

Survey of European History 1850s-1945

Chapter 1: Revolutions and Unifications, 1815-71

1.1 Congress of Vienna, 1814/1815

This congress was a great assembly that met in Vienna to resettle Europe disturb by Napoleon. Almost all European states except Turkey were represented. But the major decision making was left to the “Big Four” powers: Austria, Britain, Prussia and Russia. The chief delegates of these powers were Austrian Chancellor Metternich, the British foreign secretary Castlereagh, the Prussian chancellor Hardenberg and the Russian foreign minister Nesselrode. Presided over by Metternich, its meetings were regularly held to discuss the whole range of congress business.

The Congress wanted to rebuild the European states system which had been demolished by Napoleon. They wanted to make sure that there was no outbreak of another revolution. Hence the Congress decided to work on three principles:

Principle of balance of power: Principle of balance of power was to provide effective safeguards for the future peace of Europe. One of the main concerns of the Congress was to have an order of Balance of Power in Europe. The Congress also wanted to ensure security against revival of any French aggression. Hence France was separately dealt by the second Treaty of Paris in 1815. Accordingly France was reduced to the boundaries she possessed before the outbreak of the French revolution of 1789. She was also to pay a heavy war indemnity as also to maintain an allied army of occupation for five years. France was also to restore the art-treasures which Napoleon had brought from different countries during his conquests.

Principle of compensation: Principle of compensation was to reward to powers which had throughout fought against Napoleon’s cause with it was aligned the principles to reprimand the countries which had helped Napoleon during his battles. Each of the major powers which had formed a coalition to fight against Napoleon received wide compensation for their efforts. Russia was perhaps the most beneficiary in getting compensation. She secured most of Poland and was allowed to retain Finland which she had captured from Sweden. Prussia was compensated with Saxony, the Duchy of Westphalia. In addition she was given large districts on the Rhine. Austria got Lombardy and Venetia from northern Italy. She also got Illyrian provinces along the eastern

coast of Adriatic. Britain got Helgoland in the North Sea, Malta and Ionian Islands in the Mediterranean.

The principle of legitimacy: principle of legitimacy required restoration of pre-revolutionary conditions. Hence the Congress turned down the changes made by Napoleon as also rights of the people to change their rulers. It was in accordance with this principle that the rule of Bourbons was restored in France, Spain and Naples; the House of Savoy in Sardinia and Piedmont and the House of Orange in Holland. Pope was also restored to his earlier positions. The Swiss Confederation was restored and strengthened by adding 22 cantons to it. However, Principle of Legitimacy had been compromised in many cases. It was not possible to reestablish over 300 states of Germany. Hence they were linked in a German Confederation of 39 states and represented by delegates appointed by states to a Federal Diet. The Austrian Empire dominated the Diet since its delegates were presidents of both chambers. This arrangement was due partly to the influence of Metternich who did not want a united Germany.



1.2 Concert of Europe

The Congress of Vienna attempted to restore pre-revolutionary conditions in Europe. But the European powers were still in grip of a revolution. They planned for ensuring peace. To ensure this, two concepts were floated. One was Holy alliance put forward by Czar Alexander I of Russia and the other was the Concert of Europe (Quadruple Alliance) proposed by Castlereagh of Britain.

The Holy Alliance: Czar Alexander I believed that the French revolution had been irreligious hence to prevent a similar revolution in future he proposed his idea of forming a brotherhood of

sovereigns based upon Christian ideals. Rulers were to act as fathers of families towards their subjects and brothers to each other. The main signatories of this alliance were Russia, Prussia, and Austria. England did not agree to be a part to it. Despite that the Holy Alliance came into being, but it practically nobody took it seriously. Hence facing criticisms, Holy Alliance met with a peaceful demise in 1825.

The Concert of Europe – Quadruple Alliance: After the Vienna Congress, there arose a strong desire for some international organization which could ensure peace in Europe. This desire found expression in the Quadruple Alliance which was signed in November 1815 by Russia, Austria, Prussia and Britain.

The Alliance provided that the signatories should meet time to time in various congresses to discuss matters of their common interest and to suggest measures for the maintenance of peace in Europe. They were also to discuss about various problems erupting in European countries and try to find solutions to them.

The years that followed the foundation of Quadruple Alliance have been called as “Age of Congresses.” Now the members of the European Concert pledged to meet at intervals at some specified place to discuss questions and problems on the agenda that called for collective deliberation.

The first Congress was held at Aix-La Chapelle in 1818. Main question which came up in this congress for consideration was with regard to the position of France. France had paid off the war indemnity imposed up on her by the treaty of Paris, 1815. Hence it was agreed that allied armies of occupation be withdrawn from France. It was also decided to admit her to the Concert of Europe equal basis. Hence the so called Quadruple Alliance was converted into **Quintuple Alliance** that means an alliance of five. However, since the allies still feared from France they wanted to take some precautions to confront any sought of mischief which might be committed by France in future. Hence they secretly renewed their quadruple alliance to operate against France if needed.

1.3 Liberalism, Nationalism and Revolutions

Conservatives were turned on maintaining the inviolability of traditional political institutions, particularly the monarchy. It was also their goal to maintain a balance of power in Europe in

order to ensure permanent peace. Traditionally they were supported by landowners, manufacturers, merchants and the churches.

Liberalism was a curse to conservatives, for it seemed the same with revolution. Hostile to practically every conservative institution, liberals did all they could to undermine the privileges of the monarchy, the aristocracy and the church. They promoted constitutionalism, the idea that government must be limited to specific powers by a written constitution. They also wanted representative or parliamentary government. In that sense liberalism became the same with republicanism. This often led to demands for a constitutional monarchy as a first step toward a more satisfactory regime. Liberals also called for a separation of powers among the legislative, executive and judicial branches of government. Above all, they proclaimed the inviolability of the individual and promoted the protection of individual rights – including property rights and personal freedoms. But they also felt that the right to vote should be restricted by property qualifications. In practical terms, this limited vote to landowners and well-to-do businessmen and professionals. Liberalism thus became identified with the middle or upper classes, convincing the lower classes that it had little to offer.

Nationalism is a complex ideology. It has many diverse definitions and has been manifested in many ways. As it developed in the nineteenth century, it was based on the assumption that the peoples of a particular geographic area shared a cultural identity, as seen in their common history and, in particular, a common language. Nationalists attempted to make this cultural unity a political reality by defining state boundaries that coincided with the territory where each cultural group lived.

Revolution: The period 1815-48 saw periods of apparent recurring waves of revolution.

- Revolutions in Western Europe focused on **liberal reforms**,
- Revolution in Eastern Europe, with its multi-national empires, saw more **nationalist uprisings** as various ethnic groups wanted **independence** from the Hapsburg, Ottoman, and Russian empires.
- Revolutions in Middle Europe, Germany and Italy were striving for both **national unification** and liberal civil rights.

There were three major waves of revolutions: in the 1820's, 1830's, and 1848.

A. The 1820's Revolutions

Started in Spain and spread to Greece, South America, and Germany. Greece and the South American colonies did win their independence, with a constitutional monarchy. A number of liberal army officers, apparently influenced by the ideas of the French Revolution, rebelled against the corrupt and repressive rule of the Bourbon king, Ferdinand VII. The Spanish American colonies had taken advantage of the revolution in Spain to throw off the yoke of Spanish rule.

B. The 1830`s Revolutions

Started in France and spread to Poland, Belgium, Italy, and Germany. While the uprisings in Germany, Italy, and Poland were crushed, France won a slightly more liberal constitutional monarchy, Belgium won its freedom, and more liberal reforms were peacefully passed in Britain. Once again, the trouble started in France. The government of the restored king, Louis XVIII (1815-24), was a conservative constitutional monarchy with a legislature elected.

C. The 1848 Revolutions

In this stage with some **fifty uprisings** taking place across Europe, the French this time established a republic, only to have it taken over by a dictator, Napoleon III, and turned into the Second Empire. Serfdom was abolished in the Hapsburg Empire while a weak constitutional monarchy was established in Prussia. Germany and Italy set more realistic goals and strategies toward attaining national unity.

1.4 Second Empire under Louis Napoleon

In France, the establishment of the Second Republic led to the election of Napoleon Bonaparte's nephew, Napoleon III who used a military coup to extend his presidency and then make himself emperor of the **Second Empire** (1852-70).

Despite its violent beginning, Napoleon III's rule was much more peaceful. France's prosperity rapidly grew as he promoted the building of industries and a centralized railroad network. He also put Paris through an extensive urban renewal project, providing the city with wide roads. Napoleon's reign came to an end in 1870 after a disastrous war against Prussia in its final stage of unifying Germany.

1.5 Unification of Italy

The Vienna Congress reorganized Italy by dividing it into 12 states. There were many problems that **hindered the unification of Italy**.

1. Despotic rulers of different Italian states never wanted to get down or relinquish their rule
2. Austria was a big obstacle in the way of Italian unification
3. Pope wanted to keep his hold on the central part of Italy intact.
4. Feudal lords had their own interest fearing that unification might deprive them of their big estates
5. Economic disparity among different regions of Italy was also an obstacle
6. People of Italy could not be easily motivated for the cause of unification and freedom of Italy.

Forces that kept the spirit of unification alive:

- a) **Carbonary**: many secret societies such as Carbonary came up in Italy after the Vienna Congress. It aimed at bringing political reforms in Italy, unification of Italy and to bring an end to the foreign domination. Its branches were spread all over Italy.
- b) **Risorgimento**: It was the name of a newspaper founded by Cavour. It means resurrection. The name “Risorgimento” came to be applied to the whole movement of Italian unification. Its main object was to advocate the concept of constitutional government and the independence of the whole of Italy from the foreign rule.
- c) **Young Italy**: this was a society founded by Mazzini. It aimed at liberation and unification of Italy. Only young men under 40 years of age could become its members. Its programs were
 - i. Austria must be driven out of Italy
 - ii. Italians should not rely on foreign aid
 - iii. Italy should be united under a republican government
- d) **Italian patriots**: Mazzini, Cavour and Garibaldi were the three great patriots who took up the cause of the unification and freedom of Italy. Each of them followed their own line of action. Mazzini created a base for the unification of Italy by organizing and arousing the enthusiasm of the Italians. Garibaldi got the Southern part of Italy, i.e., Naples and

Sicily united with Piedmont. It was Cavour under who first portion of Italy i.e. Lombardy came to be freed from Austria and united under Piedmont.

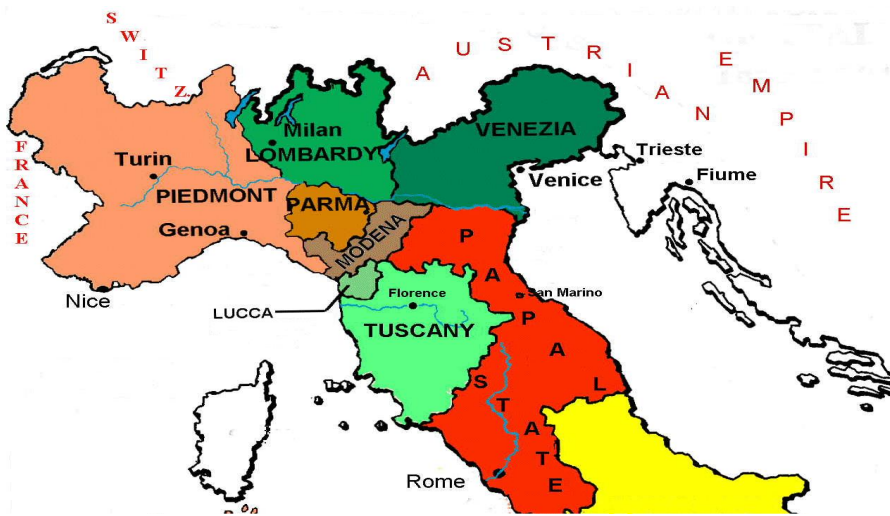
- e) **French Revolutions of 1830 and 1848:** Italians were influenced by the French Revolution of 1830 and 1848. Revolts broke out in Naples, Modena and Papal states. But these revolts were suppressed by the intervention of Austria. Hence Italians were convinced that Austrian domination over Italy must be removed.
- f) **Austro-Sardinian War:** Charles Albert of Piedmont declared war against Austria in 1848. He was defeated. Albert abdicated in favor of his son, Victor Emanuel II.
- g) **Cavour:** He was the prime Minister of the kingdom of Piedmont and Sardinia. His ideas were different from those of Mazzini.
 - i. Italy could be united only under the kingdom of Piedmont and Sardinia
 - ii. Austrian domination must be brought to an end to liberate Italy
 - iii. Foreign help must be sought to achieve Italian unification
- h) **Crimean war (1854-56):** In Crimean War England and France were on the side of Turkey against Russia. To win the favor of the allied powers, Cavour went to help them with his soldiers. Napoleon III of France was much impressed at Cavour's support.
- i) **Plombiers' Pact, 1858:** after the victory of the Crimean war, Napoleon III invited Cavour at Plombiers and asked him what he could do for Italy. Cavour asked him to help him to fight against Austria to get back Lombardy and Venetia which belonged to Italy. Napoleon III promised to help and asked Cavour to start the war against Austria.

Stages of the Unification

- a) **First Stage of the Unification (Austro-Sardinian War):** Cavour's armies attacked Austria. As promised, Napoleon III's armies also came to his help. Austria was defeated and Lombardy was captured. Thus Lombardy was joined with Piedmont in 1859. But Venetia was yet to be captured. Duchies of Parma, Modena and Tuscany also joined.
- b) **Second Stage of Unification (1860):** Sicily and Naples were captured under Garibaldi. Now Cavour sent Garibaldi to Sicily and Naples in the South. He along with his 1000 Red-Shirt armies marched and captured Naples. He handed over the two Duchies, Naples and Sicily to Cavour in 1860.
- c) **The third Stage of Unification (Venetia), 1866:** when Bismarck, the Chancellor of Prussia, fought against Austria in 1866, he asked Piedmont to attack Austria from the

south, whereas he himself would attack her from the north. In that case he promised to get Venetia for Italy from Austria. After Austria was defeated in the Austro-Prussian war, Bismarck asked Austria to hand over Venetia to Piedmont. Accordingly, Venetia was joined with Piedmont in 1866

d) The Fourth Stage of Italian Unification (Conquest of Rome), 1870: when Franco-Prussian war was fought in 1870/71, Napoleon III had to withdraw his troops stationed at Rome to help the Pope. As soon as the French troops were withdrawn, Rome was also captured and joined with Italy in 1870.



Map of Italy before its unification

1.6 Unification of Germany

Background: Germany was divided into more than 300 states on the eve of the outbreak of the French revolution of 1789. Napoleon Bonaparte paved the way for German unification by creating a Confederation of the Rhine consisting of 39 states. The Vienna Congress established a loose German Confederation consisting of 59 states. It also put Germany under Austrian domination.

Problems in the Way of the Unification of Germany:

1. Social, economic, political and religious disparities among German states
2. Austrian domination in Germany.
3. Denmark which had two German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein under it
4. France which had its eyes on the South German states.

5. Weak German army
6. Lack of awakening among the German masses

Factors Which Motivated for the Unification of Germany:

1. **Burschenschaften, 1815:** It was a secret society established by German university students. It infused the idea of unity, justice and freedom in the minds of the youth.
2. **Zolleverein:** it was a customs union according to which free trade was introduced among the member states of Germany.
3. **French Revolution of 1848:** It led to the fall of Metternich, the biggest obstacle in the way of the unification of Germany. Now German nationalist wanted to create a German Federation.
4. **Prussian State and the Rise of Bismarck:** Ever since 1815, there had been only one healthy element within German politics: the Prussian State.
5. **Common Nationality.** In the late 18th century some German people began to think of themselves as a distinct nationality and agitated for a unified Germany.

Steps in German Unification (1862-1871) -German Unification by “Blood and Iron”

1. **Creation of Prussian Military Power.** Bismarck governed virtually as a dictator. He created a Prussian military machine.
2. **Elimination of Austrian Influence**
 - a) **The Danish War (1864).** Bismarck brought about a war with Denmark over the provinces of Schleswig and Holstein. Prussia, joined by Austria, easily defeated Denmark and compelled her to cede Schleswig-Holstein.
 - b) **The Austro-Prussian war (1866).** Bismarck deliberately quarreled with Austria regarding the administration of the conquered provinces. Actually, Bismarck provoked war so as to end Austrian power in Germany. Prussia was allied with Italy, which wanted the Italian territory held by Austria. General von Moltke (leader of Prussian armies) overwhelmed Austria. According to the treaty of peace, Austria
 1. ceded Schleswig-Holstein to Prussia and Venetia to Italy,
 2. Agreed to dissolve the Austrian dominated German Confederation, thus withdrawing from German affairs.
3. **Establishment of the North German confederation (1867):** Following the Austro-Prussian War, Bismarck annexed several north German states and compelled the remaining

ones to join in a Prussian-dominated North German confederation. Only the four south German states remained outside the Confederation.

4. **The Franco Prussian War (1870-1871):** Bismarck now desired a war with France so that the south Germans would be unified with Germany. When France opposed a German candidate for the Spanish throne, Bismarck intensified Franco German enmity. Napoleon III declared war upon Prussia. Prussia invaded France, destroyed the French forces at Sedan, and quickly overran the country. In the Treaty of Frankfurt, France ceded Alsace–Lorraine to Germany, France agreed to pay Germany a huge war indemnity, and until final payment, consented to German military occupation.

Chapter Two: Eastern Europe, 1815-1914

2.1 Russia

At the beginning of his reign Alexander I (1801-1825) had ideas for reform. But he found the opposition of most of the gentry to his plans for freeing the serfs too great for him. In his later years, he abandoned these plans.

Alexander was succeeded by his brother Nicholas I, who did not share Alexander's liberal views. He was a firm believer in autocracy. A strict censorship was imposed. Serfdom was preserved. In spite of Nicholas's repressive regime criticism of autocracy continued.

Alexander II (1855-1881) realized that drastic changes were necessary. The serfs were liberated by the Emancipation Edict of 1861. Many peasants made use of their new freedom by moving to the towns.

In Alexander's other reforms the first steps towards democracy were taken. The judiciary system was modernized and trial by jury introduced. The censorship was no longer enforced. And local government by County Councils (Zemstva) was established.

The relaxation of the censorship in 1856 let loose a flood of free discussion and criticism in the universities. The two schools of thought (Slavophiles and Westernisers) broke up into several groups.

One group was the Tsarists. They wanted a strong government under the paternal guidance of the Tsar, and no parliament.

The Liberals were westernisers and worked for parliamentary democracy. They made repeated attempts to persuade the Tsar to establish a freely elected central parliament.

The Anarchists wanted no government at all; the people were to have complete control of their own lives. The extreme Anarchists wanted to destroy the whole existing order - government, church, family life.

The Radicals supported the possession of all the land by the peasants and more wealth for the factory workers, this to be obtained by the organization of trades unions. They wished to prevent the rise of a commercial middle class on the western model, and hoped that Russia would remain predominately a peasant country.

So many Radicals turned their attention to the factory workers and to the teaching of Karl Marx. He believed that the existing order - belief in God, private property, the upper and middle classes - must go, and the way made clear for the dictatorship of the proletariat, leading to an eventual classless society. To achieve this, world revolution was inevitable, and that revolution would be carried by the factory workers.

The reign of Alexander III (1881-94) and the first ten years of the reign of his son Nicholas II was a period of suppression of all progressive movements, and limitation of the reforms of Alexander II. The discontent of the ever growing population of overworked, poorly paid and poorly housed factory workers provided a happy hunting ground for the revolutionaries of the Social Democrat Party. In 1892 a young lawyer Lenin joined the party.

In 1903 the Social Democrat Party split into two: the Mensheviks and the Bolsheviks. The Mensheviks wished to admit to the party all sympathizers with its aims, and to decentralize authority to local branches. The old leader Plekhanov joined the Mensheviks. The Bolsheviks would admit only active and bigoted revolutionaries, who must be willing to lay down their lives for the cause, and who must obey all orders of the central committee. The Bolsheviks were led by Lenin.

Discontent and opposition to the government had reached such a pitch during Nicholas II. Thus his chief adviser, Witte, was convinced of the need for constitutional reform. But Nicholas II still believed in the divine right of autocracy. He dismissed Witte and appointed Plehve.

In Russo-Japan war from 1904-5 Russia was defeated. The defeat of Russia increased the political unrest in the country. On Sunday, January 22, 1905, the Russian workers organized demonstration to present petition to the Czar asking for ending the war and introduction of reforms. Then Czar Nicholas II ordered his troops fire on the workers. The police opened the fire and killed many innocent demonstrators. The event is called "Bloody Sunday"

This led to popular uprising. The uprising was ruthlessly crushed and a program of reform was devised by Czar, i.e. is called "October manifesto" on that the Czar promised;-

- The setting up of elected parliament called "Duma"
- Guaranteed to Russian people: freedom of speech, freedom from arbitrary arrest, and freedom of association.

Czar established Dumas but members were land lords, the real power was on the hands of Czar.

2.2 Austria-Hungary

The Habsburg state was by its very existence the contradiction of nationality. It had shown astonishing flexibility, emerging virtually intact from the storm of 1848. Hungarian sympathies were not with Austria in the Italian war of 1859, and the course of German affairs as guided by Bismarck was considered favorable to the Magyar cause. After defeat of Austria by Germany in seven weeks war Habsburgs Empire declining as well as from Italy, and obviously called for reconsideration

From 1867 Austria-Hungary Empire split in to two: **Austria**, comprising the Germanic part of the state, the northern Slavs, and reaching down the Adriatic coast and **Hungary**, including besides the Magyars, Transylvania and the bulk of the southern Slavs.

Chapter Three: Ottoman Empire and Balkans

3.1. Slow Decline of Ottomans

The story of the Ottoman Empire during the eighteenth century had been one of gradual territorial recession, mainly under the joint pressure of Austria and Russia. In addition, France had long-standing interests, economic and cultural, in the empire of the sultans, and the imperial and commercial growth of Britain caused her to take increasing interest in its affairs. The Turks had lost their former expanding vigor, and instead of keeping up with the modern world, their state, beset by maladministration, was in a condition of advanced decay. Although the Congress of Vienna, partly in deference to Russian wishes, had not dealt with Ottoman affairs, it was clear that the fate of the still vast Ottoman domain would be of concern to the powers, particularly the four just mentioned. In Turkish weakness, the sultans consistently pursued the policy of seeking to prevent agreement among the powers. This is the essence of the eastern question.

3.2 Balkans

The problem was further complicated by local considerations. The bulk of the European possessions of the Turks roughly the Balkan Peninsula were inhabited by Christians, mainly of the Greek Orthodox persuasion. The Greek Patriarch of Constantinople, head of this Christian community and regarded by the sultans as its representative, was in effect an important official of the Ottoman state.

1. Austro-Russian Rivalry in the Balkans

It was easy for Germany herself to remain on good terms with both Russia and Austria. The problem for Bismarck was rather how to drive the Austro-Russian team. By his own exclusion of Austria from much of central Europe he had caused that country to concentrate more exclusively her attention toward the southeast, the Ottoman Balkans. This was an area of traditional Russian interest.

2. The Independence of Greece

At the opposite end of the Balkans, the force of nationalism was at work in Greece. The normally unstable operation of Greek politics resulted in the dethronement of King Otto. In the search for a

new ruler in 1862, Britain (having obtained the election of her candidate) was content with the diplomatic victory over Russia. A compromise candidate was found in the person of Prince George of Denmark, and Britain turned over to Greece the Ionian Islands that she had held since Napoleon's time. No outside help was forthcoming to assist the revolt in Crete against Turkish rule, and the Cretan rebellion of 1866, like the Polish of 1863, was allowed to "burn itself out."

3. The Russo-Turkish War (The Crimean War)

Nicholas of Russia tried to obtain the Sultan's consent to the safeguarding of the rights of Orthodox Christians in the Holy Places in Palestine, and - of more importance - to a Russian protectorate over all the Orthodox Christians in the Turkish Empire. The Turks agreed to the first demand, but not the second, whereupon the Russians occupied Moldavia and Wallachia. Assured of British and French support, Turkey declared war on Russia (1854).

The Russians sank the Turkish fleet in the Black Sea, whereupon Britain and France sent a force to the aid of the Turks. This force landed in the Balkans but found that the Russians, threatened by Austria, had retreated from Moldavia and Wallachia. So they looked around for an objective of sufficient importance to the Russians to bring them to battle. They selected Sebastopol, the Russian naval port in the Crimea.

A year later Sebastopol fell, and with all the hostiles exhausted the war ended. Both sides had suffered terrible losses from cholera and frostbite. But the Russians had suffered the most. Their high command and army contractors were incompetent and corrupt; and Russian military power was crippled by the long winter marches to the Crimea, when hundreds of thousands of peasant soldiers died in snowdrifts on the way.

The peace treaty left the position of Turkey much the same as before, and Russian expansionist plans were thwarted. She lost the mouth of the Danube; Moldavia and Wallachia remained in the Turkish Empire as partially independent principalities (and were united into one - Romania - a few years later); Russia's claim to a protectorate over all Orthodox Christians was abandoned; and Russian warships were forbidden in the Black Sea. No one was in a position to enforce this last provision, which Russia soon rejected.

The Crimean War had no decisive effect on the situation in the Balkans. But it had a side-effect on European politics in that Austria's hostility to Russia during the war broke up the long-standing friendship between the two countries. Relations between them were further worsened when Austria, with Britain and France, protested to Russia at the ruthless suppression of a

second great Polish rebellion in 1863. Alexander II had started by trying a liberal policy in Poland. He won the support of the Polish moderates, but the Nationalists wanted complete independence and caused disorder which the Russian government attempted to quell by drafting them into the army. This touched off the rebellion, which rapidly spread and was finally suppressed after nearly eighteen months of guerilla fighting.

Total Russian authority was restored. Poland became a Russian province, and a policy of “Russification” in education was instituted. In this crisis Russia had been able to ignore the representations of Britain, France and Austria (who advocates Polish Home Rule) because Bismarck, now controlling Prussian policy and caring nothing for the Poles, had befriended Russia in her isolation. (By this action he ensured Russian acquiescence in his subsequent wars with Austria (1866) and France (1870) which resulted in the foundation of the new German Empire.)

Chapter Four: The New Imperialism

Imperialism is the control of one people by another (political, economic, cultural)

The Old Imperialism occurred between the 16th and 18th centuries.

European powers did not usually acquire territory in Africa and Asia but built a series of trading stations.

Bases for the Renewal of Imperialism:

- The search for new markets: The industrial revolution created a surplus of goods; capitalists sought new markets
- Search for raw Materials
- factor of prestige
- The pressure of population especially in Germany and Italy. Such pressure did exist and from both however, that Britain was devoted to free trade.

A. The Partition of Africa

A map of Africa around 1870 shows the bulk of that continent as unexplored. By the early 1880, colonial activity began to grow more intense. The French established themselves in Tunis 'in 1881, and the Germans laid the bases of their four African colonies: Togoland, the Cameroons, German East Africa, and German Southwest Africa. The Italians established themselves on the shores of the Red Sea, while the British and French were pushing in from various points around the periphery of Africa. King Leopold of Belgium had established the Congo Free State, and even Portugal was extending her old coastal holdings in Angola and Mozambique.

B. Imperialism in Asia

1. The Dutch Possessions. The nineteenth century witnessed the consolidation, expansion, and reorganization of what had been primarily trading posts. Important as it was, the Dutch empire was essentially maintained for the same reason that smaller European states continued to exist, namely the balance among the greater powers.
2. India. The British, long established in India, had reorganized the structure of that subcontinent after the Sepoy mutiny of 1857. The British government, rather than the Company, took control. Both India and Indonesia were prime examples of the functions of nineteenth-century

colonialism: markets for home manufactures, valuable sources of raw materials, profitable fields for investment and for good positions for the sons of the ruling class.

3. Russian Expansion in central Asia the Penetration of China and Japan as a new factor meanwhile appeared.

Chapter Five: Alliances and Crises, 1871-1914

1. Triple Alliance

After Franco- Prussia war (1870-71), France was forced to hand over two of her provinces, Alsace and Lorraine, to Germany. Bismarck, the German Chancellor (Prime minister) realized that the French would want revenge for their earlier defeat. To stop this, Bismarck began to build up a network of alliance with the other European powers. He had two basic aims:

1. to gain friend (allies) for Germany
2. to isolate France from the other European power & keep her powerless.

In 1879 he signed a secret treaty with Austria Hungary known as **Dual Alliance**. Germany & Austria agreed to help each other if attacked by Russia. Three years (1882) later Italy signed the agreement and the Dual Alliance became the **Triple Alliance**. Bismarck signed a secret alliance with Russia called the Reinsurance Treaty. As a result the entire mainland Europe except France was tied to Germany in a network of alliance. France was isolated, friendless & therefore powerless.

2. Dual Entente

In 1889 William II became Germany's new Emperor. William wanted Germany to become a respected world power with a large overseas empire. First he forced Bismarck to resign in 1890. In 1891 William decided not to renew Germany's Reinsurance Treaty with Russia. The Way was now clear for an alliance between France & Russia.

In 1894 what Bismarck had always feared came true. In an alliance known as the Dual Entente, Russia promised to aid France if she was attacked by Germany. France's isolation had come to an end.

In 1904 Britain joined and the alliance called as an **Entente cordiale** (friendly understanding). The Entente cordiale was not a military alliance. In 1907 England, France & Russia signed **triple Entente**, a military alliance.

For many years Britain had concentrated on looking after her vast empire & had kept out of European affairs. This policy was called **splendid Isolation**. Then her two chief colonial rivals, France & Russia, combined to form the Dual Entente in 1894. This and the German Naval threat, encouraged Britain to look for allies.

First **Britain** signed a treaty with **Japanese**. In this Anglo-Japanese Alliance of 1902 Japan promised Britain help in the event of a war with Russia.

3. Triple Entente

England considered as her industrial leadership and colonial Empire threatened most by Germany. In 1907 England & Russia settled differences over spheres of influence in Persia & China. This agreement completed the triple Entente. Now Europe was divided into two great hostile camps, with the:

- Triple Alliance _ Germany, Austria- Hungary & Italy
- Triple Entente - France, Russia & Britain

When WWI broke out Triple alliances renamed as central power and triple entente named as allied powers.

Chapter Six: World War I

6.1 Cause of the War

1. **Nationalism:** It became the major factor in international relation after French revolution. It leads to increase the race of supremacy.
2. **Economic and imperial interest:** The idea of colonialism & imperialism in 19th & 20th c as a result of direct outcome of industrial revolution. Each country tried to expand its oversea empire. It led to race for empire building.
3. **The Arms Race:** towards the end of the 19th century, Germany government started building up enormous navy that could challenge the might of British navy. In 1900 Germany built a huge new fleet. Britain responded by increasing the size of their navy. They introduced a new form of powerful battleship called “ Dreadnought”. Germany responded by building similar ships of their own. Then Britain built a more substantial battleships called *super dreadnoughts*.

Other countries took their part in this arm race. French increased its military forces to 4 million in 1914. Russia spent a fortune on military railways that clearly designed to take troops to fight Germany & Austro-Hungary.

4. The two Alliances

5. **The Bosnia crisis (1908):** In 1908 a group of Young officer seized power in Turkey by removing Sultan Abdul Hamid II (1876-1908) from power. One of their aims was to rebuild the Turkish Empire. It seemed likely that they would try & reclaim the provinces of Bosnia & Herzegovina. These lands were part of the Turkish Empire but had been occupied by Austria since 1878. To halt the Turks, the Austrians annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina to their Empire. Serbia was outraged, prepared for war and appealed to Russia for help. To fight the Austrians alone would be suicidal. Russia's answer was to call for an international conference to investigate the annexation. Austria, however, refused to investigate the annexation. Austria refused to attend. Then Germany came to

Austria's aid & demanded that Russia accept the annexation. Russia had little choice but to back down. Her armies were no match for the German forces.

6. **The First Balkan Crisis (1912):** Bulgarian, Serb, and Greek ambitions overlapped and clashed in Turkish Macedonia, for years a concern of European diplomacy. Serbo-Bulgarian enmity was of long standing and intermingled with the rivalry between Russia on one side, Austria and Germany on the other.

In 1912 Serbia, Greece, Bulgaria & Montenegro formed a group called the ***Balkan League***. The League aspired to clear Turkish power from the Balkan region. They were so successful that they managed to drive Turkey almost completely out of Europe.

Serbia had come out as the strongest Balkan state. The Austrian generals called for a quick war to crush Serbia once and for all. But the complicated system of alliance in Europe, meant that other countries would soon have become involved as well, an attack on Serbia might therefore trigger off a general European war. So the great powers stepped in and forced a peace settlement on the Balkan case. At the London peace conference in May 1913 Austria managed to defeat Serbia's plans to gain a coastline by having a new country, Albania. At the London conference:-

- The new state of Albania formed
- The other Balkan countries divided up Macedonia between themselves
- The rest of the conquered Turkish lands were share out among the Balkan League

7. **The second Balkan War 1913:** Bulgaria quarreled with Serbia & Greece. In June 1913, the Bulgarian began the second Balkan war by attacking their former allies. They were, however, quickly defeated. In the peace settlement at the Bucharest Treaty in Aug 1913, Bulgaria surrendered nearly all the lands she had won in the first war to Greece and Serbia.

8. **The killing in Sarajevo:** On June, 1914 the city of Sarajevo in Bosnia was the center of world attention. Bosnia was part of Austria-Hungary but many of its people were Serbs who wanted to be ruled by neighboring state of Serbia. On June 28, 1914 **Gavrilo Principe** of Serb shoot **Archduke Franz Ferdinand** & his wife of Austria-Hungary heir. Killing of Archduke linked to a bitter dispute between Austria Hungary & state of Serbia. Austria Hungary blamed Serbia for the murder & got ready to attack.

The system of alliance led several other countries to become involved in the outbreak of the war between Austria-Hungary & Serbia

- Austria –Hungary allied to German
- Serbia Allied to Russia
- The government of Austria –Hungary wanted Germany help
- The government of Serbia sought Russian help, in turn Russia hoped for support from France and Britain

On August 4, 1914 the German troops crossed the Belgian frontier. Under the terms of London Treaty, Britain had promised to guarantee Belgium's neutrality. Britain sent an ultimatum to the German to withdraw from Belgium. Germany refused & the war began. Belgium's resistance against German force gave alert to French preparing defense line & the Schlieffen plan remained in theory than in practice.

The immediate cause for the outbreak of the war on June 28, 1914 was assassination in Bosnia. Although the assassination did not take place in Serbia, Austria-Hungary held the Serbian government responsible.

Before taking any action against Serbia, Austro-Hungary wanted to know the attitude of Germany & sent its envoy to William II, he promised to support. With assurance of gaining support of Germany, Austria presented an Ultimatum to Serbia on July 23. Ultimatum included: Serbia refused to accept the demand & Austria declared war on Serbia on July 28, 1914. Russia considered herself to be the protector of Slav Orthodox state of Balkans. Also Russia wanted to uphold a great power interest in Balkans, because black sea was the main Russian trade route.

- Tsar Nicholas II gave a *mobilization order*
- In response Germany sent an ultimatum to *Russia & France*
- Thus German declared war on Russia & France

In order to get invasion route Germany invaded Belgium (partner of Britain) on August 3, 1914. In Aug 4 Britain declared war on Germany. By the end of 1914 the strong nations had formed two known powers: Central Power (Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria) and Allied powers (Britain, France, Russia, Serbia, Belgium, Japan, Montenegro, Italy-1915 and USA-1917)

6.2 Western Front

It was most decisive front. German planned to win a quick victory & then shift to eastern front. To achieve this German introduced Schlieffen plan, a plan to attack French through Belgium, Netherland, and Luxemburg & occupy Paris within six weeks.

German's force Schlieffen plan was failed.

The military balance changed after USA entered the war, the cause was the German Sunk a ship of USA named **Lusitania** on May 7, 1915.

6.3 War in East

While USA entered the war on Apr 6, 1917 in Western front, Russia was being defeated in East. The time was not good for Russia because there was revolution in Russia in 1917 led to the collapse of Russian war effort & withdrawal from war.

In March 1918 Russia signed the treaty of Brest-Litovsk with German to stop war. On November 1918 there was an agreement signed to stop fighting called Armistice. The central powers began to bit one after another.

- Bulgaria surrendered on Sep 30, 1918
- On October 1918, German made an armistice treaty & stopped the war.

The causes for the defeat of central power and victory of allied power

1. After the failure of Schieffen plan, Germany faced war on two front
2. Allied sea power was decisive
3. The entry of USA
4. Allied political leaders at critical time
5. Weak allies of Germany

6.4 End of the War

It was big conflict between modern industrialized nations. New methods of warfare & new weapons were introduced, tanks, submarines, bombs. In Germany hardship & defeat caused revolution. Habsburg empire collapsed completely: Austria & Hungary split in to two. In Russia pressure caused two revolutions:

- February– march overthrew Tsar Nicholas II
- October – November brought Lenin & Bolsheviks to power

The chances of allied victory were not very clear until January 1918. But hoping a victory, USA president Woodrow Wilson made his famous “Fourteen point.”

6.5 The Paris / Versailles / Peace treaty

WWI ended with surrender of Germany on November 11, 1918. On January 18, 1919 the representative of allied group held conference in order to draw a new political map of Europe and world. The prominent figures of the treaty were “big three “

Woodrow Wilson of USA

George Clemenceau of France

Lloyd George of Britain

Territorial provisions :

- Germany lost all her provinces
- Germany African colonies were given to Britain, France, Belgium & South Africa
- German-Asian colony were given to New Zealand, Australia & Japan
- German ex- colonies were treated as mandate territories under League of Nation
- Alsace and Lorraine given to France

Economic provision , Reparation (compensation)

- Germany was to pay compensations to allied countries

Disarmament provisions

- Germany army was limited to 100,000
- Germany was not allowed to have military aircraft
- Germany army would not possess heavy artillery tanks & aircraft
- Prohibition of the Germany military in Rhine land.

War Guilt and war crimes

Germany was declared as the responsible for war. It meant Germany leaders were guilty

Provisions regarding international organizations

By Versailles treaty of June 1919 participants agreed to establish the League of Nations that would preserve the world peace and order

Chapter Eight: The USSR, 1917-1941

8.1 The 1917 Russian Revolution

In February 1917, there was shortage of food in the capital Petrograd, caused the outbreak of rioting. The police deserted the government and joined the people. The socialist members of *Duma* formed a *council deputies from the workers and soldiers of Petrograd*. Czar Nicholas II signed decree of abdication on March 2, 1917. Then the *provisional government* established but it was unpopular because:-

- It wanted to continue the war.
- Failed to solve the problem of food shortage.
- The peasant demands for the seizure of land were not met, it was challenged by soviets, that three demands reflected by Bolshevik slogan “*peace, bread and land*” those Bolshevik won mass support.

The October (November) revolution or Bolshevik revolution.

In October 1917, during winter season, the provisional government was overthrown. The second all Russian congress of soviet was opened, the soviets of workers, soldiers and peasants deputies elected the council of people commissars under ***Lenin's*** leadership

The decree on land & decree on peace introduced. This declared the confiscation of *land without compensation*, solved the *agrarian question*, an *8 hours working in a day* was legally secured. *The equality of the nations & their self-determination proclaimed*. On July 1918, the 1st soviet constitution was adopted. In order to handle economic problem the Bolsheviks introduced *new economic policy in 1922*.

8.2 The Russian Civil War (1918 – 20)

Immediately after Bolsheviks took power their appointments tried to back for power. The civil war fought between white army and red army

1. White Army included:
 - former Officer those lost power
 - Land lords who lost lands

- Organized by anti-communist army. Supported by western countries
- Are large in number but divided & poorly led.
- consisted of groups such as social revolutionaries, Mensheviks, liberals

2. Red Army (Socialists)

- Supported by peasants & workers
- It was well organized, well- disciplined
- Commanded by Leon Trotsky
- The groups were also called Bolsheviks party

8.3 Rise of Stalin

After Lenin's death in 1924, the party was ruled by a triumvirate (group of 3 sharing power) consisting of Kamenev, Zinoviev and Stalin. Stalin had a very effective role within the party – General Secretary. This allowed him to appoint his allies to office. Stalin also took advantage of the fact that Lenin was extremely popular with the people by portraying himself as the 'chief mourner' at his funeral. Stalin's rise to power can be split into 3 stages.

1. The removal of Trotsky (1924-1926): Trotsky was more a theoretician rather than a practical party leader. Trotsky's Jewish background and late change from Menshevik to Bolshevik went against him. Stalin teamed up against Trotsky with Kamenev and Zinoviev, who also hated Trotsky. This went against Trotsky when he opposed Stalin in the 'Socialism in One Country Vs Permanent Revolution' debate. Stalin also had built up a support base using his role as General Secretary which helped defeat Trotsky in this argument. This led to Trotsky resigning as Commissar of War in 1925 and, in 1926, he was expelled from the Politburo.

2. The removal of the Left (1925-1928): After they helped remove Trotsky, Stalin now changed sides to the Right to defeat Zinoviev and Kamenev. In 1926, Trotsky joined forces with Zinoviev and Kamenev to form the 'United Opposition'. Eventually, the United Opposition was accused of forming factions, and they were all expelled from the Politburo, with Zinoviev and Kamenev allowed to stay within the party after they renounced their views. Trotsky was exiled.

3. The removal of the Right (1928 – 1929): Stalin, now with only the Right to remove, put forward his view that industrialization should begin immediately. The Right disagreed. Stalin saw the Right's views as standing in the way of his policy of 'Socialism in One Country' and used his support in the party to denounce the Right and all of them were removed from their respective posts,

Industrialization (1928 – 1941): Stalin's plan to industrialize the USSR began in 1928 with the first 'Five Year Plan'. He believed that industrialization was vital because many capitalist countries were 100 years ahead of Russia in terms of industrialization and if they did not make up that gap in 10 years, the USSR would be crushed. During the course of industrialization, Stalin introduced Gulags, which were labor camps. They provided free labor for the state, which saved it money. Anybody who was considered to 'sabotage' the Five Year Plans or who were 'anti-revolutionary' were put in these camps.

Agricultural Revolution (1928 – 1941): Collectivization was a term used to describe taking small individual peasant plots and grouping them together in larger, more efficient farms. This grain would be used to feed the cities in the USSR, as well as to export to fund the industrialization scheme put in place by Stalin. Peasants were also encouraged to be put onto collective farms, so that they can produce more food more efficiently.

The Terror State (1934 – 1941): Stalin used the secret police to purge any people who performed anti-revolutionary activities. However, the terror started to escalate after 1934, which can be pinpointed by the murder of Kirov. The person behind the murder is unknown, but it is most likely to be Stalin. The murder of Kirov led to many more murders over the next few years with many being sentenced to Gulags or having to endure a show trial (staged and publicized trial to show how many people were attempting to sabotage the Communist regime).

Chapter Nine: World War II

9.1 Cause of the War

- 1. The impact of WWI:** It resulted economic crisis, the decline of world trade, unemployment, agricultural depression, war debates. This caused the rise of dictatorial government (like Mussolini, Hitler). The Paris peace settlement failed to resolve the world problem rather than creating new problems. The harsh treatment of Germans at treaty of Versailles aggravated the German nationalists to the war of revenge
- 2. The role of great depression:** The years from 1929-33 are regarded as the world's economic crisis or great depression. It was very hard in USA. Many American investors entered bankruptcy. President, Roosevelt introduced the isolation policy for USA, rebuilding of American economy than international politics. It also encouraged the rise of extreme politics in Germany in 1933. To recover their economic crisis Italy & Japan were keen to expand their territory. Britain & France were in a wave of political unrest and unable to resist aggression
- 3. The rise of Axis Totalitarianism, Nationalism, Imperialism and militarism:** Germany (Nazism), Japan (militarists) and Italy (Fascist) were totalitarian state. Their ideology emphasize the supremacy of the state. Their great ambition was to have enormous land and natural resources. In order to secure their imperial ambition the three totalitarian states withdraw from League of Nations one after the other (Japan withdraw after the conquest of Manchuria, Germany withdraw after Hitler coming to power & conquest of Austria and Italy withdraw after the aggression of Ethiopia).
In 1936 Germany, Japan, Italy reached an agreement to establishing an alliance called Rome-Berlin -Tokyo Axis or triangular axis. After coming to power the primary tasks of Hitler were Re-arm Germany, adopting universal military service, establishing new navy, founding huge air force etc.
- 4. Failure of appeasement:** It was a diplomatic policy aimed to settling grievances of axis power by negotiation rather than military force.

1st phases of appeasement (from 2nd half 1920 s – 1937)

- One of the vague feeling was the war must be avoid at all costs.
- The good indicators would be the failure of Britain& France to stop various aggression & violation of Versailles treaty(Manchuria, Ethiopia, German Rearmament & Rhine land reoccupation)

2nd phase – since 1937

- Began when Chamberlain came to power in 1937
- He gave new dimension for appeasement
- He tried his best to negotiate Hitler's grievance than to use force
- He believed appeasement was the only way to sustain long-term peace

The failure of the policy of appeasement demonstrated the weakness of Britain& France to resist Hitler, thus miscalculation and error judgment played a great role in the outbreak of WWII

5. The weakness of league of nation: The principle of the organization was to settle peace & security & to provide collective security in the event of military aggression for its member. But it was not effective from the very beginning (Because of neutrality of USA). When Japan invaded Manchuria in 1931 it was failed to settle the crisis. Germany rearmament, Italy aggression of Ethiopia forced the League to cease the peace settlement of the world in 1938.

9.2 Axis Offensives, 1939-41

WWII began on Sep 1, 1939 when Germany invaded Poland, two days later Britain& France declared war on Germany. In the east Russian took over Estonia, Latvia & Lithuania

Nazis were successful in East & they wanted to repeat the success of east in west. Hitler planned to attack France. In the mean time, Britain& France did their best to weaken the position of Germany traded by sea.

Germany invaded Denmark & Norway, April 1940. Norway was the main sources of iron ore. After defeating the Norwegians, Germany assured her bases of iron ore supplies. After six months Hitler struck of west in May 1940. Netherland, Belgium & France were occupied by Germany. France was totally controlled by Germany.

Hitler's success in France encouraged him to prepare for invasion of Britain. The German air force bombarded military sites, factories of capital city in August to Sep 1940. The British air force won the battle. For 1st time the force of Germany was checked.

Italy invaded Egypt to share Hitler victory in the east but Britain defeated the Italian force.

In 1941 the first move of Hitler was to give more support to his ally. He sent Rommel (his general to Tripoli). Italy & Germany drove the British troops out of Libya. In April 1942 Germany invaded Greek

and the Germany troops drove out British troops from the island of Greek. The major effect of Battle of Greek

- The allies lost around 360,000 men
- It weakened the position of British in North Africa
- It delayed Hitler's invasion of Russia

Operation of Barbarossa is called the German invasion of Russia began on June 1941. The three front of operation Barbarossa

- In North towards Leningrad
- In center towards Moscow
- In south towards Ukraine

Hitler's plan to capture Moscow and Leningrad failed due to the cold winter of Russia. USA entered the war on Dec 7, 1941, when Japan bombarded Pearl Harbor, USA naval base in the Pacific Ocean. The bombing of Pearl Harbor assumed Japanese dominance in Pacific (in 1942 Japan controlled Malaya, Singapore, Hong Kong, Burma). The incident at Pearl Harbor also provoked Hitler to declare war on USA.

9.3. Allied Offensives, 1942-45

At this phase the allied power beat off the axis. At the Battle of Mid-way Island, USA defeated Japanese fleet at the Pacific in June 1942. The battle weakened the position of Japan on the Pacific. From Aug 1942 the USA began to recover the Pacific island.

The Germany attacked the city of Stalingrad in the end of Aug, 1942. But the Russian refused to surrender. In Nov, the *red Army of Russia* counter attacked the German & the German forces were trapped in. This battle was the major turning point for the war on the east.

Britain and USA forces captured Sicily on July 1943. Germany tried its best to liberate Italy. The whole of Italy fell to Britain & USA in 1945. The fall of Italy contributed for the victory of Allied power because Italy was the bases of bombing the Germany in central and Balkans. Hitler invaded France on 6 June 1944. Britain & France approached Paris by August 1944. The German power in Europe began to disintegrate in April 1945 when Soviet forces had entered Berlin, Hitler committed Suicide. On order of Truman, USA dropped atomic bomb on two Japanese cities, Hiroshima & Nagasaki in Aug 1945.

9.4 End of the War

The Yalta Conference was held in Crimea (Russia) in February 1945, among 'Big three' Roosevelt (USA), Stalin (USSR), Churchill (Britain)

- The main aim of the conference was to decide the shape of post war Europe
- They agreed to establish new international organization, UNO

- They agreed to divide Germany into four zones , British, France, USA, USSR