second World War. For four years, she was the only country in the world to have atomic weapons. The monopoly in atomic weapons had given her a sense of unquestionable military supremacy in the world.

The US monopoly in atomic weapons was broken when in 1949 the USSR conducted an atomic test. The USSR announced in September 1949 that she had tested atomic bomb. US was shocked at the news which was used to exacerbate further the fear of communism. During the next few years' severe panic developed in USA. The US government leaders, some members of the US congress and sections of the mass media administration. The Soviet Union's success in developing the atomic bomb was attributed solely to the leaking out of British and US atomic secrets by spies to the Soviet Union. The loyalty of many scientists and others who had been associated with the atomic bomb project was suspected and some of them were tried and sentenced to long terms of imprisonment and even death. Some of the leading scientists of the time held the view that even though there was truth in the charges of espionage and some atomic secrets were leaked out to the Soviet Union this would have made little material difference to Soviet scientists and technological capability in making the atomic bomb as Soviet scientists had started working towards it almost at the same time as the scientists in the US. It was also pointed out by many public figures that the US, the Soviet Union and Britain had been allies during the war of sharing of secrets with allies could not be held treasonable. The SPY scare was however whipped up and used to further worsen the climate of fear and hostility to the Soviet Union.

Emergence of China as a Communist Power

In 1949 Mao's Red army defeated the US backed Kuomintang regime in China. Shortly afterwards, the Soviet Union created an alliance with the new formed Peoples Republic of China confronted it the Chinese Revolution and the end of the US atomic monopoly in 1949, the Truman administration quickly moved to escalate and expand the containment policy. In a secret 1950 document, NSC-68, Truman administration officials proposed to reinforce pro-western alliance's systems and quadruple spending on defense US. Officially moved thereafter to expand "Containment" into Asia, Africa and Latin America. At the same time revolutionary nationalist movement. Often led by communist parties were fighting against the restoration of European colonial empires in South-East Asia. The US formalized an alliance with Japan in the early 1950s thereby guaranteeing the US a number of long term military bases. Truman also brought other states including Australia, New Zealand, Thailand and the Philippines into a series of alliances.

Change in US policy form of containment to active opposition

The war in Korea (1950-53)

The fear of communism led the US to intervene in the affairs of Asian countries in the cold war. The US was brought to Asia. Seeing every issue in terms of the cold war, the United States also came in conflict with anti-colonial nationalist struggles for freedom and with many independent nations which were trying to strengthen their national independence into asserting their independent role in world affairs.

The first world war in which the US got directly involved was the war in Korea. In June 1950, war broke out between the two sides, each blaming the other for the war. It is however generally agreed that the war was started by North Korea. This was the view of the United Nations Security Council which voted to assist South Korea. However, it may be remembered that the Security Council's support for South Korea had become possible due to the Soviet Union's decision at the time to boycott the United Nations for its refusal to admit China. Within 2 months, the North Korean armies had swept across almost the entire South Korean capital, having fallen during the first three days of the war. However, the US army, navy, and air force intervened in the war massively, and North Korean troops were pushed back. The US forces now carried the war inside North Korea. At this time, the Chinese troops moved in, and the US troops were forced back. From mid-1951, the war entered a stalemate. There were negotiations for an armistice in which India played an important role.

The armistice was signed in July 1953, which restored the position that existed before the war.

The Korean War was the first major war after 1945 and the first one in which the US had taken part in a massive way and had suffered heavy casualties. In spite of the heavy casualties, it may be remembered that the Korean War was a localized war. There was every danger that it might turn into a general war. General MacArthur, who commanded US troops in the Korean War, wanted to invade China. There was also a danger that the US might use atomic weapons in the war. In 1953, the Korean War ended in a stalemate. But the US gradually got itself entangled in another civil war. The US supported the South Vietnamese government against North Vietnam, which was backed by the Soviet Union and China.

Crisis and escalation (1953-62)

In 1953, changes in political leadership on both sides shifted the dynamic of the cold war. Dwight D. Eisenhower became US President in January 1953, during the last 18 months of the Truman administration. The US defense budget had quadrupled, and Eisenhower resolved to reduce military spending by brandishing the US nuclear superiority while continuing to fight the cold war effectively. In March, Joseph Stalin died, and the Soviets, now led by Nikita Khrushchev, moved away from Stalin's policies.

There was a slight relaxation of tension after Stalin's death in 1953, but the cold war in Europe remained an uneasy armed truce. US troops seemed stationed indefinitely in West Germany, and Soviet forces seemed indefinitely stationed throughout Eastern Europe. To counter West German rearmament, the Soviets established a formal alliance with the Eastern European communist states, termed the Warsaw Pact, in 1955. In 1956, the status quo was briefly threatened in Hungary, when the Soviets refused rather than allow the Hungarians to move out of the orbit. During this period, the race for armaments had reached a new stage. In November 1952, the US tested her first thermonuclear bomb. The Soviet Union followed soon after in August 1953. The destructive power of those bombs was many times more than that of the bomb dropped at Nagasaki. The doctrine of brinkmanship, when the two antagonistic powers possessed these weapons, was fought with danger. The development of these weapons was sought to be justified by the doctrines of mutually assured destruction (MAD) and nuclear deterrence. It was the beliefs in this doctrine that led Britain to develop her independent deterrent in 1957. France and China later followed.

Formation of SEATO & CENTO

The US also started forming military alliances in every part of the world and establishing her military bases encircling the Soviet Union and China. In 1954, the South East Treaty Organization (SEATO) was set up, comprising Australia, Britain, France, New Zealand, Pakistan, Thailand, Philippines, and the US. In 1955, the Central Treaty

organization (CENTO) was established. Thus military alliances were used to maintain many un-democratic regimes in Asia. The countries viewed alliances as sources of tensions in their regions and the world and as treats their independence

The Vietnam War

The Policy of containment led to the US Involvements in protected war in Vietnam. In Sep 1945 Ho Chi Minh the nationalistic communist leader had declared the independence of Vietnam and set u the democratic republic of Vietnam. The French tried to restore their rule there after the war. In this they were aided by Britain and later by the US, Thus form 1945 France was drawn into a war. Because the nationalist forces in Vietnam were led by the communist party, Dulles advocated direct involvement of the US in the Vietnam War and continued to press France to continue the war in which the US provided the funds. The Vietnamese forces led by Ho –Chi- Minh received help from the Soviet Union and china but they relied mainly on their own strength and the popular support they enjoyed within Vietnam was temporarily divided into North Vietnam and South Vietnam but the country was to be reunited after election which would be held in 1956.

However the US started building South Vietnam as an independent state under the dictatorial and corrupt rule of Ngo Dinh Diem. It was universally believed Ho Chi Minh's party we certain to win the election. Diem's government on the advice of and with the support of the US refused to comply with the decision to hold Election. The US started building the South Vietnamese army to resist the North Vietnamese army. In spite of US support Diem's government was on the verge of collapse in 1963 due to its growing unpopularity.

The US policy makers advocated what was called the “domino theory” According to this theory. If South Vietnam fell to the communists all other south-east Asian countries would also collapse and came under communist rule and this would lead to expansion of communism all over Asia. The US started sending her own troops to begin with as military advisers but by the end of 1967 the number of us troops fighting in Vietnam had gone up to 500,000.

The US war in Vietnam was the most unpopular US war in history. It was condemned by people all over the world including in the United States no other single event in the years after 1945 had united people all over the world as the opposition to the war in Vietnam. The US troops withdrew from Vietnam in 1973. By April 1975 the South Vietnamese army was routed and the last of the US advisers also left Vietnam soon emerged as a united country. They defeat of the greatest military power in the world by the people of a small country in Asia was an event of great significance in the history of the contemporary world.

Conflict in the Arab world

The Conflict found expression in Arab world too. The main cause of conflict in the Arab world during the post war period was the hostility of the United States and her allies to the spread of Arab nationalism. This was done in the name of preventing communism the western countries determination to retain their control over the oil resources of this region was great. The state of Israel the main ally of the US was another major source of tension in this area.

In November 1947, the United Nations the and agreed to partition Palestine into an Arab state and Jewish state. However on 14 may 1948 Britain which held Palestine as a mandate withdrew from there before partition could be affected. The Jewish state of Israel was proclaimed which was recognized by the United States the very next day.

The establishment of the state of Israel was followed by an Arab- Israel war (1956) in which the Arabs were deprived of their lands an homes and over million of them had to live as refugees in other Arab courtiers. On 29, October 1956, Israel invaded Egypt and on the next day British and French troops were landed there to occupy the Suez Canal. The British French – Israel invasion of Egypt aroused worldwide protests including in Britain and France. The United Nations with the support of the US, also condemned the invasion on 5, November the soviet union issued an ultimatum to the invaders to with draw from Egypt and threatened to use missiles to defend Egypt were ended and their troops were withdrawn . Egypt and Egypt agreed to a cease –fire.

With the help of the US, Israel began to be built up as a powerful state in the region. The Arab states refused to recognize the state of Israel and the Arab nationalists viewed her as an instrument to curb the rising strength of Arab nationalism.

In 1967, another war broke out between Israel on one side and Egypt, Jordan and Syria on the other. This is known as the six day war. The Arab states were defeated and Israel occupied Egyptian territory in the Sinai Peninsula. The Palestinian territory on the west bank of the river Jordan (from Jordan) and Gaza strip and a part of the territory of Syria called Heights Israel also established her control over the entire city of Jerusalem.

In 1973 There was another Arab- Israel war. During this war the oil- producing Arab states announced that they would stop shipment of oil to countries which were supporting Israel. This meant mainly the United States and her support to vacate the many Arab territories that she occupied during the wars in 1956, 1967 and 1973

Egypt under the leadership of Colonel Abdul Nasser represented the forces of nationalism in the 1950s and the 1960s Britain in 1954 was asked to withdraw her troops from Egypt. At this time, Egypt also began to build her independent military strength with the help of arms from the Soviet Union. The US had offered to help Egypt build the Aswan Dam. Egypt started receiving soviet arms and US aid for the Aswan dam was stopped.

On 26, July 1956 the Suez Canal was nationalized. The end of the 1956 war in Egypt was acclaimed as a victory of Arab nationalism. It also led to strengthening of the soviet influence in the region. Egypt turned to the Soviet Union for help in building the Aswan dam. Nasser also tried to strengthen Arab unity by uniting various Arab states. The US, alarmed at this development proclaimed what is called the Eisenhower doctrine named after the US president According to this doctrine the US decide to give economic and military aid to the countries in the region to protect them from what it called international communism.

In July 1958 however the prowestern government in Iraq was overthrown. US and British troops were sent to Lebanon and Jordan to prevent the pro-western government of these countries from falling.

Cuba Missile crisis

One of the most serious crises in the history of the past Second World War occurred on the issue of installation of nuclear in Cuba. The development of nuclear weapons had been accompanied by the development of new system of delivery that is of means of dropping these weapons. For this purpose missiles were developed. The US had set up these missiles aimed at soviet targets at the bases which she had in different parts of the world. The Soviet Union generally had no bases outside and her missiles sites were within her own territory. Each side also had submarines carrying these nuclear missiles. The range of these missiles was limited say a few hundred kilometers which had made the setting up of bases near the territory of the enemy countries necessary, New technology for spying on other countries had also been developed.

In January 1959 there was a revolution in Cuba under the leadership of Fidel Castro. The United States turned hostile to Cuba when the new government started adoption radical social and economic measures introducing agrarian reforms and nationalizing industries. Another reason was the friendly relation which the new government began to have with the Soviet Union and china. The United States broke off diplomatic relation with Cuba in January 1961 and stopped all economic relation with her. In April 1961 she landed 2000 Cuban exiles at the Bay of pigs in Cuba to overthrow the Cuban government however the invasion ended in fiasco and within two days it was crushed even though the US would have had the option of the incursions of Cuba its intention of overthrowing the Cuban government continued John F. Kennedy the US president at that time had openly declared after the fiasco of the bay of pigs invasion “ we do not intend to abandon Cuba to the communists” this was the background of the crisis which broke out in October 1962.

While the Soviet Union was surrounded by US bases including those with nuclear missiles the Soviet Union had no bases anywhere near US territory. In October 1962 the US found from the pictures taken by her spy planes that the Soviet Union was building missile sites in Cuba which is less than 150km from the southernmost part of the US all through the wars which the US had fought her own

territory had been inviolable and all the wars had been fought far away. The installation of missiles in Cuba would bring US territory within easy range of attack. This was perceived as a serious threat to the security of the US. Although the Soviet Union had done for the first time what the US had been doing all along i.e. establishing military bases in other countries, it created the danger of a war between the US and the Soviet Union something which had not happened in spite of various tensions and conflicts between them. Such a war would have endangered all humanity. On 22 October 1962 President Kennedy announced a naval and air blockade around Cuba which meant that US would stop any ship or aircraft moving towards Cuba. The US also prepared to launch an attack on the missile sites in Cuba.

This crisis which had brought the world close to disaster however ended on 26 October. In that the Soviet Union would remove her missiles from Cuba if the US pledged not to attack Cuba. This was agreed to and crisis was over. The US also agreed to withdraw the missiles which she had installed in Turkey close to Soviet territory.

From confrontation through détente (1962-1979)

In the course of the 1960 and 1970s both the US and the Soviet Union struggled to adjust to a new, more complicated pattern of international relations in which the world was no longer divided into two clearly opposed blocs by the two super powers. Since the beginning of the post-war period, Western Europe and Japan rapidly recovered from the destruction of World War II and sustained strong economic growth through the 1950s and 1960s increasing their strength compared to the United States. As a result of the 1973 oil crisis, combined with the growing influence of Third world alignments such as the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) and the Non-Aligned Movement, less-powerful countries had more room to assert their independence and often showed themselves resistant to pressure from either superpower. Moscow meanwhile was forced to turn its attention inward to deal with the Soviet Union's deep-seated domestic economic problems. During this period Soviet leaders such as Alexei Kosygin and Leonid Brezhnev embraced the notion of détente.

Nevertheless both superpowers resolved to reinforce their global leadership. Both the Soviet Union and the United States struggled to slave off challenges to their leadership in their own regions. President Lyndon B. Johnson landed 22,000 troops in the Dominican Republic citing the threat of the emergence of a Cuba-style revolution in Latin America. In Eastern Europe the Soviets in 1968 crushed the Prague Spring reform movements in Czechoslovakia that might have threatened to take the country out of the Warsaw Pact.

The US continued to spend heavily on supporting friendly Third world regimes in Asia. Conflicts in peripheral regions and client states – most prominently in Vietnam – continued. Johnson stationed 575,000 troops in Southeast Asia to defeat the National Front for the Liberation of South Vietnam (NLF) and their North Vietnamese allies but his costly policy weakened the US economy and by 1975 ultimately culminated in what most of the world saw as a humiliating defeat of the world's most powerful superpower at the hands of one of the world's poorest nations. Brezhnev meanwhile faced far more daunting challenges in reviving the Soviet economy, which was declining in part because of heavy military expenditures.

Although indirect conflict between cold war powers continued through the late 1960s and early 1970s, tension began to ease as the period of détente began. The Chinese had sought to improve relations with the US in order to gain advantage over the Soviets. In February 1972 Richard Nixon travelled to Beijing and met with Mao Zedong and Chou-En-Lai.

Nixon and Henry Kissinger then announced a stunning rapprochement with Mao's China.

Later in June, Nixon and Kissinger met with Soviet leaders in Moscow and announced the first of the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks aimed at limiting the development of costly antiballistic missiles and offensive nuclear missiles. Between 1972 and 1974 the two sides also agreed to strengthen their economic ties. Meanwhile those developments coincided with the "Ostpolitik" of West German Chancellor Willy Brandt. Other agreements were concluded to stabilize the situation in Europe culminating in the Helsinki Accords signed by the conference on security and co-operation in Europe in 1975.

However the détente of the 1970s was short lived. The US congress limited the economic pact between Nixon and Brezhnev so much that the soviets repudiated in 1975. Indirect conflict between the superpowers continued through this period of détente in the Third world particularly during political crises in the Middle East Chile and Angola. While president Jimmy Carter tried to place another limit on the arms race with a SALT II agreement in 1979 his efforts were undercut by the other events that year including the Iranian Revolution and the Nicaraguan Revolution which both ousted pro-US regimes and his retaliation against soviet Intervention in Afghanistan in December.

The “Second Cold War” (1979-1985)

In November 1982 American ten-year-old Samantha Smith wrote a letter to the soviet leader Yuri Andropov expressing her fear of nuclear war, and pleading with him to work toward peace. Andropov himself replied and gave her a personal invitation to visit the country. Smith’s visit was one of few prominent attempts to improve relation between the superpowers during Andropov’s brief leadership from 1982- 1984 at a dangerously low point in US – Soviet relation the term “ Second cold war” had been used by some historians to refer to the period of intensive reawakening of cold war tensions in the early 1980s. In 1980 Ronald Reagan digested Jimmy Carter vowing to increase military spending and confront the soviets everywhere. Both Reagan and Britain new Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher denounced the Soviet Union in Ideological terms that rivaled that of the worst days of the Cold war in the late 1940s.

Kal 007 and the deployment of missiles in western Europe

With the Background of the build-up of tensions between the Soviet Union and the United States, NATO decided under the impetus of the Reagan presidency to deploy Pershing II and cruise missiles in western Europe primarily West Germany This deployment would have placed missiles just 6 minutes striking distance from Moscow, the capital of the “Evil Empire” as Reagan had termed it. Yet support for the deployment was wavering and many doubted whether the push for deployment could be sustained. But on Sept 1, 1983, the soviet union shoot down Doreen Airlines flight 007, a boeing 747 with 269 people aboard in international waters just past the west coast of Sakhalin Island-an act which Reagan characterized as a “massacre” The barbarity of this act as the US and indeed the world understood it galvanized support for the deployment which stood in place until the later accords between Reagan and Mikhail Gorbachev.

Reagan spent \$ 22 trillion for the military over eighty years. Military spending combined with the legacy of the economic structural problems of the 1970s transformed the US from the world leading creditor in 1981 to the world leading debtor. Tensions intensified in the early 1980s when Reagan installed US cruise missiles in Europe and announced his experimental strategic Defense Initiative dubbed “star wars” by the media to shoot down missiles in mid- flight Reagan also imposed economic sanctions to protest the suppression of the opposition solidarity movement in Poland.

US domestic public concerns about intervening in foreign conflicts persisted from the end of the Vietnam War. But Reagan did not encounter major public opposition to his foreign policies. The Reagan administration emphasized the use of quick low cost counterinsurgency tactics to intervene in foreign conflicts. In 1983 the Reagan administration intervened in the multisided Lebanese civil war invaded Grenada, bombed Libya and backed the central American contras right wing paramilitaries seeking to overthrow the soviet aligned in the US, his backing of the contra rebels was mired in controversy . In 1985 the President authorized the sale of arms to Iran later administration subordinates illegally diverted the proceeds to the contras.

Meanwhile the soviets incurred high costs for their own foreign intervention. Although Brezhnev was convinced in 1979 that the soviet war in Afghanistan would be brief Muslim guerrillas waged a surprisingly fierce resistance against the Soviets’. The Kremlin sent nearly 100,000 troops to support its puppet regime in Afghanistan leading many outside observers to call the war the soviets Vietnam however Moscow quagmire in Afghanistan was far more disastrous for the soviets than Vietnam had been for the Americans because the conflict coincided with a period of internal decay and domestic crisis in the soviet system. A high US state Department official predicted such an outcome as early as 1980 position that the invasion resulted in part from a “Domestic crisis within the soviet system.... It may be that the thermodynamics law of entropy has

caught up with the soviet system which now seems to expend more energy on simply maintaining its equilibrium than on improving itself. We could "be seeing a period of foreign movement at a time of internal decay".

End of the Cold War

By the early 1980s the soviet armed forces were the largest in the world by many measures. In terms of the numbers and types of weapons they possessed, the number of troops in their ranks and in the size of their military industrial base. However, the quantitative advantages held by the soviet military often concealed areas where the east dramatically lagged behind the west. This led many US observers to vastly overestimate soviet power. By the late years of the cold war Moscow had built up a military that consumed as much as twenty-five percent of the Soviet Union gross national product at the expense of consumer goods and investment in civilian sectors. But the size of the soviet armed force was not necessarily the result of a simple action reaction arms race with the United States. Instead soviet spending on the arms race and other cold war commitments can be understood as both a cause and effect of the deep-seated structural problems in the soviet system which accumulated at least a decade of economic stagnation during the Brezhnev years. Soviet investment into the defense sector was not necessarily driven by military necessity but in large part by the interests of massive party and state bureaucracies dependent on the sector for their own power and privileges.

By the time Mikhail Gorbachev had ascended to power in 1985 the soviets suffered from an economic growth rate close to zero percent combined with a sharp fall in hard currency earnings as a result of the downward slide in world oil prices in the 1980s (Petroleum exports made up around 60 percent of the soviet union total export earnings). To restructure the soviet economy before it collapsed Gorbachev announced an agenda of rapid reforms (perestroika and glasnost). Reforms Required Gorbachev to redirect the country's resources from costly cold war military commitment to more profitable areas in the civilian sector. As a result, Gorbachev offered major concessions to the United States in levels of conventional forces, nuclear weapons and policy in eastern Europe.

Many US soviet experts and administration officials doubted that Gorbachev was serious about winding down the arms race. With the new soviet leader eventually proved more concerned about reversing the Soviet Union's deteriorating economic condition than fighting the arms race with the west. The Kremlin made major military and political concessions in response. Reagan agreed to renew talks on economic issues and the scaling back of the arms race. The east-west tensions that had reached intense new heights earlier in the decade rapidly subsided through the mid to late 1980s. In 1988 the soviets officially declared that they would no longer intervene in the affairs of allied states in Eastern Europe, the so-called Sinatra Doctrine. In 1989 Soviet forces withdrew from Afghanistan. In December 1989 Gorbachev and George H. W. Bush declared the cold war officially over at a summit meeting in Malta. But by then the soviet alliance system was on the brink of collapse and the communist leaders of the Warsaw pact states were losing power. In the USSR itself Gorbachev tried to reform the party to destroy resistance to his reforms but in doing so ultimately weakened the bonds that held the state and union together. By February 1990, the communist party was forced to surrender its 73-years old monopoly on state power. By December of the next year the Union state also dissolved, breaking the USSR up into fifteen separate independent states with the collapse of communist rule in Eastern Europe and the disintegration of the Soviet Union the cold war came to an end.



CHAPTER - 1**RENAISSANCE AND
THE ENLIGHTENMENT****INTRODUCTION**

Generally, it is held that modern Europe is an offshoot of Renaissance and Enlightenment because it promoted the freedom of thought, scientific and critical outlook, pure art, literature free from the influence of the Church and development of regional languages. In other words, it comprises the intellectual changes which occurred during this period.

The concept of Renaissance means rebirth or recovery; it has its origins in Italy and is associated with the rebirth of antiquity or Greco-Roman civilization. The age of the Renaissance is believed to elapse over a period of about two centuries that was approximately from 1350 to 1550. The Renaissance was a recovery from the middle Ages, for the intellectuals, it was a period of recovery from the “Dark Ages”; a period, which was called so due to its lack of classical culture.

First Italian and then intellectuals of the rest of Europe became increasingly interested in the Greco-Roman culture of the ancient Mediterranean world. This interest was fostered especially by the migration of the Greek intellectuals during the middle Ages and the fact that the ancient Greek works could then be translated more precisely into Latin. Increasing popularity of archeology and discovery of ancient Roman and Greek constructions also participated in this intense interest for the classical culture. It is believed that precisely from the fifteenth century great changes took place affecting public and social spheres of Europe and then the rest of the world; the basis of the modern European civilization and capitalist system were then founded. Technological innovations increased the rates of economic development. Great geographical discoveries opened up the borders of the Western world, thus accelerating the formation of national, European and world markets. Major changes in art, music, literature and religion wrecked the system of medieval values.

Another period marked by significant changes, is the eighteenth century or an age of Enlightenment. Although present throughout Europe, the origins of the Enlightenment are closely associated with France and its philosophers such as Voltaire, Rousseau and others. The Enlightenment has been fostered by the remarkable discoveries of the Scientific Revolution of the seventeenth century. It was during this period that the ideas of the Scientific Revolution were spread and popularized by the philosophers (intellectuals of the 18th century).

There are similarities that can with certainty be traced between the Renaissance and the Enlightenment. Many of the eighteenth-century philosophers saw themselves as the followers of the philosophers of antiquity and the humanists of the Renaissance. Achievements of both, the Renaissance and the Enlightenment were the product of the elite, rather than a mass movement. Gradually though, they did have an irreversible impact on ordinary people. Another apparent similarity between the two periods, of course, was the fact that both of them were marked by great political and social changes. However, since evolution and progress cause changes, and achievements of one century are built on those of the previous one, there are probably more differences than similarities between the two periods.

We shall now examine the Renaissance and the Enlightenment in a more broader format.

Renaissance

The Renaissance was the outcome of several centuries; it did not emerge all of a sudden. There was a persistent effort for its arousal in France in the post medieval period. In this field the efforts of Peter Aubelier (France), Roger Bacon (England) and Dante (Italy) were commendable. According to the European history,

the Renaissance period lasted roughly from the 14th century to 16th century and particularly from 1350 to 1550.

CAUSES OF RENAISSANCE

The cause of Renaissance was as follows:

1. Crusades

The military expedition undertaken in Europe from the end of the 11th century to the end of the 13th century to recover the Holy Land, Jerusalem from the Muslims, were called crusades. Because of these crusades, the Christians (European) came in the contact with the enlightened people of the East which were already enriched civilization due to their contact with the Greek and Indian civilization. The crusades encouraged voyages and a study of Geography. Aristotle's scientific books, Arabic numerals, algebra, mariner's compass and paper reached Western Europe through crusades.

2. Commercial Prosperity

The crusades established business links with the eastern countries. As a result there was tremendous increase in business which fostered the spirit of Renaissance. The commercial prosperity shaped the renaissance in four stages-

- The European businessmen came to know about new ideas and progressive element when they travelled across many countries in connection with business
- The development of business built new cities like Venice, Milan, Florence, Angelbourg and Nuremburg. These cities as a centre for international trade became hotspot for businessmen and tourists, which facilitated the exchange of ideas and development of knowledge.
- The abundant wealth which was accumulated through this new economic pattern created a desire for learning in the newly rich businessmen. This class became the patrons of art and gave shelter to the scholar and scientists.
- The business class criticized the Church and tried to reduce its importance.

3. Paper and the Printing Press

The European learnt paper-making from Arabs in the middle Ages. In the mid 15th century Johann Guttenberg of Germany invented a type machine which may be called a prototype of printing press. The invention of printing press paved the way for intellectual growth. In 1477 Caxton established a printing press in Britain. By and by, the printing press reached Italy, Germany, Spain and France. Now books were printed in a large number at a relatively low cost. The monopoly of distinctive person over knowledge came to an end. With the dissemination of knowledge through books, superstition and orthodox practices weakened and self-confidence increased in people. Now people became aware of their rights and the greatness of man revealed.

4. Capture of Constantinople by the Turks

In 1453 the Turks captured Constantinople, the capital of East Roman (Byzantine) Empire.

- With the Turks' capture of Constantinople, all land routes leading from Europe to the countries of the East fell into their hands. Hence the peoples of the South-West Europe became impatient to find out a new business route, possibly a sea-route leading to the east.
- Thousands of Greek scholars, philosophers and artists migrated from Constantinople to Italy, France, Germany and England, these intellectuals took with them the science of ancient Rome and Greece as well as the new ways of thinking.

Origination of renaissance in Italy

- One major reason the Renaissance began in Italy is linked to geography. The city-states of Italy, positioned on the Mediterranean Sea, were centers for trade and commerce, the first port

of call for both goods and new ideas.

- Secondly, Italy was the core of the former Roman empire, and, at the collapse of the Byzantine empire in 1453, became the refuge for the intellectuals of Constantinople who brought with them many of the great works of the ancient Greeks and Romans, works that had been lost to the West during the Dark Ages. Prior to this, scholars in Italy had been examining the works of the ancients, but they were of poor quality and often incomplete.
- The third reason was political. Due to various political intrigues, the Holy Roman Empire had essentially lost power in northern Italy, the Papal States were governed by various leading families within each region, and the city of Naples dominated the South. This vacuum of leadership allowed merchant families to gain considerable power within each city-state and thus revised the laws governing banking, commerce, shipping, and trade. This freer atmosphere led to a busy exchange of both goods and ideas.
- The Renaissance was a rebirth of ancient Greek and Roman thinking and styles, and both the Roman and Greek civilizations were Mediterranean cultures, as is Italy. The best single reason for Italy as the birthplace of the Renaissance was the concentration of wealth, power, and intellect in the Church. In that time, the Church controlled so much of the political, economic, and intellectual life of Europe, that it gathered most of the best minds, wealthiest men, and most powerful leaders unto itself in Rome at one time or another. The noble merchants of various Italian cities had built up so much wealth over the centuries that they could better afford to patronize the arts and sciences than almost anyone else.
- However, the Renaissance is a very complex period with no well-defined beginning or end and no simple root causes. There are many theories. Some claim that the trade routes coming from the Middle East and China that terminated in Venice and Genoa had great influence by bringing foreign ideas; others cite the lack of centralized control as exercised by a king that allowed the nobles and the middle class more latitude to compete; others cite the influence of the Kingdom of Sicily that had so long kept educated Moslems in high positions; and finally, for the Humanistic values that permeated the Italian Renaissance, some cite the proximity of the corrupt Papal Court in Rome. Seeing supposed men of God, who were saying that only the next life should be enjoyed, living a very comfortable life tended to lead the Italians to listen less to Papal dogma.

Changes occurred due to Renaissance

The significant changes are -

- **The decline of feudalism:** The feudalism the dominant social system in medieval Europe, in which the nobility held lands from the Crown in exchange for military service, and vassals were in turn tenants of the nobles, while the peasants (villains or serfs) were obliged to live on their lord's land and give him homage, labour, and a share of the produce, notionally in exchange for military protection. This system was declined.
- **The study of ancient literature:** Renaissance was very important for literature and arts. It was marked by a revival in interest for ancient Greek and Roman civilizations. A new concept was started Humanism. It focused on Man. Earlier, under Church's authority; the belief was that man was here on the Earth due to a sin. SO he should not enjoy in the world.

But this changed during the Renaissance. The people proposed the idea of the limitless capabilities of the human mind and the right to enjoy. So you will find Renaissance art and literature centered around Man. All his needs and desires and his wish to fulfill them.

- **The rise of nation states:** A Sovereign states of which most of the citizens or subjects are united also by factors which define a nation, such as language or common descent were emerged.

- The beginning of modern science, the invention of moving letters, Gun-powder & compass were used. Art became less focused on religion. Artists were not part of society. Paintings became less secular. Technique became less important.
- **The discovery of new trade routes:** At the start of the renaissance, merchants would travel through the Mediterranean and into the Red Sea to reach Asia. They would also use the Silk Road. However, in the middle of the Renaissance and the end, the Ottoman Empire began rising in military strength, until the point where they blocked off these routes, starting the Age of Exploration in which the Americas were discovered while trying to find different trade routes. Later into the Age of Exploration, a route to Asia was found around the Cape of Good Hope, circling the African continent into India by the Portuguese.

The Spread of Renaissance

After Italy the Renaissance wave captured the whole Europe. The advent of printing press facilitated its rapid transmission. The ideas and principles of the movement were enhanced and diversified as they spread. It also inspired many movements across the continent.

It had a profound impact on the French revolution. Even the term 'Renaissance' is a French word, first defined in the work of French historian Jules Michelet in 1855 (History of France). He emphasized the democratic values enshrined in the movement. The values of Renaissance came to France with King Charles VIII after he invaded Italy in 1495. Subsequently Francis I brought in Italian art and artists who inspired several French writers, musicians and painters, making the spirit of Renaissance innate to France.

Before long, the spirit and ideas that were taking hold in Italy reached France, Germany, England, and the Netherlands, where the Renaissance continued into the 1600s.

One of the most important figures of the northern Renaissance was the Dutch humanist Desiderius Erasmus (c. 1466-1536), whose book In Praise of Folly (1509) is a blistering criticism of the clergy, scholars, and philosophers of his day.

Another notable figure of the northern Renaissance was Englishman Sir Thomas More (1478-1535), who was a statesman and adviser to the king. More's Utopia, published in 1516, criticizes the times by envisioning an ideal society in which land is communally held, men and women alike are educated, police are unnecessary, politicians are honest, and where there is religious tolerance.

The works of Flemish artist Jan van Eyck (1395-1441), including his groundbreaking portrait Man in a Red Turban (1433), demonstrate that the principles of the Renaissance were felt as strongly in northern Europe as they were in Italy.

ENLIGHTENMENT

Introduction

The enlightenment was a philosophical movement of the 17th and 18th century Europe. It began in England and promoted rational human thinking against blind faith, traditional beliefs and dogmas of the middle Ages, Reason tolerance and humanity was the hallmark and the welfare of human being was considered as the ultimate goal. That the state, the church and other institutions should strive only for the welfare of mankind and rather than some unknown super power, individual or master of his fate and fortune was emphasized.

The Principles of enlightenment

The Principles of enlightenment were as follows:

- Enlightenment thinking generally belief that the world is governed by laws of nature which are eternal?
- It is imperative for human belief to understand the natural laws and act in according to them instead of violating them

- These eternal laws may be understood by means of intellect and reasoning which can unshackle the human from the chains of irrationality, fear and ignorance.
- All human are born equal and are endowed with equal intelligence. They thus deserve equal treatment before the state and society.
- Thus, the idea is to promote scientific thinking among common masses though discussion in public sphere so to eradicate disparity of every possible kind mainly, economic, social, political, etc and to bring out the essential goodness of human nature.
- The enlightenment thinking saw their societies as emerging from the darkness of superstition, ignorance and intolerance, most of which was associated with medieval catholic and feudal monarchy.
- A key feature of enlightenment was the remodeling of religion where god man often means as the force of good rather than a mere biblical lord.

Factors which influenced the Enlightenment

Enlightenment was influenced by various factors which preceded it:

- **Renaissance** which roughly existed between 14th to 16th centuries Europe initiated a new wave of intellectualism and challenged the established church feudal order of the dark ages.
- **Reformation** which speaks of an invisible church tried to establish an independent identity of the state beyond the control of Roman Catholicism.
- The discoveries of new world along with the growth of scientific temperament aided in the emergence and growth of enlightenment
- **Voltaire - Combats Intolerance** Probably the most brilliant and influential of all the philosophers was François Marie Arouet. Using the pen name Voltaire, he published more than 70 books of political essays, philosophy, and drama. Voltaire often used satire against his opponents. Although he made powerful enemies, Voltaire never stopped fighting for tolerance, reason, freedom of religious belief, and freedom of speech. He used his quill pen as if it were a deadly weapon in a thinker's war against humanity's worst enemies—intolerance, prejudice, and superstition. He summed up his staunch defense of liberty in one of his most famous quotes: "I do not agree with a word you say but will defend to the death your right to say it".
- **Montesquieu and the Separation of Powers:** Another influential French writer- devoted himself to the study of political liberty. Montesquieu believed that Britain was the best governed and most politically balanced country of his own day. The British king and his ministers held executive power. They carried out the laws of the state. The members of Parliament held legislative power. They made the laws. The judges of the English courts held judicial power. They interpreted the laws to see how each applied to a specific case. Montesquieu called this division of power among different branches. Montesquieu over simplified the British system. It did not actually separate powers this way. His idea, however, became a part of his most famous book, *On the Spirit of Laws* (1748). In his book, Montesquieu proposed that separation of powers would keep any individual or group from gaining total control of the government. "Power," he wrote, "should be a check to power." This idea later would be called checks and balances. Montesquieu book was admired by political leaders in the British colonies of North America. His ideas about separation of powers and checks and balances became the basis for the United States Constitution.
- **Rousseau:** A third great philosopher, Jean Jacques Rousseau, was passionately committed to individual freedom. Most philosophers believed that reason, science, and art would improve life for all people. Rousseau, however, argued that civilization corrupted people's natural goodness. "Man is born free, and every-where he is in chains," he wrote. Rousseau believed

that the only good government was one that was freely formed by the people and guided by the “general will” of society—a direct democracy. Under such a government, people agree to give up some of their freedom in favor of the common good. In 1762, he explained his political philosophy in a book called *The Social Contract*. Rousseau’s view of the social contract differed greatly from that of Hobbes. For Hobbes, the social contract was an agreement between a society and its government. For Rousseau, it was an agreement among free individuals to create a society and a government. Like Locke, Rousseau argued that legitimate government came from the consent of the governed. However, Rousseau believed in a much broader democracy than Locke had promoted. He argued that all people were equal and that titles of nobility should be abolished. Rousseau’s ideas inspired many of the leaders of the French Revolution who overthrew the monarchy in 1789.

- **Hobbes’s Social Contract:** Thomas Hobbes expressed his views in a work called *Leviathan* (1651). The horrors of the English Civil War convinced him that all humans were naturally selfish and wicked. Without governments to keep order, Hobbes said, there would be “war . . . of every man against every man, and life would be “solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short.” Hobbes argued that to escape such a bleak life, people had to hand over their rights to a strong ruler. In exchange, they gained law and order. Hobbes called this agreement by which people created a government the social contract. Because people acted in their own self-interest, Hobbes said, the ruler needed total power to keep citizens under control. The best government was one that had the awe some power of a leviathan (sea monster). In Hobbes’s view, such a government was an absolute monarchy, which could impose order and demand obedience.
- **Locke’s Natural Rights:** The philosopher John Locke held a different, more positive, view of human nature. He believed that people could learn from experience and improve themselves. As reasonable beings, they had the natural ability to govern their own affairs and to look after the welfare of society. Locke criticized absolute monarchy and favored the idea of self-government. According to Locke, all people are born free and equal, with three natural rights—life, liberty, and property. The purpose of government, said Locke, is to protect these rights. If a government fails to do so, citizens have a right to overthrow it. Locke’s theory had a deep influence on modern political thinking. His belief that a government’s power comes from the consent of the people is the foundation of modern democracy. The ideas of government by popular consent and the right to rebel against unjust rulers helped inspire struggles for liberty in Europe and the Americas

Impact of Enlightenment

The Impact of Enlightenment is as follows:

- It led to the demand for reform with in traditional Christian principle like human commonality and god’s concern for all. It further led to the end of slavery in 1774 in England and in 1807 from entire British colonies.
- A number of invariable principles of economics put forth by Adam Smith struck a direct blow to the old mercantile economy which was based upon slave trade and industrial labour meant for plantation agriculture.
- In the area of criminology. The concept to detent crime though brutal punishment was countered by education and criminal rehabilitation.
- Increasing awareness of individual within social paradigm and the concept of lasses-faire was acknowledgement.
- The epoch of monarchic repentance where the absolute, autocratic and suppressive monarchy was replaced by liberal philanthropic and intellectual monarchy .The spirit of humanism along with public welfare to an extent prevailed over monarchic interest. Russian empress

CATHERINE (1762-96) and JOSEPH (1765-1790), the emperor of Austria were among the earlier enlightened rulers and were great admirers of Voltaire, Rousseau and Montesquieu.

- Across Atlantic, philosophers like Benjamin Franklin, James Logan, Thomas Penn, Samuel Adam and others propagated the concept of enlightenment and made the Americans conscious of their rights and duties against the oppressive British rule. This led to the famous American war of independence (1776).
- The French and the Spanish forces who fought alongside the Americans in the war led to the French Revolution in their return.
- John Locke's idea of life, liberty and property became the justification of American Independence while Montesquieu propounded the idea of separation of power between the legislative, Executive and Judiciary.
- Racial discrimination practiced by the British, American war of Independence, French Revolution and Unification of Italy contributed to the evolution of Enlightenment in India.
- **Raja Ram Mohan Roy** (1772-1833) considered as the first social reformer of Modern Indian Renaissance inspired the ideals of social equality and human dignity. He imbibed the best of the oriental and western philosophy and was instrumental to the opening of Hindu College.
- Thinkers like Vivian Henry Derozio, Ishwar Chandra Vidya Sagar, Swami Vivekananda, Rabindra Nath Tagore, Sharat Chandra and others not only fought against orthodox in human practices viz Untouchability, casteism, Sati system and others but simultaneously provided an alternative synthesis of Indian and European traditions which was suitable for the Indian conditions.
- Ideas of Natural rights—life, liberty, property were given by Locke. It was fundamental to U.S. Declaration of Independence.
- Ideas of Separation of powers were given by Montesquieu. France, United States, Latin American nations use separation of powers in new constitutions.
- Ideas of Freedom of thought and expression were given by Voltaire. It is guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights and French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen; European monarchs reduce or eliminate censorship.
- Ideas of Abolishment of torture were given by Beccaria. It is guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights; torture outlawed or reduced in nations of Europe and the America.
- Ideas of Religious freedom were given by Voltaire. It is guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights and French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen; European monarchs reduce persecution.
- Ideas of Women's equality were given by Wollstonecraft. This led to Women's rights groups form in Europe and North America.



CHAPTER - 2

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

INTRODUCTION

During the later half of the 18th century the Thirteen British colonies of Northern America revolted against the British colonial rule and gained independence from the British Empire to become the United States of America. In this revolution the colonies united against the British Empire and entered a period of armed conflict known as the Revolutionary War on “**American War of Independence**”, between **1775 and 1783**.

The Ideological background of American Revolution

The ideological background of American Revolution was prepared by various kinds of ideas. John Locke's idea on liberalism greatly influenced the political minds behind the revolution; for instance; his theory of the “Social contract” implied the natural rights of the people to overthrow their leaders, should these leaders betray the historic rights of Englishmen. Historians find little trace of Jean-Jacques Rousseau's influence in America.

A motivating force behind the revolution was the American love of a political ideology called “Republicanism” which was dominant in many of the colonies by 1775. The “Country party” in Britain, whose critique of British government emphasized that corruption was to be feared, influenced American politicians. The colonists associated the “court” with luxury and inherited aristocracy, which many British Americans increasingly condemned. Corruption was the greatest possible evil, and civic virtue required men to put civic duty ahead of their personal desires. Men had a civic duty to fight for their country. For women, “republican motherhood” was to instill republican values in her children and to avoid luxury and ostentation. The “Founding Fathers” of American Revolution were strong advocates of republicanism, Especially Samuel Adams, Patrick Henry, Thomas Paine Benjamin Franklin, George Washington, Thomas Jefferson and John Adams.

THE LARGER BACKGROUND OF AMERICAN REVOLUTION

1. Navigation Acts

Great Britain regulated the economies of the colonies through the Navigation Acts according to the doctrines of mercantilism, which stated that anything that benefited the Empire was good policy. Widespread evasion of these laws had long been tolerated now through the use of open ended search warrants strict enforcement of these Acts became the practice. In 1761, Massachusetts lawyer James Otis argued that the writs violated the constitutional rights of the colonists. He lost the case, but John Adams later wrote, “American Independence was then and there born”.

In 1762, Patrick Henry argued the Parson's cause in Virginia, where the legislature had passed a law and it was voted by the king. Henry argued, “That a king, by disallowing Acts of this salutary nature, form being the Father of His people, degenerated into a Tyrant and Forfeits all right to his subjects' obedience”

2. Western Frontier

The proclamation of 1763 restricted colonization across the Appalachian Mountains as this was to be Indian Territory Regardless of this the groups of settlers continued to move west and lay claim to Indian Land. The proclamation was soon modified and was no longer a hindrance to settlements, but its promulgation and the fact that it had been written without consulting Americans angered the colonists. The Quebec Act of 1774

extended Quebec's boundaries to the Ohio River, shutting out the claims of the thirteen colonies. By then, however, the Americans had little regard for new laws from London and they were drilling militia and organizing for war.

3. Taxation without representation

By 1763, Great Britain possessed vast holdings in North America. In addition to the thirteen colonies, twenty-two smaller colonies were ruled directly by royal governors. Victory in the seven years War had given Great Britain New France (Canada), Spanish Florida and the Native American there were six colonies that remained loyal to Britain. The colonies included: Province of Quebec province of Nova Scotia, colony of Bermuda Province of West Florida and the province of East Florida. In 1765 however, the colonists still considered themselves loyal subjects of the British crown, with the same historic rights and obligations as subjects in Britain.

The British did not expect the colonies to contribute to the interest or the retirement of debt incurred during the French and Indian wars, but they did expect a portion of the expenses for colonial defense to be paid by the Americans. Estimating the expenses of defending the continental colonies and the West India's to be approximately 2, 00,000 annually the British goal after the end of this war was that the colonies would be taxed for 78,000 of this needed amount. The issues with the colonists were both that the taxes were high and that the colonies had no representation in the parliament which passed the taxes. Lord North in 1775 argued for the British position that Englishmen paid on average twenty-five shillings annually in taxes whereas Americans paid only six pence. Colonists, however as early as 1764 with respect to the sugar Act, indicated that the "the margin of profit in rum was so small that molasses could bear no duty whatever".

The phrase "No taxation without representation" became popular in many American circles. London argued that the Americans were represented "virtually". But most Americans rejected the theory that men in London, who knew nothing about their needs and conditions, could represent them.

4. New taxes of 1764

In 1764, Parliament enacted the sugar Act and the currency Act, further vexing the colonists even further that same year by enacting the Quartering Act, which stated that British soldiers were to be cared for by residents in certain areas.

5. Stamp Act of 1765

In 1765, the stamp Act was the first direct tax ever levied by parliament on the colonies. All newspapers, almanacs, pamphlets and official documents-even decks of playing cards- were required to have the stamps. All 13 colonies protested vehemently as popular leaders Such as Patrick Henry in Virginia and James Otis in Massachusetts rallied the people in opposition. A secret group the "Sons of liberty" was formed in many towns and threatened violence if anyone sold the stamps and no one did. In Boston, the sons of liberty burned the records of the vice- admiralty court and looted the home of the chief Justice. Several legislatures called for united action, and nine colonies sent delegates to the stamp Act congress in New York City in October 1765. Moderates led by John Dickinson drew up a "Declaration of Rights and Grievances" stating that taxes passed without representation violated their Rights. Lending weight to the argument was an economic boycott of British merchandise, as imports the colonies fell from 2,250,000 in 1764 to 1,944,000 in 1765. In London the Rockingham Government came to power and parliament debated whether to repeal the stamp tax or send an army to enforce it Benjamin Franklin eloquently made the American case, explaining the colonies had spent heavily in manpower, money and blood in defense of the empire in a series of wars against the French and Indians, and that Further taxes to pay for those wars were unjust and might bring about a rebellion. Parliament agreed and repealed the tax but in a "Declaratory Act" of March 1766 insisted that parliament retained full power to make laws for the colonies "in all cases whatsoever".

6. Townshend Act 1767 and Boston Massacre 1770

In 1767, the Parliament passed the Townshend Acts, which placed a tax on a number of essential goods

including paper, glass and tea. Angered at the tax increases, colonists organized a boycott of British goods in Boston on March 5, 1770 a large mob gathered around a group of British soldiers. One Soldier was clubbed and fell. All but one of the soldiers fired into the crowd. Eleven people were hit: Three civilians were killed at the scene of the shooting, and two died after the incident. The event quickly came to be called the Boston Massacre. Although the Soldiers were tried and acquitted (defended by John Adams), the exaggerated and widespread description soon became propaganda to turn colonial sentiment against the British. This in turn began a downward spiral in the relationship between Britain and the Province of Massachusetts.

7. Tea Act 1773

In June 1772, in what became known as the Gaspee affair a British warship that had been vigorously enforcing unpopular trade regulations was burned by American patriots. Soon afterwards, Governor Thomas Hutchinson of Massachusetts reported that he and the royal Judges would be paid directly from London, thus by passing the colonial legislature on December 16, 1773 a group of men led by Samuel Adams and dressed to evoke American Indians, boarded the ships of British tea merchants and dumped an estimated 10,000 worth of tea on board into the harbor. This event became known as the Boston Tea party.

8. Intolerable Acts 1774

The British government responded by passing several Acts which came to be known as the Intolerable Acts, which further darkened colonial opinion towards the British. They considered four laws enacted by the British parliament. The first was the Massachusetts Government Act, which altered the Massachusetts Charter and restricted town meetings. The second Act, the Administration of Justice Act, ordered that all British Soldiers to be tried were to be arraigned in Britain not in the Colonies. The third Act was the Boston Port Act, which closed the port of Boston until the British had been compensated for the tea lost in the Boston Tea party (the British never received such a parliament). The fourth Act was the Quartering Act of 1774, which allowed governors to house British troops in unoccupied building. The first continental congress endorsed the Suffolk Resolves, which declared the intolerable Acts to be unconstitutional, called for the people to form militias, and called for Massachusetts to form a patriot government.

9. American political opposition

American political opposition was initially through the colonial assemblies such as the stamp Act congress. In 1765 the sons of liberty were formed which used violence and threats of violence to ensure that the British tax laws were unenforceable. In late 1772 after the Gaspe Affair Samuel Adams set about creating new committees of correspondence which linked patriots in all thirteen colonies and eventually provided the framework for a rebel government. In early 1773, Virginia, the largest colony set up its committee of correspondence on which Patrick Henry and Thomas Jefferson Served.

In 1774, the Continental Congress was formed to serve as a provisional national government. In response to the Massachusetts Government Act, Massachusetts Bay and then other colonies formed provisional governments called Provincial Congress Committee of safety were created for the enforcement of the resolutions of the committees of Correspondence and the continental Congress.

The People of Worcester set up an armed picket line in front of the local authorities and refused to allow British magistrates to enter. Similar events soon occurred all across the colony British troops were sent from England but by the time they arrived the entire colony of Massachusetts with the exception of the heavily garrisoned city of Boston had thrown off British control of local affairs.

The Battle of Lexington and Concord took place on 19 April 1775 when the British sent a regiment to confiscate arms and arrest revolutionaries in Concord. It was the first fighting of the American Revolutionary War, and immediately the news aroused the 13 colonies to call out their militias and send troops to besiege Boston. The Battle of Bunker Hill followed on 17 June 1775 By late spring 1776, with George Washington as commander the Americans forced the British to evacuate Boston. The patriots were in control everywhere in the 13 colonies and were ready to declare independence while there still were many Loyalists, they were no

longer in control anywhere by July 1776 and all of the British Royal officials had fled. The Second Continental Congress Convened in 1775, after the war had started. The Congress Created the continental Army and extended the Olive Branch Petition to the Crown as an attempt at reconciliation King George iii refused to receive it, issuing instead the Proclamation of Rebellion requiring action against the traitors.

VARIOUS FRACTIONS IN AMERICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

1. The Patriots or the Revolutionaries

At the time, revolutionaries were called ‘Patriots’, ‘Whigs’, ‘Congress-men’, or ‘Americans’ The word “Patriot” is used in this context simply to mean a person in the colonies who sided with the American Revolution. They included a full range of social and economic classes, but there was a unanimity regarding the need to defend the rights of Americans. After the War, Patriots such as George Washington, James Madison, John Adams, Alexander Hamilton and John Jay were deeply devoted to republicanism and they were eager to build a rich and powerful nation. The Patriots such as Patrick Henry, Benjamin Franklin, and Thomas Jefferson represented the democratic impulses and the agrarian plantation element that wanted a localized society with greater political equality.

2. Loyalists and neutrals

While there is no way of knowing the actual numbers historians estimate 25% to 33% of the colonists remained loyal to the British Crown these were known at the time as ‘ Loyalists ‘Tories’, or ‘King’s men’ A third remained neutral and another third were known as Rebels or Patriots depending on whose side one was on. Loyalists were typically older, less willing to break with old loyalties, often connected to the Anglican Church, and included many established merchants with business connections across the Empire. Recent immigrants who had not been fully Americanized were also inclined to support the king.

There are notable example of loyalists who were not highborn, however, and it seems unlikely that their number are included in estimates of the number of loyalists. Notable among these were Native Americans, who mostly rejected American pleas that they remain neutral. Most groups aligned themselves with the loyalists. There were also incentives provided by both sides that helped to secure the affiliations of regional peoples and leaders, and the tribes that depended most heavily upon colonial trade tended to side with the revolutionaries, through political factors were important as well.

Another poorly- documented groups that Joined the loyalist cause were African-American slaves, who were actively recruited into the British forces in return for manumission protection for their families and the promise of land grants. Following the war, many of these “Black loyalists” settled in Nova Scotia Upper and Lower Canada, and other parts of the British Empire, where the descendants of some remain today. A minority of uncertain size tried to stay neutral in the war. Most kept a low profile. However the Quakers especially in Pennsylvania were the most important group that was outspoken for neutrality. As patriots declared independence the Quakers, who continued to do business with the British were attacked as supporters of British rule, “Contrivers and authors of Seditious publications “Critical of the revolutionary cause.

After the war, the great majority of loyalists remained in America and resumed normal lives. Some Such as Samuel Seabury became prominent American leaders. 62,000 Loyalists (of the total estimated number of 450-500,000) relocated to Canada (42,000 according to the Canadian book on Loyalists, Trued Blue) Britain (7,000) or to Florida or the West Indies (13,000) making the one of the largest mass migrations in history this made up approximately 2% of the total population of the colonies. When the Loyalists left the South in 1783, they took thousands of their slaves with them to the British West Indies, Where their descendants would became free men 26 years earlier than their United States counterparts.

3. Declaration of Independence, 1776

On January 10, 1776, Thomas Paine Published a political pamphlet entitled “Common Sense” arguing that the only solution to the problems with Britain was republicanism and independence from Great Britain In the

ensuring month before the United States as a political unit declared its independence several states individually declared their independence. Virginia for instance declared its independence from Great Britain on May 15 on July 2, 1776. Congress declared the independence of the United States: two days later, on July 4 it adopted the Declaration of Independence, Which date is now celebrated as the US independence day. Although the bulk of delegates signed the Declaration on that late, signing continued over the next several months because many members weren't immediately available. The war began in April 1775 while the declaration was issued in July 1776, until this point the colonies had sought favorable peace terms: now all the states called for independence.

The Articles of confederation and Perpetual union commonly Known as the Articles of Confederation formed the first governing document of the united states of America, Combining the colonies into a loose confederation of Sovereign states. The second continental congress adopted the Articles in November 1777, though they were not formally ratified until March 1, 1781 on that date the continental congress was dissolved and the new government of the United States in congress Assembled was formed.

France in the American Revolution

France was instrumental in the American Revolution. The victory of the American forces can be attributed to the military aid provided by the French forces.

France enter the American Revolution

France participated actively in the American Revolutionary War (1775-1783) and assisted America in its fight for independence from the British rule. It entered the Revolution in 1778. France perceived the whole episode as an incarnation of the Enlightenment Spirit. Benjamin Franklin popularized the Revolution in France, urging them to participate.

France help America in the Revolutionary War

France had faced a bitter defeat in the French and Indian War, having to evacuate the American soil after that. Therefore, it saw a natural ally in the American colonies, who the French also wished to turn to their advantage once the conflict was over. At the same time, the colonies lacked ammunitions and allies. The French extended considerable financial support to the American forces in the form of donations and loans and also supplied vital military arms and supplies, which became a decisive factor in the victory of America.

Benjamin Franklin play an important role in the American Revolution

Benjamin Franklin was among the founding fathers, and played an indispensable role in the American Revolution. Motivated by the ideals of equality, liberty and republicanism, he entered the war and mobilized the masses to join in the same. In December 1776, he went to France, where he was welcomed with enthusiasm. He stayed in Paris for a long time, which was a cause of discontent for the British but was unusually a fruitful time for America.

Siege of Yorktown

The Siege of Yorktown or the surrender of Yorktown in 1781 was an important battle in the American Revolution. It refers to the victory of the American forces made possible by a combined attack over the British army by the French forces led by Comte de Rochambeau and the American forces led by General George Washington. The assault on the British army forced Cornwallis to surrender and end the conflict.

Economy of France affected

The Treaty of Paris, signed in September 1783, ended the war between Britain and the United States of America. It was signed jointly by Great Britain, France, and Spain. The French forces had spent a lot of money in aid to America, and the national debt swelled to 3.315 billion. It also could not become the main trading partner with America, as it had hoped. This led to public unrest and a disbelief in monarchy, which some believe sowed the seeds for the French Revolution.

The Worldwide influence of American Revolution

The Revolution began in states without inherited rank or position, despite the unsuccessful efforts of the society of the Cincinnati to create such a division. After the Revolution genuinely democratic politics such as those of Matthew Lyon, became possible despite the opposition and dismay of the Federalist Party. The rights of the people were incorporated into state constitutions. Thus came the widespread assertion of liberty, individual rights, equality and hostility towards corruption which would prove the valves of republicanism to Americans. The greatest challenge to the old order in Europe was the challenge to inherited political power and the democratic idea that government rests on the consent of the governed. The examples of the first successful revolution against a European empire provided a model for many other colonial peoples who realized that they too could break away and become self-governing nations.

Morocco was the first country to recognize the independence of the United States of America from the kingdom of Great Britain in 1777. The two countries signed the Moroccan-American Treaty of friendship ten years later. Friesland one of the seven united provinces of Dutch republic, was the next to recognize American independence on February 26, 1782, followed by the Staten-Generaal of the Dutch republic on April 19, 1782. John Adams became the first US Ambassador in The Hague. The American Revolution was the first wave of the Atlantic Revolutions that took hold in the French Revolution, the Haitian Revolution, and the Latin American wars of liberation. Aftershocks reached Ireland in the 1789 rising, in the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth and in the Netherlands.

The Revolution had a strong, immediate impact in Great Britain, Ireland, the Netherlands, and France. Many British and Irish Whigs spoke in favor of the American cause. The Revolution along with the Dutch Revolt (end of the 16th century) and the English civil War (in the 17th century), was one of the first lessons in overthrowing an old regime for many Europeans who later were active during the era of the French Revolution, such as Marquis de Lafayette. The American Declaration of independence had some impact on the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the citizen of 1789.

The North American states new-found independence from the British Empire allowed slavery to continue in the United States until 1865, 32 years after it was banned in all British colonies. It also treated the Native Americans dearly: they had been protected under British rule, but in the newly formed United States, their treaties were torn up, their rights were withdrawn and finally, their lands were taken.



CHAPTER - 3**AMERICAN CIVIL WAR****INTRODUCTION**

The American civil war (1861-1865), also known by several other names, was a civil war between the United States of America (the "Union") and the southern slave states of the newly formed confederation states of America under Jefferson Davis. The Union included all the free states and the five slave holding border states. The union was led by Abraham Lincoln and the Republican Party. The Republican Party opposed the expansion of slavery into territories owned by the United States, and their victory in the presidential election of 1860 resulted in seven southern states declaring their secession from the union even before Lincoln took office. The Union rejected secession and regarded it as rebellion. This conflict initiated the American civil war which threatened the unity and integrity of the United States of America.

The Civil war was the deadliest in American history and it caused 6,20,000 soldier deaths and an undetermined number of civilian casualties. The victory in the war ended slavery in the United States and restored the Union by settling the issues of nullification and secession and strengthened the role of the federal government. The social, political, economic and racial issues of the war continue to shape contemporary American thought.

The Issue of Slavery

A strong correlation was shown between the degree of support for secession and the number of plantations in the region; states of the Deep South which had the greatest concentration of plantations were the first to secede. The upper south slave states of Virginia, North Carolina, Arkansas and Tennessee had fewer plantations and rejected secession until the Fort Sumter crisis forced them to choose sides. Border States had fewer plantations still and never seceded. The percentage of southern whites living in families that owned slaves was 36.7 percent in the lower south, 25.3 percent in the upper south and 15.9 percent in the Border States that fought mostly for the Union. Ninety five percent of blacks lived in the south, comprising the one third of the population there as opposed to one percent of the population of the North. Consequently, fears of eventual emancipation were much greater in the south than in the North.

The Supreme Court decision of 1857 in *Dred Scott V. Sandford* added to the controversy. Chief Justice Roger B. Taney's decision said that slaves were "so far inferior that they had no rights which the white man was bound to respect", and that slavery could spread into the territories. Lincoln warned that "next Dred Scott decision" could threaten Northern states with slavery.

Northern politician Abraham Lincoln said, "this question of slavery was more important than any other; indeed so much more important has it become that no other national question can even get a hearing just at present." The slavery issue was related to sectional competition for control of the territories and the southern demand for a slave code for the territories was the issue used by southern politicians to split the Democratic Party in two, which all but guaranteed the election of Lincoln and secession. When secession was an issue, South Carolina planter and state senator John Pickens said that "our enemies are about to take possession of the Government that they intend to rule us according to the caprices of their fanatical theories and according to the declared purposes of abolishing slavery." Similar opinions were expressed throughout the south in editorials, political speeches and declarations of reasons for secession. Even though Lincoln had no plans to outlaw slavery where it existed, southerners throughout the south expressed fears for the future of slavery.

Southern concerns included not only economic loss but also fears of racial equality. The Texas Declaration of Causes for Secession said that the non-slave holding states were "proclaiming the debasing

doctrine of equality of all men, irrespective of race or color”, and that the African race “were rightfully held and regarded as an inferior and dependent race Alabama secessionist E. S. Dargan said that emancipation would make southerners feel “ demoralized and degraded Beginning in the 1830s, the U.S post master General refused to allow mail which carried abolition pamphlets to the south. Northern teachers suspected of any tinge of abolitionism were expelled from the south and abolitionist literature was banned southerners rejected the denials of Republicans that they were abolitionists. John Brown’s raid on the federal Harpers Ferry Armory greatly increased Southern fears of slave insurrections. The North felt threatened as well for as Eric Foner concludes,” Northerners came to view slavery as the very antithesis of the good society, as well as a threat to their own fundamental values and interests”

Southern Culture

Although only a small share of free southerners owned slaves, southerners of all classes often defended the institution of slavery-threatened by the rise of free labour abolitionist movements in the northern states –as the cornerstone of their social order. Based on a system of plantation slavery the social structure of the south was far more stratified and patriarchal than that of the North. In 1850 there were around 350,000 slave holders in a total free southern population of about six million. Among slave holders, the concentration of slave ownership was unevenly distributed. Perhaps around seven percent of slave holders owned roughly three-quarters of the slave population. The largest slave holders generally owners of large plantations represented the top stratum of southern society. They benefitted from economies of scale and needed large numbers of slaves on big plantation to produce profitable labour- intensive crops like cotton. This plantation –owning elite known as “slave magnates” was comparable to the millionaires of the following century.

In the 1850s, as large plantation owners out –competed smaller farmers, more slaves were owned by fewer planters. Yet while the proportions of the white population consisting of slave holders was on the decline on the eve of the civil war- perhaps falling below around a quarter of free southerners in 1860-poor whites small farmers generally accepted the political leadership of the planter elite.

Several factors helped explain why slavery was not under serious threat of internal collapse from any moves for democratic change initiated from the south. First given the opening of new territories in the west for white settlements, many non-slave owners also perceived a possibility that they too might own slaves at some point in their life.

Second small free farmers in the South often embraced hysterical racism making them unlikely agents for internal democratic reforms into the south. The principle of white supremacy, accepted by almost all white southerners of all classes made slavery seem legitimate natural and essential for a civilized society. White racism in the south was sustained by official systems of repression such as the “slave codes” For example the “slave patrols” were among the institutions bringing together southern whites of all classes in support of the prevailing economic and racial order. Serving as slave “patrollers” and overseers” offered white southerners positions of power and honour. These positions gave even poor white southerners the authority to stop search whip, maim and even kill any slave travelling outside also won prestige in their communities. Policing and punishing blacks who transgressed the regimentation of slave society was a valued community service in the south where the fear of free blacks threatening law and order figured heavily in the public discourse of the period.

Third many small farmers with a few slaves and yeomen were linked to elite planters through the market economy. In many areas , small farmers depended on local planter elites for access to cotton gins, for markets for their feed and live stock, and for loans furthermore whites of varying social castes including poor white and “plain folk” who worked outside or at least in the periphery of the market economy might be linked to elite planters through extensive kinship networks for example a poor white person might be the cousin of the richest aristocrat of his country and share the same militant support of slavery as his richer relatives.

Thus by the 1850s, southern slave holders and non-slaveholder alike felt increasingly encircled psychologically and politically in the national political arena because of the rise of free socialism and abolitionism

in the Northern states. Increasingly dependent on the North for manufacture goods for commercial services and for loans and increasingly cut off from the Nourishing agricultural regions of the North West they faced the prospects of a growing free labour and abolitionist movement in the North.

Militant defense of slavery

With the outcry over development in Kansas strong in the north, defenders of slavery-increasingly committed to a way of life that abolitionists and their sympathizers considered absolute or immoral –shifted to a militant pro-slavery ideology that would lay the groundwork for secession upon the emergence of Abraham Lincoln. Southerners waged a vitriolic response to political change in the North. Slaveholding interests sought to uphold their rights in the territories and to maintain sufficient political strength to repulse “hostile” and “ruinous” legislation. Behind this shift was the growth of the cotton industry which left slavery more important than ever to the southern economy.

Abolitionism

Antislavery movement in the North gained momentum in 1830s and 1840s a period of rapid transformation of Northern society that inspired a social and political reformism. Many of the reformers of the period including abolitionists attempted in one way or another to transform the lifestyle and work habits of labour helping workers respond to the new demands of an industrializing capitalistic society.

Antislavery movement like many other reform movements of the period was influenced by the legacy of the great second Great Awakening a period of religious revival in the new country stressing the reform of individuals. This was still relatively fresh in the American memory. Thus while the reform spirit of the period was expressed by a variety of movements with often-conflicting political goals most reform movements shared a common feature in their emphasis on the Great Awakening principle of transforming the human personality through discipline order and restraint.

“Abolitionist” had several meanings at that time. The followers of William Lloyd Garrison, including Wendell Phillips and Frederick Douglass, demanded the immediate abolition of slavery” hence the name. A more pragmatic group of abolitionists, like Theodore Weld and Arthur Tappan, wanted immediate action but that action might well be a programme of gradual emancipation with a long intermediate stage. “Antislavery men” like John Quincy Adams did what they could to limit slavery and end it where possible but were not part of any additional group. For example in 1841 Adams represented the Amistad African slaves in the supreme court of the United States and argued that they should be set free. In the last years before the war “antislavery” could mean the Northern majority like Abraham Lincoln who opposed expansion of slavery of its influence as by the Kansas Nebraska Act or the fugitive slave Act. Many southerners called all these abolitionists without distinguishing them from the Garrisonians. James McPherson explains the abolitionists’ deep beliefs. “All people were equal in God’s sight the souls of black folks were as valuable as those of whites; for one of God’s children to enslave another was a violation of the Higher Law, even if it was sanctioned by the constitution”.

Stressing the Yankee protestant ideals of self-improvement industry and thrift most abolitionists most notably William Lloyd Garrison –Condemned slavery as a lack of control over one’s own destiny and the fruits of one’s labour.

Abolitionists also attacked slavery as a threat to the freedom of white American. Defining freedom as more than a simple lack of restraint antebellum reformers held that the truly freed man was one who imposed restraints upon himself. Thus for the anti-slavery reformers of the 1830s and 1840 the promise of free labour and upward social mobility was central to the ideal of reforming individuals.

Controversy over the so-called Ostend manifesto which proposed U.S annexation of Cuba as a slave state and the Fugitive slave Act kept sectional tensions alive before the issue of slavery in the west could occupy the country’s politics in the mid –to- late 1850s.

The Origin of the American civil war

The main explanation for the origins of the American civil war was slavery especially the issue of the expansion of slavery into the territories states rights and the tariff issue became entangled in the slavery issue

and were intensified by it other important factors were party politics, expansionism sectionalism economics and modernization in the Antebellum period.

The United States was a nation divided into two distinct regions separated by the Mason-Dixon Line. New England the Northeast and the Midwest had a rapidly growing economy based on family farms, industry mining, commerce and transportation with a large and rapidly growing urban population and no Slavery outside the Border States. Its growth was fed by a high birth rate and large numbers of European immigrants especially Irish, British, German, Polish and Scandinavian.

The south was dominated by a settled plantation system based on slavery with rapid growth taking place in the southwest such a Texas, based on high birth rates and low immigration from Europe. There were few cities or towns, and little manufacturing except in border areas. Slave's owners controlled politics and economics. Two thirds of the southern whites owned no slave and usually were engaged in subsistence agriculture but supped slavery came from all segments of southern society.

Overall the Northern population was growing much more quickly than he southern population, which made it increasingly difficult for the south to continue o control the national government .Southerners were worried about the relative political decline of their region because the North was growing much faster in terms of population and industrial output.

In the interest of maintaining unity, politicians had mostly moderated oppositions to slavery, resulting in numerous compromises such as the Missouri compromise of 1820. After the Mexican, American War the issue of slavery in the new territories led to the compromise of 1850. While the compromise averted and immediate political crisis, it did not permanently resolve the issue of the slave power.

Amid the emergence of increasingly virulent and hostile sectional ideologies in national politics the collapse of the old second party system in the 1850s hampered efforts of the politicians to reach yet one more compromise.

The compromise that was reached (the Kansas-Nebraska Act) outraged too many northerners. In the 1850s, with the rise of the Republican Party, the first major party with no appeal in the south the industrializing north and agrarian Midwest became committed to the economic ethos of free –labour industrial capitalism.

In the 1860s the election of Abraham Lincoln, who won the national election without receiving a single electoral vote from any of the southern states, triggered the secession of the cotton states of the Deep South from the union and their formation of the confederated states of America.

The Missouri Compromise

The Admission of the new state of Missouri as a slave state would give the slave states control over the senate whenever a new state was added to the Union, there was always controversy over whether the state would be slave or free. Since every state has the same number of senators regardless of population the way to prevent conflict between slave and Free states was to allow each section to have the same number of states which would result in each side having the same number of senators. Since the admission f Missouri would upset this balance many national leaders shared Thomas Jefferson's fear of a war over slavery a fear that Jefferson described as "a fire bell in the night" The crisis was solved by the compromise of 1820 which admitted Maine to the Union as a free state at same time that Missouri was admitted as a slave state. The compromise also banned slavery in the Louisiana Purchase territory north and west of the state of Missouri, a compromise that preserved the peace until this ban on slavery was repealed by the Kansas Nebraska Act of 1854.

Antebellum south and the union

There had been a continuing contest between the states and the national government over the power of the latter and over the loyalty of the citizenry-almost since the founding of the republic. The Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions of 1798, for example had Hartford convention. New England voiced its opposition to President James Madison and the war of 1812 and discussed secession from the union.

The Courses of the War

The coexistence of a slave-owning south with an increasingly anti-slavery North made conflict inevitable. Lincoln did not propose federal laws against slavery where it already existed but he had in his 1858 house Divided speech, expressed a desire to “arrest the further spread of it, and place it where the public mind shall rest in the belief that it is in the course of ultimate extinction” Much of the political battle in the 1850s focused on the expansion of slavery into the newly created territories. All of the organized territories were likely to become free-soil states, which increased the southern movement toward secession. Both North and South assumed that if slavery could not expand it would wither and die. Southern feared of losing control of the federal government to antislavery forces and Northern fears that the slave power already controlled the government brought the crisis to a head in the late 1850s. Sectional disagreements over the morality of slavery the scope of democracy and the economic merits of free labour vs. Slave plantations caused the wing and “know Nothing” parties to collapse and new ones to arise.

Both North and South were influenced by the ideas of Thomas Jefferson. Southerners emphasized in connection with slavery the states’ rights ideas mentioned in Jefferson’s Kentucky Resolutions. Northerners ranging from the abolitionist William Lloyd Garrison to the moderate Republican leader Abraham Lincoln emphasized Jefferson’s declaration that all men are created equal. Lincoln mentioned this proposition in Gettysburg Address.

The 1854 Ostend Manifesto was a Southern attempt to take over Cuba as a slave state. Even rival plans for Northern vs. Southern routes for a transcontinental rail road became entangled in the Bleeding Kansas controversy over slavery. The second party system broke down after passage of the Kansas Nebraska Act, in 1854 which replaced the Missouri compromises ban on slavery with popular sovereignty. In 1856 congressional arguments over slavery become violent when Representative Preston Brooks of South Carolina attacked Radical Republican senator Charles Sumner with a cane after Sumner’s crime against Kansas speech. The Dred Scott Decision and Lecompton constitution of 1857 were southern attempts to admit Kansas to the union as a slave state. The Lincoln Douglas debates of 1858. John Brown’s raid in 1859 and the split in the Democratic Party in 1860 polarized the nation between North and South. The election of Lincoln in 1860 was the final trigger for secession. During the secession crisis, many sought compromise. Two of these attempts were the “Crittenden Amendment” and the “Crittenden Compromise” All attempts at compromise failed others factors include sectionalism (caused by the growth of slavery in the Deep South while slavery was gradually phased out in Northern states) and economic differences between North and south although most modern historians disagree with the extremes economic determinism of historian Charles Beard. There was the polarizing effect of slavery that split the largest religious denominations (the Methodist, Baptist and Presbyterian churches) and controversy caused by the worst cruelties of slavery (whippings, mutilation and families split apart.). The fact that seven immigrants out of eight settled in the North plus the fact that twice as many whites left the south for the north as vice versa, contributed to the south’s defensive aggressive political behavior.

Southern secession was triggered by the election of Republican Abraham Lincoln because regional leaders feared that he would stop the expansion of slavery and put it on course toward extinction. Many southerners though either Lincoln or another Northerner would abolish slavery and that it was time to secede. The slave states which had already become a minority in the House of Representatives were now facing a future as a perpetual minority in the senate and Electoral College against an increasingly powerful North.

Beginning of the secession of South Carolina

South Carolina adopted the “Declaration of the immediate causes which induce and justify the secession of South Carolina from the Federal union on 24 December 1860. It argued for states’ rights for slave owners in the south but contained a complaint about states’ rights in the North in the form of opposition to the Fugitive slave Act, Claiming that Northern states were not fulfilling their federal obligations under the constitution.

At issue were:

- The refusal of Northern states to enforce the fugitive slave code violating southern personal property rights
- Agitation against slavery which “denied the right of property”
- Assisting “thousands of slaves to leave their homes” through the Underground Railroad
- The election of Lincoln “because he has declared that Government cannot endure permanently held that Government cannot endure permanently half slave half free’ and that the public must rest in the belief that slavery is in the course of ultimate extinction”
- “.....Elevating to citizenship persons who by the supreme law of the land, are in capable of becoming citizens” Most Northerners opposed the Dred Scott decision although only a few New England states allowed blacks an equal right to vote.

Secession winter

Before Lincoln took office, seven states had declared their secession from the union. They established a southern government the confederate states of America of 9 February 1861. They took control of federal forts and other properties within their boundaries with little resistance from outgoing President James Buchanan, whose term ended on 4 March 1861, Buchanan asserted, “The south has no right to secede but I have no power to prevent them” one quarter of the U.S army –the entire garrison in Texas –was surrendered to state forces by its commanding general, David E. Twiggs, who then joined the confederacy.

As Southerners resigned their seats in the senate and the House, secession later enabled Republicans to pass bills for projects that had been blocked by southern senators before the war, including the Morrill Tariff land grant colleges (the Morrill Act) a Homestead Act, a trans-continental railroad (the Pacific Railways acts) The National banking act and the authorization of United States notes by the Legal Tender act of 1862. The Revenue Act of 1861 introduced the income tax to help finance the war.

The Confederacy

Even Deep South cotton states seceded by February 1861. Starting with South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana and Texas. These seven states formed the confederate states of America (4 February 1861) with Jefferson Davis as president and a governmental structure closely modeled on the U.S constitution within two months of the first shots at Fort Sumter, four more slave states seceded and joined the confederacy Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina and Tennessee. The north-western portion of Virginia subsequently seceded from Virginia joining the Union as the new state of West Virginia on 20 June 1863.

The union states

Twenty-three states remained loyal to the Union: California Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont and Wisconsin. During the war, Nevada and West Virginia joined as new states of the union. Tennessee and Louisiana were returned to union control early in the war.

The territories of Colorado, Dakota, Nebraska, Nevada New Mexico, Utah and Washington fought to the union side. Several slave-holding Native American tribes supported the confederacy giving the Indian Territory (now Oklahoma) a small bloody civil war.

The Border States

The Border States in the Union were West Virginia (which was separated from Virginia and became a new state). And four of the five northernmost slave states (Maryland Delaware, Missouri and Kentucky) Maryland had numerous Pro- Confederate officials who tolerated anti-union rioting in Baltimore and the burning of bridges. Lincoln responded with martial law and called for troops. Militia units that had been drilling in the

North rushed toward Washington and Baltimore. Before the confederate government realized what was happening, Lincoln had seized firm control of Maryland (and the separate District of Columbia) by arresting all the Maryland government members and holding them without trial.

In Missouri, an elected convention on secession voted decisively to remain within the union. When pro-confederate Governor Claiborne F Jackson called out the state militia, it was attacked by federal forces under General Nathaniel Lyon who chased the governor and the rest of the state Guard to the south-western corner of the state. In the resulting vacuum, the convention on secession reconvened and took power as the unionist provisional government of Missouri.

Kentucky did not secede; for a time it declared itself neutral however the confederates broke the neutrality by seizing column bus, Kentucky in September 1861. That turned opinion against the confederacy and the state reaffirmed its loyal status while trying to maintain Slavery. During a brief invasion by confederate forces, Confederate Sympathizers organized a secession convention inaugurated a governor and gained recognition from the confederacy. The rebel government soon went into exile and never controlled the state.

After Virginia's 1861 declaration of secession from the U.S, Union Supporters in fifty counties of north-western Virginia voted on October 24, 1861 to approve the creation of the new state of West Virginia. The majority of the voters in what was to become West Virginia had voted against Virginia secession, although twenty six of the fifty counties had pro-secession majorities about half of West Virginia's soldiers were confederate this new state was admitted to the union on 20 June 1863.

Similar Unionist Secessions attempts appeared in East Tennessee, but were suppressed by the confederacy. Jefferson David arrested over 3000 men suspected of being loyal to the union and held them without trial.

Beginning of the War

Lincoln's victory in the presidential election of 1860 triggered South Carolina's declaration of secession from the union, By February 1861. Six more southern states made similar declarations. On February 7th the seven states adopted a provisional constitution for the confederate states of America and established their temporary capital at Montgomery, Alabama A pre-war February peace conference of 1861 met in Washington in a failed attempt at resolving the crisis. The remaining eight slave states rejected pleas to Join the Confederacy confederate forces seized most of the federal forts within their boundaries (they did not take fort Sumter); president Buchanan Protested but made no military response aside from a failed attempt to re-supply Fort Sumter via the ship star of the west (the ship was fired upon by citadel cadets) and no serious military weapons an training militia units.

On 4 March 1861, Abraham Lincoln was sworn in as president. In his inaugural address, he argued that the constitution was a more perfect union than the earlier Articles of confederation and perpetual union, that it was a binding contract and called any secession "legally void" He started he had no intent to invade southern states, nor did he intend to end slavery where it existed but that he would use force to maintain possession of Federal property .His speech closed with a plea for restoration of the bonds of union.

Fort Sumter in Charleston South Carolina fort more Fort Pickens and fort Taylor were the remaining Union held Forts in the confederacy, and Lincoln was determined to hold fort Sumter. Under orders from confederate President Jefferson Davis, troops controlled by the confederate government under P.G.T Beauregard Bombarded the fort with artillery on April 12, forcing the fort's capitulation Northerners rallied behind Lincoln's call for all of the states to send troops to recapture the forts and to preserve the Union with the scale of the rebellion apparently small so far Lincoln called for 75,000 volunteers for 90 days. For months before that, several Northern Governors had discreetly readied their state militia; they began to move forces the next day.

Four states in the Upper south (Tennessee, Arkansas North Carolina and Virginia) which had repeatedly rejected confederate overtures now refused to send Forces against their neighbors declared their secession and joined the confederacy. To reward Virginia, the confederate capital was moved to Richmond. The city was the symbol of the confederacy; if it fell the new nation would lose legitimacy. Richmond was in a highly vulnerable location at the end of a tortuous confederate supply line. Although Richmond was in heavily

fortified Supplies for the city would be reduced by Sherman's capture of Atlanta and cut off almost entirely when Grant besieged Petersburg and its railroads that supplied the southern capital.

End of the War 1864-65

The army of the Union had its Head quarters in the Potomac and Maj. Gen William Tecumseh Sherman was the in commander of the army. Grant understood the concept of total only the utter defeat of confederate forces and their economic base would bring an end to the war. This was total war not in terms of killing civilians but rather in terms of destroying homes farms and railroad tracks. Grant devised a coordinated strategy that would strike at the entire confederacy from multiple directions.

Union forces in the East attempted to maneuver past Lee and fought several battles during that phase ("Grant's overland campaign") of the Eastern campaign. Grant's battles of attrition at the wilderness Spotsylvania and Cold Harbor resulted in heavy Union losses, but forced Lee's confederates to fall back again and again. An attempt to out flank Lee from the South failed under Butler, who was trapped inside the Bermuda Hundred river bend. Grant was tenacious and despite astonishing losses (over 65,000 casualties in seven weeks) kept pressing Lee's army of Northern Virginia back to Richmond. He pinned down the confederate army in the siege of Petersburg where the two armies engaged in trench warfare for over nine months. Grant finally found a commander, General Phillip Sheridan, aggressive enough to prevail in the Valley Campaigns of 1864. Sheridan defeated Maj. Gen. Jubal A. Early in a series of battles, including a final decisive defeat at the Battle of Cedar Creek. Sheridan then proceeded to destroy the agricultural base of the Shenandoah Valley, a strategy similar to the tactics Sherman later employed in Georgia.

Meanwhile, Sherman marched from Chattanooga to Atlanta, defeating confederate Generals Joseph E. Johnston and John Bell Hood along the way. The fall of Atlanta on 2 September 1864 was a significant factor in the re-election of Lincoln as president. Hood left the Atlanta area to menace Sherman's supply lines and invade Tennessee in the Franklin-Nashville Campaign. Union Maj. Gen. John M. Schofield defeated Hood at the Battle of Franklin and George H. Thomas dealt Hood a massive defeat at the battle of Nashville, effectively destroying Hood's army.

Lee surrendered his Army of Northern Virginia on April 4, 1865 at Appomattox Court House. In an untraditional gesture and as a sign of Grant's respect and anticipation of folding the confederacy back into the Union with dignity and peace, Lee was permitted to keep his office sabre and his horse, Traveller. Johnston surrendered his troops to Sherman on 26 April 1865, in Durham, North Carolina. On 23 June 1865 at Fort Towson in the Choctaw Nations area of the Oklahoma Territory, Stand Watie signed a ceasefire agreement with Union representatives becoming the last confederate general in the field to stand down. The last confederate naval force to surrender was the CSS Shenandoah on 4 November 1865 in Liverpool, England.

Results

Northern leaders agreed that victory would require more than the end of fighting. It had to encompass the two war goals; secession had to be totally repudiated and all forms of slavery had to be eliminated. They disagreed sharply on the criteria for these goals. They also disagreed on the degree of federal control that should be imposed on the South, and the process by which Southern states should be reintegrated into the Union.

All the slaves in the confederacy were freed by the Emancipation Proclamation which stipulated that slaves in Confederate-held areas but not in Border States or in Washington, D.C. were free. Slaves in the Border States and Union-controlled parts of the South were freed by state action or by the Thirteenth Amendment although slavery effectively ended in the U.S. in the spring of 1865. The full restoration of the Union was the work of a highly contentious post-war era known as Reconstruction.

Reconstruction, which began early in the war and ended in 1877, involved a complex and rapidly changing series of federal and state policies. The long-term result came in the three 'Civil War' amendments to the Constitution: the Thirteenth Amendment which abolished slavery, the Fourteenth Amendment which extended federal legal protections equally to citizens regardless of race, and the Fifteenth Amendment which abolished racial restrictions on voting.



CHAPTER - 4**FRENCH REVOLUTION**

“The French Revolution was equally a struggle of weapons as well as of ideas. Freedom, equality and Fraternity are the eternal contributions of this Revolution and Napoleon can be called its product.”

The French Revolution is not merely an event of history; it is a living legend. It was a unique battle which was fought many times, for example, in 1830, 1848 and 1870. Perhaps no other topic has been discussed in history as the French Revolution. Neither so much sympathy nor so much resentment has ever been expressed for any other event of the world. Among the revolutions of modern age, the French Revolution has left immense influence on history and the world.

The French Revolution was brewing while the War of American Independence was being fought. Conditions in France were vastly different from those in the New World, but many of the same revolutionary ideas were at work. The French Revolution, however, was more world-shaking than the American. It became a widespread upheaval over which no one could remain neutral.

The French Revolution created such a condition that the old political system crumbled. The period from 1789 to 1815 has been summed up in four words—revolution, war, tyranny and empire. The material despotism generated Napoleon’s caesarean ambitions which culminated in the establishment of a vast empire. Generally, the beginning of the revolution is considered in 1789. Various events which occurred between 1787 and 1799 as a result of many causes accounted for the beginning and extension of the revolution. The causes of the revolution existed in the same system (ancient regime).

Political Set-up

Ancient Regime (Old Order): In order to understand the factors that were responsible for the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789, it is important to examine the conditions and institutions that existed in France prior to the Revolution. These conditions and institutions were collectively known as the Ancient Regime. Ancient Regime means Old Rule or Old Order in French language. In English the term refers primarily to the political and social system that was established in France under the Valois and Bourbon dynasties. More generally it means any regime which includes the defining features such as: a feudal system under the control of a powerful absolute monarchy supported by the doctrine of the Divine Right of Kings and the explicit consent of the established Church. This was how Europe had been organized since at least the eighth century. The term Ancient Regime is from The Age of Enlightenment (first appeared in print in English in 1794). Similar to other sweeping criticisms of the past, such as the term Dark Ages, the concept of Ancient Regime was used as an expression of disapproval for the way things were done, and carried an implied approval of a New Order. No one alive during the Ancient regime considered himself as living under an Old Order. The term was created by Enlightenment era authors to promote a new cause and discredit the existing order. As defined by the creators of the term, the Ancient Regime developed out of the French monarchy of the Middle Ages, and was swept away centuries later by the French Revolution of 1789. Europe’s other Ancient Regimes had similar origins, but diverse ends; some gradually became constitutional monarchies, others were turn down by wars and revolutions. Power in the Ancient Regime relied on three pillars: the monarchy, the clergy and the aristocracy. Society was divided into three classes known as estates: the clergy, the nobility and the commoners.

Royal Absolutism

The politico-social system which existed in France throughout the rule of the Valois and Bourbon dynasties was half way between feudalism and modernity. France was ruled by a powerful absolute monarch who

relied on the doctrine of the Divine Right of Kings. The absolute monarchy had the explicit support of the established Church. This period in the history of France is often said to have begun with the French renaissance during the reign of Francis I (1515-1547), and to have reached its peak under Louis XIV (1643-1715). As the Italian Renaissance began to fade, France became the cultural capital of Europe. Eventually, however, financial difficulties and excesses of the rulers led to the decline and eventual collapse of the monarchy by the end of the eighteenth century. The system of Ancient Regime culminated in the monarch, the lofty and glittering head of the state. The king claimed to rule by the will of God and not by the consent of the people (Theory of the Divine Right of Kings). Thus, the kings claimed to be responsible to no one but God. The French Kings ruled in an absolute manner. They exercised unlimited powers. They were the chief legislators, executive and dispensers of justice. They imposed taxes and spent they wished. They denied certain basic rights to their subjects. Heavy censorship denied freedom of speech and press. Arbitrary arrest, imprisonment, exile or even execution was the hallmarks of the royal absolutism in France.

Nature of the Bourbon Rulers

The Bourbon dynasty ruled France for about two centuries from 1589 to 1792. France attained the height of glory under Louis XIV. He was known as the 'Grand Monarch' and 'Sun King'. He believed in the divine sanction of absolutism. He used to say "I am the State". Further he claimed: "The sovereign authority is vested in my person, the legislative powers exist in myself alone...My people are one only with me; national rights and national interests are necessarily combined with my own and only rest in my hands. In order to manifest his power and glory, Louis XIV led the nation in dangerous and expensive wars against his neighbors and undertook construction of magnificent buildings to beautify the capital city of Paris. Thus, his expensive wars and lavish style of living weakened France financially as well as politically. More than any other construction of the age, the Palace of Versailles, built by Louis XIV embodied the spirit of absolute monarchy. The magnificent halls, ornate rooms and beautiful gardens surrounding the royal residence added to the grandeur of the Versailles Palace. The aristocracy of France assembled day and night to do homage to the great ruler of France. The court of Versailles which dazzled Europe was comprised of 18,000 people. Out of these 16,000 were attached to the personal service of the king and his family and 2,000 were the courtiers, the favored guests and nobles. Yet, Versailles which symbolized the glory of the Ancient Regime was also the mark of its decline. Its cost to the French nation was too much. Besides, it created a barrier between monarchy and its subjects. Louis XIV, the Grand Monarch left a legacy of financial bankruptcy for his successors. Louis XV (1715-1774) succeeded his great grandfather at the age of five. The first part of the long reign of 59 years falls into the period of Regency (1715-1723) during which period his great uncle, the Duke of Orleans ruled in his name. The confusion and disorder of the Regency was followed by almost two decades of orderly rule and material prosperity under the leadership of the aged Cardinal Fleury (1723-1743). From 1743 until his death in 1774, Louis XV tried to exercise direct control over the government which ultimately led to the instability of the monarchy. Louis XV displayed an apathy and indifference to the affairs of the state. He was concerned primarily with the pursuit of pleasure and all his life he sought to escape from boredom. Thus, he tried to seek happiness in mad and vicious rounds of pleasure, in hunting, in gambling, in lust, in moving his court from one palace to another, in gratifying the whims and fancies of his numerous mistresses and favorites. For more than thirty years Louis XV continued through his shameful policies the worst features of the Ancient Regime. He also followed a disastrous foreign policy that culminated in the humiliation of the Seven years War (1756-63). His government became increasingly inefficient which was controlled by his mistresses. His enormous court incurred heavy expenditure on the state treasury. All these developments opened the gates of the deluge that swept over France. Louis XV escaped the disaster. However, he could not prevent the progress of new political and social philosophy that repudiated the theory and practice of the irresponsible and arbitrary royal absolutism. The Austrian ambassador at Paris, Comte de Mercy writing to Empress Marie Theresa outlined the conditions in France at the end of Louis XV's reign in these words: "At court, there is nothing but confusion, scandals and injustice. No attempt has been made to carry out good principles of government; everything has been left to chance; the shameful state of the nation's affairs has caused unspeakable disgust and discouragement, while intrigues of those who remain on

the scene only increase the disorder. Sacred duties have been left undone and infamous behavior tolerated. The reign of Louis XV ended in 1774 with his death. To his successor he left a heritage of military defeat, financial bankruptcy, parliamentary opposition and intellectual resistance to the existing political and social regime. According to Dr. G.P. Gooch, "The legacy of Louis XV to his countrymen was an ill-governed, discontented, frustrated France. Viewed from a distance, the Ancient Regime appeared as solid as the Bastille, but its walls were crumbling for lack of repairs and the foundations showed signs of giving way. The absolute monarchy, the privileged nobles, the intolerant church, the close corporation parliaments, had all become unpopular, and the army once the glory of France, was tarnished by the rout at Rossbach. Though there was little thought of republicanism, the mystique of monarchy had almost evaporated. In 1774, following the death of Louis XV, his grandson, Louis XVI (1774-93) became the king of France at the age of twenty. The new king was an honest and energetic young man who tried to attend to the state affairs. But he tried to avoid difficulties and lacked the capacity to enforce his own judgment. His irresolution made him a blind follower of his advisors, particularly his Queen Marie Antoinette. She was the daughter of Marie Theresa, Empress of Austro-Hungarian Empire. Marie Antoinette was beautiful, gracious and vivacious. She had a strong will, a power of quick decision and a spirit of initiative. However, she lacked in wisdom and breadth of judgment. She did not understand the temperament of the French people and the spirit of the times. Being born in a royal family she could not understand the point of view of the underprivileged. She was extravagant, proud, willful, impatient and fond of pleasure. She was the centre of a group of greedy persons, who were opposed to all reforms. She excelled in intrigues and was responsible for the many sufferings that befell both the ruler and the ruled during the closing years of the eighteenth century.

Inefficient and Corrupt Administrative System

Under Louis XV and Louis XVI, the French administrative system became thoroughly inefficient and corrupt. The king was the head of the state and the head of the administrative structure. He had the authority to appoint ministers and other administrative officials. Ministers were appointed on the basis of their noble birth or favoritism and not because of ability or merit. This led inefficiency and corruption in the administration. Various departments of the administration had ill-defined and overlapping jurisdictions. At different times France had been divided into districts under bailiffs, into provinces under governors, into intendancies under intendants. Besides, there were judicial, educational and ecclesiastic districts. The conflict of jurisdiction added to the difficulties and problems of the people. Prior to the Revolution of 1789, France was divided into 34 Intendancies. These Intendancies were placed under Intendants. They were selected at first from the ranks of the bourgeois. They were made an integral part of the machinery of the local government. These Intendants possessed great authority. They had the right to administer justice in all Royal Courts. They verified accounts of their subordinate financial administrators. They also attended to the assessment and levy of direct taxes. They controlled movement of the army, organized regular recruitment for the army and directed the Municipal police. The Intendants received their authority directly from the Councils. Legally, the Councils and the Ministers had only an advisory capacity. They were responsible only to the King. There was neither a representative assembly nor a written constitution to limit the authority of the administrators. Conflict of jurisdiction and rivalries among the administrators, the absence of an executive head in their own midst to formulate long-term policies and projects, overlapping non-differentiated departments and tradition of graft and irresponsible, high-handed procedures taxed the patience of even the most conscious and determined servant of the state. According to the absolutist theory, all justice in France came from the Monarch, whose officials administered it in his name in the many Royal Courts of Justice, which were established throughout the country. However, the legal system in France was full of confusion. There was no uniform law for the whole country. Different laws were in force in different part of the country. It was estimated that there were as many as 400 different systems of law in the country. The laws were written in Latin, and thus, they were beyond the comprehension of the common people. The laws were cruel and unjust. Severe punishments were prescribed for ordinary offences. There was no regular criminal procedure. Arbitrary arrest and imprisonment were common. Any influential person could get a letter of cachet issued against the person whom he wanted to punish and the person concerned could be detained in prison for an

indefinite period without any trial. There were royal courts, military courts, church courts and courts of finance. Their overlapping jurisdiction added to the confusion and injustice. Thus, the common people in France suffered due to lack of uniform laws and arbitrary administration of justice. There was no guarantee of personal liberty. The French Kings ruled France without summoning the legislature known as the Estates General since 1614. Louis XIV even abolished the parliament of Paris. The French parliaments were high courts of great antiquity. They had the power to review the judgments given in the inferior courts. Towards the end of the eighteenth century, there were thirteen such parliaments in France. Each parliament consisted of rich magistrates whose office had become hereditary in course of time. Parliaments claimed and exercised certain political powers. They had the right of registering royal edicts and ordinances. They could defer the registration and thereby bring pressure on the King. In 1771, Louis XV abolished these parliaments. But they were revived by Louis XVI in 1774.

Social Condition in the 18th Century France

The social conditions in France on the eve of the French Revolution of 1789 were antiquated, irrational and oppressive. The French society was based upon the principle of inequality. The French society comprising of around 25 million people was divided into three classes also known as the estates. The clergy constituted the first estate, the nobility, the second estate and the commoners, the third estate.

- To understand how and why the French Revolution occurred, we have to understand French society of that time. We have to realize also that conditions in France were no worse than the conditions that existed in other parts of Europe.
- Autocratic, extravagant rulers, privileged nobles and clergy, landless peasants, jobless workers, unequal taxation—the list of hardships endured by the common people is a very long one.
- France was a strong and powerful state in the 18th century. She had seized vast territories in North America, islands in the West Indies. However, despite its outward strength, the French monarchy was facing a crisis which was to lead to its destruction.

First and Second Estate

French society was divided into classes, or estates. There were two privileged classes

Privileged class	Also known as	Population
Clergy	First estate	1.3 lakh clerics
Nobility	Second estate	80 thousand families

- People in these two classes were **exempted from almost all taxes!**
- They controlled most of the administrative posts and all the high-ranking posts in the army.
- In a population of 25,000,000 people, these two classes together owned about 40 per cent of the total land of France. Their incomes came primarily from their, large land-holdings.
- A minority of these also depended on pensions and gifts from the king. They considered it beneath their dignity to trade or to be engaged in manufacture or to do any work.
- The life of the nobility was everywhere characterized by extravagance and luxury. There were, of course, poorer sections in these two top estates. They were discontented and blamed the richer members of their class for their misery.

Third Estate

The rest of the people of France were called the Third Estate. They were the common people and numbered about 95 per cent of the total population. People of the Third Estate were the unprivileged people. However, there were many differences in their wealth and style of living.

The Peasant

- The largest section of 'the Third Estate consisted of the peasants, almost 80 per cent of the total population of France. The lives of this vast class were wretched. Most of the peasants were free, unlike the serfs in the Middle Ages, and unlike the serfs in eastern Europe in the 18th century. Many owned their own lands. But a great majority of the French peasants were landless or had very small holdings.
- They could earn hardly enough for subsistence. The plight of the tenants and share-croppers was worse. After rents, the peasant's share was reduced to one-third or one-fourth of what he produced. The people who worked on land for wages lived on even less.
- Certain changes in agriculture in the 18th century France further worsened the condition of the peasant. He could no longer take wood from the forests or graze his flocks on uncultivated land. The burden of taxation was intolerable. Besides taxes, there was also '*forced labour*' which had been a feudal privilege of the lord and which was more and more resorted to for public works. There were taxes for local roads and bridges, the church, and other needs of the community. A bad harvest under these conditions inevitably led to starvation and unrest.

The Middle Class

- Not all the people belonging to the Third Estate worked on the land. There were the artisans, workers and poor people living in towns and cities. Then there was the middle class or the bourgeoisie.
- This class consisted of the educated people— writers, doctors, judges, lawyers, teachers, civil servants— and the richer people who were merchants, bankers, and manufacturers.
- Economically, this class was the most important one. It was the forerunner of the builders of the industries which were to transform economic and social life in the 19th century.
- The merchant-business groups, though new in history, had grown very important and rich, helped by the trade with French colonies in America.
- Since these people had money, the state, the clergy and the nobility were indebted to them. However, the middle class had no political rights. It had no social status, and its members had to suffer many humiliations.

The Artisans and City Workers

- The condition of the city poor—workers and artisans—were inhuman in the 18th-century France. They were looked upon as inferior creatures without any rights.
- No worker could leave his job for another without the employer's consent and a certificate of good conduct.
- Workers not having a certificate could be arrested. They had to toil for long hours from early morning till late at night.
- They, too, paid heavy taxes. The oppressed workers formed many secret societies and often resorted to strikes and rebellion.
- This group was to become the mainstay of the French Revolution, and the city of Paris with a population of more than 500,000 was to play an important part in it. In this number was an army of rebels, waiting for an opportunity to strike at the old order.

The Monarchy

- At the head of the French state stood the king, an absolute monarch. Louis XVI was the king of France when the revolution broke out.

- He was a man of mediocre intelligence, obstinate and indifferent to the work of the government. Brain work, it is said, depressed him.
- His beautiful but 'empty-headed' wife, **Marie Antoinette**, squandered money on festivities and interfered in state appointments in order to promote her favorites. Louis, too, showered favors and pensions upon his friends.
- The state was always faced by financial troubles as one would expect. Keeping huge armies and waging wars made matters worse. Finally, it brought the state to bankruptcy.

The Intellectual Movement

Discontent or even wretchedness is not enough to make a successful revolution. Someone must help the discontented to focus on an 'enemy' and provide ideals to fight for. In other words, revolutionary thinking and ideas must precede revolutionary action. France in the 18th century had many revolutionary thinkers. Without the ideas spread by these philosophers, the French Revolution would simply have been an outbreak of violence.

Rationalism: the Age of Reason

- Because of the ideas expressed by the French intellectuals, the 18th century has been called the Age of Reason. Christianity had taught that man was born to suffer.
- The French revolutionary philosophers asserted that man was born to be happy. They believed that man can attain happiness if reason is allowed to destroy prejudice and reform man's institutions.
- They either denied the existence of God or ignored Him. In place of God they asserted the doctrine of 'Nature' and the need to understand its laws.
- They urged faith in reason. The power of reason alone, they said, was sufficient to build a perfect society.

Attack on the Clergy

- The clergy were the first to feel the brunt of the French philosophers. A long series of scientific advances dating from the Renaissance helped in their campaign against the clergy.
- **Voltaire**, one of the most famous French writers of the time, though not an atheist, believed all religions absurd and contrary to reason.
- After Voltaire, other philosophers, atheists and materialists, gained popularity. They believed that man's destiny lay in this world rather than in heaven.
- Writings attacking religion fed the fires of revolution because the Church gave support to autocratic monarchy and the old order.

Physiocrats and laissez Fair

- The French economists of the time were called 'physiocrats'. They believed in "Laissez faire".
- According to this theory, a person must be left free to manage and dispose of his property in the way he thinks best. Like the English and American revolutionaries before them, the physiocrats said that taxes should be imposed only with the consent of those on whom they were levied. These ideas were a direct denial of the privileges and feudal rights that protected the upper classes.

Democracy: Jean Jacques Rousseau

- The philosopher-writer, **Montesquieu**, thought about the kind of government that is best suited to man and outlined the principles of constitutional monarchy.

- However, it was **Jean Jacques Rousseau** who asserted the doctrine of popular sovereignty and democracy. He said, '*Man is born free, yet everywhere he is in chains.*' He talked of the 'state of nature' when man was free, and said that *freedom was lost following the emergence of property*.
- He recognized property in modern societies as a 'necessary evil'.
- What was needed, said Rousseau, was a new '**social contract**' to guarantee the freedom, equality and happiness which man had enjoyed in the state of nature.
- Rousseau's theories also contained a principle that had been written into the American Declaration of Independence: no political system can maintain itself without the **consent of the governed**.

Outbreak of the Revolution

- In 1789, Louis XVI's need for money compelled him to agree to a meeting of the States General—the old feudal assembly. Louis wanted to obtain its consent for new loans and taxes. All three Estates were represented in it but each one held a separate meeting.
- On 17 June 1789, members of the Third Estate, claiming to represent 96 per cent of the nation's population, declared themselves the National Assembly.
- On 20 June, they found their meeting-hall occupied by royal guards but, determined to meet, they moved to the nearby royal tennis court to work out a constitution.
- Louis then made preparations to break up the Assembly. Troops were called: rumors spread that leading members of the Assembly would soon be arrested. This enraged the people, who began to gather in their thousands.
- They were soon joined by the guards. They surrounded the **Bastille**, a state prison,
- On 14 July. After a four-hour siege, they broke open the doors, freeing all the prisoners. The **fall of the Bastille** symbolized the fall of autocracy. July 14 is celebrated every year as a national holiday in France.

After fall of Bastille

- After 14 July 1789, Louis XVI was king only in name. The National Assembly began to enact laws.
- Following the fall of the Bastille, the revolt spread to other towns and cities and finally into the countryside. The National Assembly adopted the famous Declaration of the **Rights of Man and Citizen**. It specified the equality of all men before the law, eligibility of all citizens for all public offices, freedom from arrest or punishment without proven cause, freedom of speech and freedom of the press.
- Most important of all, to the middle class, it required equitable distribution of the burdens of taxation and rights of private property.
- The revolutionary importance of this declaration for Europe cannot be overestimated. Every government in Europe was based on privilege. If these ideas were applied, the entire old order of Europe would be destroyed.

War and End of Monopoly

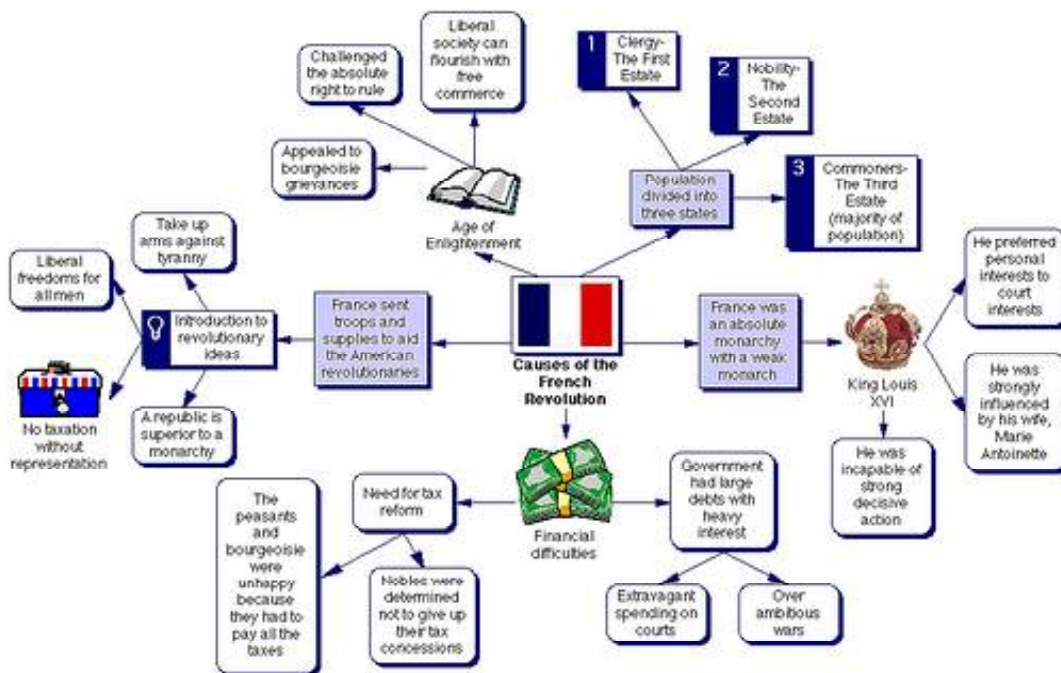
- The people of France were soon involved in a war to defend the Revolution and the nation. Many nobles and clerics fled the country and encouraged foreign governments to intervene in

France against the Revolution. The king and queen tried to escape from France in disguise but they were recognized and brought back as captives and traitors.

- The old National Assembly was replaced by a Legislative Assembly. This Assembly took over the property of those people who had fled. It sent word to the Austrian emperor, who was mobilizing support against France to renounce every treaty directed against the French nation. When the emperor refused, the Legislative Assembly declared war.
- Soon France was fighting Austria, Prussia, and Savoy in Italy. The three were supported by an army of the French exiles.
- France had destroyed feudalism and monarchy and founded new institutions based on liberty and equality, whereas in these countries the old way of life remained. The commander-in-chief of the Austro-Prussian forces stated that the aim was to suppress anarchy in France and to restore the king's authority. The French revolutionaries replied by offering 'fraternity and assistance' to all people wishing to destroy the old order in their countries.
- The king and queen were tried and executed in 1793. This was followed by a declaration of war against Britain, Holland, Spain and Hungary.
- Then, a radical group, the **Jacobins**, believing in direct democracy, came to power. Fearing that the Revolution was in danger, this group took to strong measures to crush forces inimical to the Revolution. In 14 months, some 17,000 people, including those who were innocent, were tried and executed. Some people have called it the "**Reign of Terror**". Later, a new constitution was drawn up. But the army became increasingly powerful and this led to the rise of Napoleon, who was soon to declare himself Emperor of the French Republic.

Napoleonic Wars

- From 1792 to 1815, France was engaged in war almost continuously. It was a war between France and other states. Some historians have termed it as an international civil war because it was fought between revolutionary France and countries upholding the old order. In this war, France was alone.
- However, until Napoleon became emperor, almost every enlightened person in the world sympathized with the French Revolution.
- Between 1793 and 1796 French armies conquered almost all of Western Europe. When Napoleon pressed on to Malta, Egypt and Syria (1797-99), the French were ousted from Italy.
- After Napoleon seized power, France recovered the territories she had lost and defeated Austria in 1805, Prussia in 1806, and Russia in 1807. On the sea the French could not score against the stronger British navy.
- Finally, an alliance of almost all Europe defeated France at Leipzig in 1813. These allied forces later occupied Paris, and Napoleon was defeated. His attempt at recovery was foiled at the **battle of Waterloo** in June 1815. The peace settlement, which involved all Europe, took place at the Congress of Vienna.
- After the defeat of Napoleon, the old ruling dynasty of France was restored to power.
- However, within a few years, in 1830, there was another outbreak of revolution.
- In 1848, the monarchy was again overthrown though it soon reappeared.
- Finally, in 1871, the Republic was again proclaimed.



Mindmap of French Revolution

Consequences of the Revolution

1. A major result of the Revolution was the **destruction of feudalism** in France. All the laws of the old feudal regime were annulled. Church lands and lands held in common by the community were bought by the middle classes. The lands of nobles were confiscated. Privileged classes were abolished.
2. After Napoleon seized power. The **Napoleonic Code** was introduced. Many elements of this Code remained in force for a long time; some of them exist even to this day.
3. Another lasting result of the Revolution in France was the building up of a new economic system in place of the feudal system which had been overthrown. This system was **capitalism**. Even the restored monarchy could not bring back the feudal system or destroy the new economic institutions that had come into being.
4. The French Revolution **gave the term 'nation'** its modern meaning. A nation is not the territory that the people belonging to it inhabit but the people themselves. France was not merely the territories known as France but the 'French people'.
5. From this followed the **idea of sovereignty**, that a nation recognizes no law or authority above its own. And if a nation is sovereign, that means the people constituting the nation are the source of all power and authority. There cannot be any rulers above the people, only a republic in which the government derives its authority from the people and is answerable to the people. It is interesting to remember that when Napoleon became emperor he called himself the '*Emperor of the French Republic*'. Such was the strength of the idea of people's sovereignty.
6. It was this idea of the people being the sovereign that gave France her **military strength**. The entire nation was united behind the army which consisted of revolutionary citizens. In a war in which almost all of Europe was ranged against France, she would have had no chance with just a mercenary army.

7. Under the **Jacobin constitution**, all people were given the **right to vote** and the right of insurrection. The constitution stated that the government must provide the people with work or livelihood. The happiness of all was proclaimed as the aim of government. Though it was never really put into effect, it was the first genuinely democratic constitution in history.
8. The government **abolished slavery** in the French colonies.
9. Napoleon's rise to power was a step backward. However, though he destroyed the Republic and established an empire, the idea of the republic could not be destroyed.
10. The Revolution had come about with the support and blood of common people— the city poor and the peasants. In 1792, for the first time in history, workers, peasants and other non-propertied classes were given **equal political rights**.
11. Although the right to vote and elect representatives did not solve the problems of the common people. The peasants got their lands. But to the workers and artisans— the people who were the backbone of the revolutionary movement—the Revolution did not bring real equality. To them, real equality could come only with economic equality.
12. France soon became one of the first countries where the ideas of social equality, of socialism, gave rise to a new kind of political movement.

Impact of French Revolution on the World

- The French Revolution had been a world-shaking event. For years to come its direct influence was felt in many parts of the world. It inspired revolutionary movements in almost every country of Europe and in South and Central America.
- For a long time the French Revolution became the classic example of a revolution which people of many nations tried to emulate.
- The impact of the French Revolution can be summed up, in the words of T. Kolokotronis, one of the revolutionary fighters in the Greek war of independence: *"According to my judgment, the French Revolution and the doings of Napoleon opened the eyes of the world. The nations knew nothing before, and the people thought that kings were gods upon the earth and that they were bound to say that whatever they did was well done. Through this present change it is more difficult to rule the people."*
- Even though the old ruling dynasty of France had been restored to power in 1815, and the autocratic governments of Europe found themselves safe for the time being, the rulers found it increasingly difficult to rule the people.
- Some of the changes that took place in many parts of Europe and the Americas in the early 19th century were the immediate, direct consequences of the Revolution and the Napoleonic wars.
- The wars in which France was engaged with other European powers had resulted in the French occupation of vast areas of Europe for some time.
- The French soldiers, wherever they went, carried with them ideas of liberty and equality shaking the old feudal order. They destroyed serfdom in areas which came under their occupation and modernized the systems of administration.
- Under Napoleon, the French had become conquerors instead of liberators. The countries which organized popular resistance against the French occupation carried out reforms in their social and political system. The leading powers of Europe did not succeed in restoring the old order either in France or in the countries that the Revolution had reached.
- The political and social systems of the 18th century had received a heavy blow. They were soon to die in most of Europe under the impact of the revolutionary movements that sprang up everywhere in Europe.

Revolution in Central and South America

- The impact of the Revolution was felt on the far away American continent. Revolutionary France had abolished **slavery** in her colonies. The former French colony of **Haiti** became a republic. This was the first republic established by the black people, formerly slaves, in the Americas.
- Inspired by this example, revolutionary movements arose in the Americas to overthrow foreign rule, to abolish slavery and to establish independent republics.
- The chief European imperialist powers in Central and South America were Spain and Portugal. Spain had been occupied by France, and Portugal was involved in a conflict with France.
- During the early 19th century, these two imperialist countries were cut off from their colonies, with the result that most of the Portuguese and Spanish colonies in Central and South America became independent.
- The movements for independence in these countries had earlier been inspired by the successful War of American Independence. The French Revolution ensured their success.
- By the third decade of the 19th century, almost entire **Central and South America had been liberated** from the Spanish and the Portuguese rule and a number of independent republics were established. In these republics slavery was abolished.
- It, however, persisted in the United States for a few more decades where it was finally abolished following the Civil War about which you have read before in this chapter. *Simon Bolivar, Bernardo O'Higgins and San Martin* was the great leaders in South America at this time.



CHAPTER - 5**THE INDUSTRIAL EVOLUTION****THE BEGINNING OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION****Introduction**

The Industrial Revolution refers to the changes in Social and economic organization resulting from the replacement of hand tools by machine and power tools and the development of large-scale industrial production. This term was applied to the development in England from about 1760 and to later changes in other countries.

Starting in the later part of the 18th Century there began a transition in parts of Great Britain's previously manual, labour and draft-animal – based economy towards machine based manufacturing. It started with the mechanization of the textile industries, the development of iron-making techniques and the increased use of refined coal. During the period from The 1760s to the 1820s, Britain experienced an accelerated process of economic change that transformed the agrarian economy into the world's first industrial economy. Since the changes were all embracing and permanent this phenomenon is known as the “industrial revolution”.

The Industrial Revolution began in the United Kingdom initially, Then subsequently spread throughout Europe, North America, and eventually the world. The onset of The Industrial Revolution marked a major turning point in human history; almost every aspect of daily life was eventually influenced in some way. It has been argued by historians Such as Christopher Hill, Eric Hobsbawm and E.P Thompson that the foundations of this process of change can be traced back to the puritan Revolution in the Seventeenth Century.

Industrial Revolution begin in Britain

The issue of the beginning of Industrial Revolution in Britain has remained a topic for debate among the scholars. Some historians believe that The Revolution was an outgrowth of Social and Institutional changes brought by the end of feudalism in Britain after The English Civil war in the 17th Century. As national border controls became more effective, the spread of disease was lessened, Thereby preventing the epidemics common in previous times. The percentage of children who lived post infancy rose significantly, leading to a large workforce.

Typical character of British Society

Great Britain had a larger educated workforce to run the machines and operate manuals. The Enlightenment not only resulted in a larger educated population but also more modern views on work. The population in Great Britain was ready to move out of the country and to the city to work. Britain also had the large middle class and flexible mercantile class necessary for rapid industrial development. English Society, unlike many others, was not opposed to “new money” and as such was eager to accept the new wealthy class and their new ideas.

Social and Political Stability

Britain not only enjoyed complete freedom of trade but also an insular position which saved her from the disastrous consequences of war which ravaged the countries of Europe. This social stability prevailing in England encouraged the people to sectors where they could hope to receive high dividend in future. This in turn led to the adoption of new techniques and promotion of new industries.

Emergence of Machines

Until The 1980s, it was universally believed by academic historians that technological innovation was the heart of the industrial Revolution and the key enabling technology was the invention and improvement of the

steam engine. However, recent research into the marketing Era has challenged the traditional supply –oriented interpretation of the industrial revolution in reality the machines were a secondary cause only because turning out cheap goods in large quantities is useless unless there is a market which must come first than the inventions follow.

A long run of good harvests, starting in the first half of the eighteenth century, resulted in an increase in disposable income and a consequent rising demand for manufactured goods, particularly textiles, The invention of the flying shuttle by John key enabled wider cloth to be woven faster, but also created a demand for yarn that could not be fulfilled- Thus, The major technological advances associated with The industrial revolution were concerned with spinning James Hargreaves Created The spinning Jenny, a device That could perform The work of a number of spinning wheels. However while this invention could be operated by hand, the water frame, invented by Richard Arkwright, could by powered by a water wheel. Indeed, Arkwright is credited with the widespread introduction of the factory system in Britain and is the first example of the successful mill owner and industrialist in British history. The water frame was, however, soon supplanted by the spinning mule (a cross between a water frame on a jenny) invented by Samuel Crompton.

Role of Liberal and Progressive British Polity

Britain's government, a long-time Constitutional monarchy, was just right for the situation. The government was flexible enough to Support. The new system and to a Certain degree accepted Adam smith's Capitalistic "invisible hand" Government grant of limited monopolies to inventors under a developing patent system (The statute of Monopolies 1623) is Considered an influential factor, The effects of patents both good and bad, on The development of industrialization are clearly illustrated in The history of the steam engine, The key enabling technology. Instead of publicly revealing the workings of an invention, the patient system rewarded inventors such as James watt by allowing them to monopolies the production of the first steam engines, Thereby rewarding inventors and increasing the pace of technological development.

Capital formation in Britain

The Vast amount of Capital which England has accumulated out of profits of her growing trade enabled her to make large outlays on machinery and building which in turn contributed to new technological developments. In addition England also possessed a large amount of Loan-able Capital obtained by the bank of England form the rich traders of other Countries. This Capital also helped England to steal a march over other European Countries.

Availability of Markets

The Presence of a large domestic market should also be considered an important driver of the industrial Revolution particularly explaining why it occurred in Britain. In other nations, Such as France, markets were split up by local regions, which often imposed tolls and tariffs on goods traded amongst them. The British Colonial expansion during 17th century had also resulted in the development of international trade and financial markets.

Availability of an extensive colonial empire

The Unprecedented degree of economic growth associated with industrial revolution could not have been sustained by domestic demand. The application of technology and The factory system created such levels of mass production and cost efficiently that enabled Britain to undercut foreign competitors the political dominance created by the growth of an overseas empire and the strategic control of the world seas by The Royal Navy, enabled British manufactures to export Their goods to Europe, provided captive markets for The abundance of new goods provided by The industrial revolution. The raw materials Britain itself did not have were provided by its many colonies.

Practical bent of mind of The English researchers

The English Scientists and engineers had a very practical of bent mind and because of this they made inventions keeping in view. The needs of the time in Contrast to the Continental Scientists who concentrated on research in electricity, chemicals which were not of much immediate applied relevance.

Comparatively Small Population in Britain

The Small size of England's Population could not cope with England's growing trade. England's growing trade also necessitated the new devices should be found out to keep production in line with the growing demand. This is best exemplified by the changes in the textile industry as well as the coal industry. The shortage of the labour force compelled the owners to encourage and apply new mechanical devices.

Proximity of Coal and iron mines in Britain

There was also a local coincidence of natural resources in the north of England, The English Midlands, South Wales and The Scottish lowlands. Local supplies of coal, iron lead copper tin limestone and water power resulted excellent conditions. For the development and expansion of industry. Also, the damp mild weather conditions of the North West of England provide ideal condition for the spinning of cotton, providing a natural starting point of the birth of the textile industry. The Location of the coal and iron mines close to each encouraged the English to evolve new techniques for The Manufacture of iron and utilization of The Coals.

The Agricultural Revolution

In Britain the agricultural revolution had already taken place which had greatly transformed the English Society. It not only made available necessary raw materials to run the new industries but also provided a large number of agricultural laborers' for employment in The new factories The Enclosure movement and The British agricultural revolution made food production more efficient and less labours- intensive forcing the surplus population who could no longer find employment in agriculture into cottage industry for example weaving, and in The longer term into the cities and the newly developed factories.

Presence of enterprising People

Finally the technological changes in England's were made possible because of the presence of a sizable section of people who possessed enterprising spirit and requisite technical qualities. Further this class of people also possessed organizing abilities and was accustomed to the handling of large enterprises and labour force. These people were willing to invest money for the discovery of new techniques and give a fair trial to these techniques.

Risk – taking Private Sectors

The Presence of Sizable private sector in The Country with great capacity of the individual businessmen to take risks also greatly contributed to the individual revolution. These businessmen were willing to take a chance on new things. In this way they were also supported by the government.

Atlantic triangular slave trade

The best-known triangular trading system is the transatlantic slave trade, that operated from the late 16th to early 19th centuries, carrying slaves, cash crops, and manufactured goods between West Africa, Caribbean or American colonies and the European colonial powers, with the northern colonies of British North America, especially New England, sometimes taking over the role of Europe. The use of African slaves was fundamental to growing colonial cash crops, which were exported to Europe. European goods, in turn, were used to purchase African slaves, which were then brought on the sea lane west from Africa to the Americas, the so-called middle passage.

A classic example would be the trade of sugar (often in its liquid form, molasses) from the Caribbean to Europe or New England, where it was distilled into rum. The profits from the sale of sugar were used to purchase manufactured goods, which were then shipped to West Africa, where they were bartered for slaves. The slaves were then brought back to the Caribbean to be sold to sugar planters. The profits from the sale of the slaves were then used to buy more sugar, which was shipped to Europe, etc. The trip itself took five to twelve weeks.

The first leg of the triangle was from a European port to Africa, in which ships carried supplies for sale and trade, such as copper, cloth, trinkets, slave beads, guns and ammunition. When the ship arrived, its cargo would be sold or bartered for slaves. On the second leg, ships made the journey of the Middle Passage from Africa to the New World. Many slaves died of disease in the crowded holds of the slave ships. Once the ship reached the New World, enslaved survivors were sold in the Caribbean or the American colonies. The ships were then prepared to get them thoroughly cleaned, drained, and loaded with export goods for a return voyage, the third leg, to their home port, from the West Indies the main export cargoes were sugar, rum, and molasses; from Virginia, tobacco and hemp. The ship then returned to Europe to complete the triangle.

Diagram illustrating the stowage of African slaves on a British slave ship

However, because of several disadvantages that slave ships faced compared to other trade ships, they often returned to their home port carrying whatever goods were readily available in the Americas and filled up a large part or all of their capacity with ballast. Other disadvantages include the different form of the ships (to carry as many humans as possible, but not ideal to carry a maximum amount of produce) and the variations in the duration of a slave voyage, making it practically impossible to pre-schedule appointments in the Americas, which meant that slave ships often arrived in the Americas out-of-season. Instead, the cash crops were transported mainly by a separate fleet which only sailed from Europe to the Americas and back. The Triangular trade is a trade model, not an exact description of the ship's route.

The Drain of Wealth

The Drain of Wealth theory was systemically initiated by Dadabhai Naoroji in 1867 and further analyzed and developed by R.P. Dutt, M.G Ranade etc.

The “drain of wealth” depicts the constant flow of wealth from India to England for which India did not get an adequate economic, commercial or material return. The colonial government was utilizing Indian resources- revenues, agriculture, and industry not for developing India but for its utilization in Britain. If these resources been utilised within India then they could have been invested and the income of the people would have increased. Ranade opined that one-third of India's national income was being drained away-in one form or the other.

According to Dadabhai Naoroji, the following forms of drain can be identified:

- Home charges refer to the interest on public debt raised in England at comparatively higher rates; expenditure incurred in England by the Secretary of State on behalf of India; Annuities on account of railway and irrigation works; Indian office expenses including pensions to retired officials who had worked in India or England, pensions to army and navels etc.
- Remittances to England by Europeans to their families.
- Remittances for purchase of British Goods for consumption of British Employees as well as purchases by them of British Goods in India.
- Interest charges on public debt held in Britain.

India's drain of wealth helped finance England's Industrial Revolution in the following ways

As late as the 1750s, India had an export surplus; its favorable trade balance was matched by bullion import, as the world had nothing else to offer India in return for its fine textiles. British colonialism reversed this process, first by monopolizing trade and then — in the early 19th century — by demolishing Indian industry. During the period when British trade established supremacy, goods were exported by India but the bullion never reached the country. British merchants purchased goods in rupee receipts in India, and exchanged them abroad for bullion. Much before Dadabhai Naoroji and the so-called ‘modern nationalist’ school came up with a figure for India's drain of wealth, Mughal chroniclers had put it at more than 100,000 million pound sterling per annum.

In fact, bullion owed to India helped finance England's Industrial Revolution. Then, in order to flood Indian markets with European goods, India was de-industrialized. From being a supplier of luxury goods, it was turned into an exporter of raw material. Between 1820 and 1840, de-industrialization closed down more than 12,000 markets, controlled and operated by peasants and small entrepreneurs in northern India.

Availability of developed means of transport and Communication

England possessed a far better network of means of transportation than any other country of Europe which greatly helped the industrial revolution. In this task the government played an important role which spent considerable amount on the improvement of roads and construction of canals.

British insularity from the Conflicts of Continental Europe

The technological and industrial advancement was encouraged by the insularity of England from Continental Conflicts. This meant that the industrial development was rarely interrupted by wars. The geographical location of England remained immune from wars and upheavals of Napoleonic era and conditions remained quite stable in the country these stable conditions enabled England to develop their industrial capacity without fear of bottle damage or loss of life.

Flexibility of English Social and Political System

Above all the Flexibility of The English Social and political system also greatly contributed to industrial revolution in England. The members of the Upper classes in Britain unlike Their Counterparts in The continent pursued their wealth in the new industrial framework with great enthusiasm they worked in close co-operation with the middle classes and artisans which greatly facilitated the industrial revolution.

Protestant work ethic

The protestant ethic influenced large numbers of people to engage in work in the secular world, developing their own enterprises and engaging in trade and the accumulation of wealth for investment. In other words the protestant ethic was a force being and unplanned and uncoordinated mass action that influenced the development of capitalism and encouraged the beginning of industrial revolution.

THE INDUSTRIALIZATION PROCES IN OTHER COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD

Introduction

The Industrial Revolution in Continental Europe Came a little later than in Great Britain. In many industries, this involved the application of technology was purchased from Britain or British engineers and entrepreneurs moved abroad in search of new opportunities. By 1809 part of the Ruhr valley in Westphalia was called 'Miniature England' because of its Similarities to the industrial areas of England. The German, Russian and Belgian government all provided state funding to the new industries. In some cases (Such as iron), the different availability of resources locally meant that only some aspects of the British technology were adopted.

Development of Industrial Revolution in USA

The Industrial Revolution (1820-1870) was of great importance to the economic development of The United states the first industrial Revolution occurred in Great Britain and Europe during The late eighteenth century. The Industrial Revolution then Centered on the United States and Germany. The real impetus for America entering the industrial Revelation was the Passage of The Embargo Act of 1807 and the war of 1812. Americans were upset over an incident with The Chesapeake whereby The British opened fire when they were not allowed to search the ship they also seized four men and hung one for desertion. This resulted in much public outrage and the passage of the embargo Act which stopped the export of American goods and effectively ended. The import of goods from toothier nations. Eventually, America went to war with Great Britain in 1812. The war made it apparent that America needed a better transportation system and more

economic independence. Therefore, manufacturing began to expand.

Industrialization in America involved three important developments:

First, transportation was expanded.

Second, electricity was effectively harnessed.

Third, improvements were made to industrial processes such as improving the refining process and accelerating production. The government helped protect American manufactures by passing a protective tariff.

Other factors:

Cotton and Cloth

In 1794, Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin which made the separation of cotton seeds fiber much faster. The South increased its cotton supply sending raw cotton in north to be used in the manufacture of cloth. Francis c. Lowell increased the efficiency in the manufacture of cloth by bringing spinning and weaving processes together into one factory. This led to the development of the textile industry throughout New England. In 1846, Elias Howe created The Sewing Machine which revolutionized the manufacture of clothing. All of a sudden clothing began to be made in factories as opposed to at home.

Interchangeable Parts

Eli Whitney came up with the idea to use interchangeable parts in 1798 to make muskets. If standard parts were made by machine, then they could be assembled at the end much more quickly than before. This became an important part of American industry and the second industrial Revolution.

From Agriculture to Cities

As industries and factories arose, people moved from farms to cities. This led to other issues including overcrowding and disease. However advanced were made in agriculture too including better machines and cultivators For example Cyrus McCormick Created The reaper which allowed quicker and cheaper harvesting of grain. John Deere Created The first steel plough in 1837 helping speed up farming across the Midwest.

Communication and the Industrial Revolution

With the increases size of The United States, better communication networks became ultra important. In 1844, Samuel F.B. Morse created the telegraph and by 1860 this network ranged throughout the eastern Coast to The Mississippi.

Transportation

Railroads were of Supreme importance to the increase in trade throughout The United States. In fact, by the start of the civil war, railroads linked the most important mid west cities with The Atlantic coast. Railroads further opened the west and connected raw materials to factories and markets. A transcontinental railroad was completed in 1869 at Promontory, Utah with the great advances of the industrial Revolution inventors Continued to work thou gout he rest of the 19th and early 20th century on ways to make life easier while increasing productively. The foundations set throughout The mid-1800's set the stage for inventions such as the light bulb (Thomas Edison), telephone (Alexander Bell), and The automobile (Karl Benz) Further ford creation of the assembly line which made manufacturing more efficient just helped form America into a modern industrialized nation. The impact of these and other inventions of the time cannot be underestimated.

Development of Industrial revolution in Germany

Germany traditionally had an economically differentiated landscape. The west and southwest was more urbanized; here both the traditional industry and agriculture were more specialized and developed than in the territories further east where agriculture was based on large, mostly feudal estates. Feudal estates had existed in the west, too, but many had became bankrupt in the late years of the 18th century The urban

economy of western Germany for centuries had been closely linked to that of the Netherlands, England and France changes in technology in these countries were perceived earlier and with more interest in cities such as humbug Frankfurt and cologne as in Berlin and Vienna. Alfred Krupp adapted modern English technology in his steel mills in Essen although he did not have access to the latest knowhow, and for years to come German steel was inferior in quality.

The establishment of a network of railway lines in the 1830s till 1850s resulted in much increased demand of coal and steel thus regions with coal fields such as the Ruhrgebiet, The sear and Upper Silesia, all located in Prussia, quickly transformed from agricultural into industrial regions, attracting workers from agricultural regions. Saxony and Germany's southwest Baden and Wurttemberg Hum berg, Berlin, Nuremberg – expanded as industrial centers. Many cities dismantled their ancient city walls, replacing them by wide roads around the ancient city centre. Suburbs were built, providing living room for the rapidly expanding population.

Development of Industrial revolution in Russia

The Industrial revolution began much later in Russia in comparison with other parts of Europe. Russia's late arrival on the industrial scene also shaped its industrial Revolution because it could take advantage of prior technological improvements in industrial process to leapfrog over the rudimentary stages and go directly to the latest and most modern forms. Ironically, back ward Russia was creating one of Europe's most modern industrial infrastructures. Furthermore Russia's new factories were massive in size. Perhaps more than one-half of Russia's new factories employed more than 500 workers, and many employed more than 1,000 because Russia did not experience the evolutionary process of building large firms form the merger or acquisition of numerous smaller ones, it was able to proceed directly to an economy of scale. Finally rather than being spread throughout the country, Russia's industry was concentrated in a few location significant industrial clusters could be found in The Donbas and at St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kiev, Baku, and Warsaw.

Early in The twentieth century, Russia's industrial expansion paused, and a sharp recession occurred against a backdrop of revolution. However, starting in 1906, stability returned and Russia's industrial Revolution resumed its impressive advance between 1906 and 1914 Russian industrial economy grew at an annual rate of 6 percent. In 1913 The last full year of peace Russia produced 4.4 million tons of steel almost 5 million tons of pig iron, and 38 million tons of coal it was second only to the united states in total miles of railroad. Nevertheless, foreign capital continued to play a major role in Russia industry. There was extensive French investment in coal steel, and iron and British firms dominated petroleum production. Germany, soon to be Russia's adversary in the murderous World War 1st, controlled chemical production.

Despite This impressive growth the quality of Russian finished products remained inferior consequently; Russia found it difficult to crack the European market. However, its products found ready byres in the less-developed Middle East and Asia. Another problem- One that defied such an easy solution was the prevalent poverty of the Russian masses without adequate purchasing power, domestic demand stagnated Because of the character of Russia's industrial Revolution many members of the entrepreneurial and managerial class were foreigners. Among native Russians, The rising bourgeoisie emerged from a wide social spectrum ranging from former serfs to the nobility although quit a few originated from the old Believer Community that had dominated had production during the Preindustrial era.

The number and nature of the nascent Russian proletariat of working class, remains an issue. Many believes that the number of Russian "workers" at The start of the twentieth century totaled about 2 million increasing to 3 or 3.5 million by 1914 (The 1897 condos calculated Russia's Population at 125 million) . Almost all of these workers come from the peasantry and many were only part-time members of the proletariat; that is a sizeable number of workers regularly shifted back and forth between factory and village Nevertheless as the industrial Revolution became firmly rooted more and more" peasant- workers" abandoned the village altogether in order to live permanently in The industrial cities. Although the industrial Revolution in Russia may have been qualitatively different form the industrial revolution in Western Europe and the United States one factor remains constant- the exploitation of the worker. Russian laborers earned low wages worked long

hours endured wretched working conditions lacked job security, and lived in crowded unsanitary dangerous slums sometimes the proletariat resorted to the strike at Moscow Morozov Textile factory. However until 1906 both unions and strikes were illegal. Nevertheless when pushed far enough, desperate people will resort to desperate actions and wild cat strikes occurred frequently during this period of rapid industrial growth. The Russian government periodically tried to ameliorate the workers conditions under Bunge employers were required to pay wages in money rather than in kind furthermore employers had to pay the contractually agreed –upon wage rate, and restrictions were placed on both child and female labour. However a system of factory inspectors created at this time proved inadequate. During Witte's ministry and 1897 law reduced the working day to 11.5 hours, declared Sunday a holiday and further limited child labour. In 1903 workmen's compensation was introduced and three years later local unions were legalized.

Despite these measures unsatisfactory conditions and the growing influence of radical agitators sparked further worker rebellion. In 1912 the authorities used force to quell unrest in the Altai goldfields; the resulting "massacre" claimed more before the outbreak of World War 1, more than a million workers were out on strike at one time or another. Obviously, the industrial Revolution in Russia was not a placid experience.

Development of Industrial revolution in Japan

Japan initially barricaded herself away from the changes until Mathew Perry rode the industrial wave to her shores demanding entrance with some trepidation Japan used the combined forces of military pride and shintoism to throw her unified population into the onslaught of the industrial Revolution. The Causes and progression of the industrial Revolution in Europe and Japan contrasted in striking ways. Whereas the Europeans developed the technologies over the course of nearly two centuries the Japanese skimmed off the cream that had been churned by others through reverse engineering Japan leapt into the 20th century with military powers that surprised European powers. This was first evident in Japan's victory over Russia in 1905.

In the dusk of the 19th century, Japan awoke to a world where dragons and samurai were not as powerful as they had once been. Japan's emperor, Meiji understood how far his island was behind Europe; He therefore put all his power to gain recognition of Japan's considerable achievement and strove for equality with western nations.

As this island moved into modernity it imported manufactured goods from both Europe and the United States which resulted in the small Japanese producers becoming undersold at the market and many even proclaiming bankruptcy. This fact led to even more aggression from the side of the Japanese emperor who therefore refused to buy any foreign goods; he resolved to grow Japan into invincible nations which did not require anybody's help. Even though Japan's modernization began a century later, in less than 30 years it had completed what had taken Europe three centuries as it "built on the work of another" This immense speed was due to the Japanese seeking "to establish an advanced industrial society without adopting any of the 'negative western traits'".

The Industrial Revolution was a time during which both Europe and Japan tried to claim the little of leading state. After having closely studied Europe, the Pacific island chose which methods to adopt; Germany's style military and political institutions, US education, France's banking program and England's naval expertise and railway systems. As Japan grasped the object of this international game it soon turned into an industrially optimized society whose mass production became the "focus of its collate" following the slogan "Fukoku Kyohei" or "Enrich the country and strengthen the military" to their delight, the Japanese soon "discovered that they already grew and could manufacture a variety of goods that people overseas wanted, from tea and raw silk to gold leaf and buttons and cotton textiles Japan watched Europe closely to borrow the best technology available and at the same time avoiding their mistakes Europe continued to submerge itself in new inventions like the steam locomotive designed by George Stephenson and the steam powered ship by Robert Fulton. According to Taichi Sakaiya, The "innovation of the steam engine is uniquely characterized as a revolution transformation of not only industry but economy and society as well".

Discuss the Industrialization of the People's Republic of China

Industrialization of China did occur on a significant scale only from the 1950s, in the Maoist Great Leap Forward. This was the plan used from 1958 to 1961 to transform the People's Republic of China from a primarily agrarian economy by peasant farmers into a modern communist society through the process of agriculturalization and industrialization. Mao Zedong based this program on the Theory of Productive Forces. It ended in catastrophe due to widespread drought towards the end of the period that led to widespread famine.

As political stability was gradually restored following the Cultural Revolution of the late 1960s, a renewed drive for coordinated, balanced development was set in motion under the leadership of Premier Zhou Enlai. To revive efficiency in industry, Communist Party of China committees were returned to positions of leadership over the revolutionary committees, and a campaign was carried out to return skilled and highly educated personnel to the jobs from which they had been displaced during the Cultural Revolution. Universities began to reopen, and foreign contacts were expanded. Once again the economy suffered from imbalances in the capacities of different industrial sectors and an urgent need for increased supplies of modern inputs for agriculture. In response to these problems, there was a significant increase in investment, including the signing of contracts with foreign firms for the construction of major facilities for chemical fertilizer production, steel finishing, and oil extraction and refining. The most notable of these contracts was for thirteen of the world's largest and most modern chemical fertilizer plants. During this period, industrial output grew at an average rate of 8 percent a year.

At the milestone Third Plenum of the National Party Congress's 11th Central Committee which opened on December 22, 1978, the party leaders decided to undertake a program of gradual but fundamental reform of the economic system. They concluded that the Maoist version of the centrally planned economy had failed to produce efficient economic growth and had caused China to fall far behind not only the industrialized nations of the West but also the new industrial powers of Asia: Japan, the Republic of Korea, Singapore, Taiwan, and Hong Kong. In the late 1970s, while Japan and Hong Kong rivaled European countries in modern technology, China's citizens had to make do with barely sufficient food supplies, rationed clothing, inadequate housing, and a service sector that was inadequate and inefficient. All of these shortcomings embarrassed China internationally.

The purpose of the reform program was not to abandon communism but to make it work better by substantially increasing the role of market mechanisms in the system and by reducing—not eliminating—government planning and direct control. The process of reform was incremental. New measures were first introduced experimentally in a few localities and then were popularized and disseminated nationally if they proved successful. By 1987 the program had achieved remarkable results in increasing supplies of food and other consumer goods and had created a new climate of dynamism and opportunity in the economy. At the same time, however, the reforms also had created new problems and tensions, leading to intense questioning and political struggles over the program's future.

The first few years of the reform program were designated the “period of readjustment,” during which key imbalances in the economy were to be corrected and a foundation was to be laid for a well-planned modernization drive. The schedule of Hua Guofeng's ten-year plan was discarded, although many of its elements were retained. The major goals of the readjustment process were to expand exports rapidly; overcome key deficiencies in transportation, communications, coal, iron, steel, building materials, and electric power; and redress the imbalance between light and heavy industry by increasing the growth rate of light industry and reducing investment in heavy industry.

In 1984, the fourteen largest coastal cities were designated as economic development zones, including Dalian, Tianjin, Shanghai, and Guangzhou, all of which were major commercial and industrial centers. These zones were to create productive exchanges between foreign firms with advanced technology and major Chinese economic networks.

Consequences of Industrial revolution

The consequences of industrial revolution are as follows:

1. Effects of the Industrial Revolution on Political life:

Although Britain had become a constitutional monarchy a century earlier, the vast majority of the population remained disenfranchised from the electoral system. As industrial strength grew along with a more forcible middle class electoral reform was a necessity to balance the new society power structure.

Before 1832, the middle class factory owners wanted political power to match their new – found economic punch this resulted in the reform bill of 1832 which enfranchised 20% of the male population to vote.

The Reform Bill also redistributed electoral districts to better reflect the large population of city centers before, most of the electoral power could be found in the countryside where aristocrats owned vast properties.

The middle class became more or less satisfied but workers were still not represented by the electoral system.

2. Social Consequences of Industrial revolution:

During the industrial Revolution. The structure of society changed dramatically. Before The Revolution most people lived in Small villages working either in agriculture or as skilled craftsmen. They lived and often worked as a family, doing everything by hand. In fact, three quarters of Britain's population lived in the Countryside, and farming was the predominant occupation. With the advent of industrial nation however everything changed. The new enclosure laws which required that all grazing grounds be fenced in at The owner's expense had left many poor farmers bankrupt and unemployed nomad machines capable of huge outputs made small handed weaver redundant. As a result there were many people who were forced to work at the new factories This required them to move to towns cities so that They could be close to their new jobs it also meant that they made less money for working longer hours add to this the higher living expenses due to urbanization and one can easily see that many families resources would be extremely stretched.

The Women and children were sent out to work, making up 75% of early workers. Families were forced to do this since. They desperately needed money while factory owners were happy to employ woman and children for a number of reasons. First of all, they could be paid very little and children could be controlled more easily than adults, generally through violent beatings. Children also had smaller hands which were often needed to reach in among the parts of a machine furthermore employers found that children were more malleable and adapted to the new methods much better than adults did children were also sent to work in mines being small enough to get more coal and are form the deep and very often unsafe pits. They could also be forced to work as long as eighteen hours each day. For these reason, children as young as eight years old textiles – where they became part of a growing and profitable business. The unprecedented growth and profit was another social change that occurred during the industrial Revolution. The laissez- faire approach taken by the government and advocated by philosopher economist Adam smith allowed capitalism to flourish There were little or no government regulation imposed upon factory policies and this allowed the wealthy middle class owners to pursue whichever path was most profitable regardless of the safety and well being of their workers. This relentless pursuit of money caused another important social change: The ultimate break down of the family unit.

Since workers especially women and children were laboring for up to eighteen hours each day,. There was very little family contact and the only time that one was at home was spent sleeping. People also had it shared housing with other families, which father contributed to the breakdown of the family unit. As a result children received very little education had stunted growth and were sickly they also grew up quite maladjusted having never been thought now to behaved properly. The living conditions where indeed horrible; working families often live in slums with little sanitation and infant mortality skyrocketed during the early industrial Revolution. 50% of infants died before the age of two.

However, The Social changes that took place were not all negative most classes eventually benefited in some way form the huge profits that were being made and by 1820 most workers were making somewhat